



LIBRARY
OF THE
UNIVERSITY
OF ILLINOIS

q 910
M29gE
1863
v.3


Return this book on or before the
Latest Date stamped below.

University of Illinois Library

JUN 18 1984

JUN 13 1994

MAY 10 1994

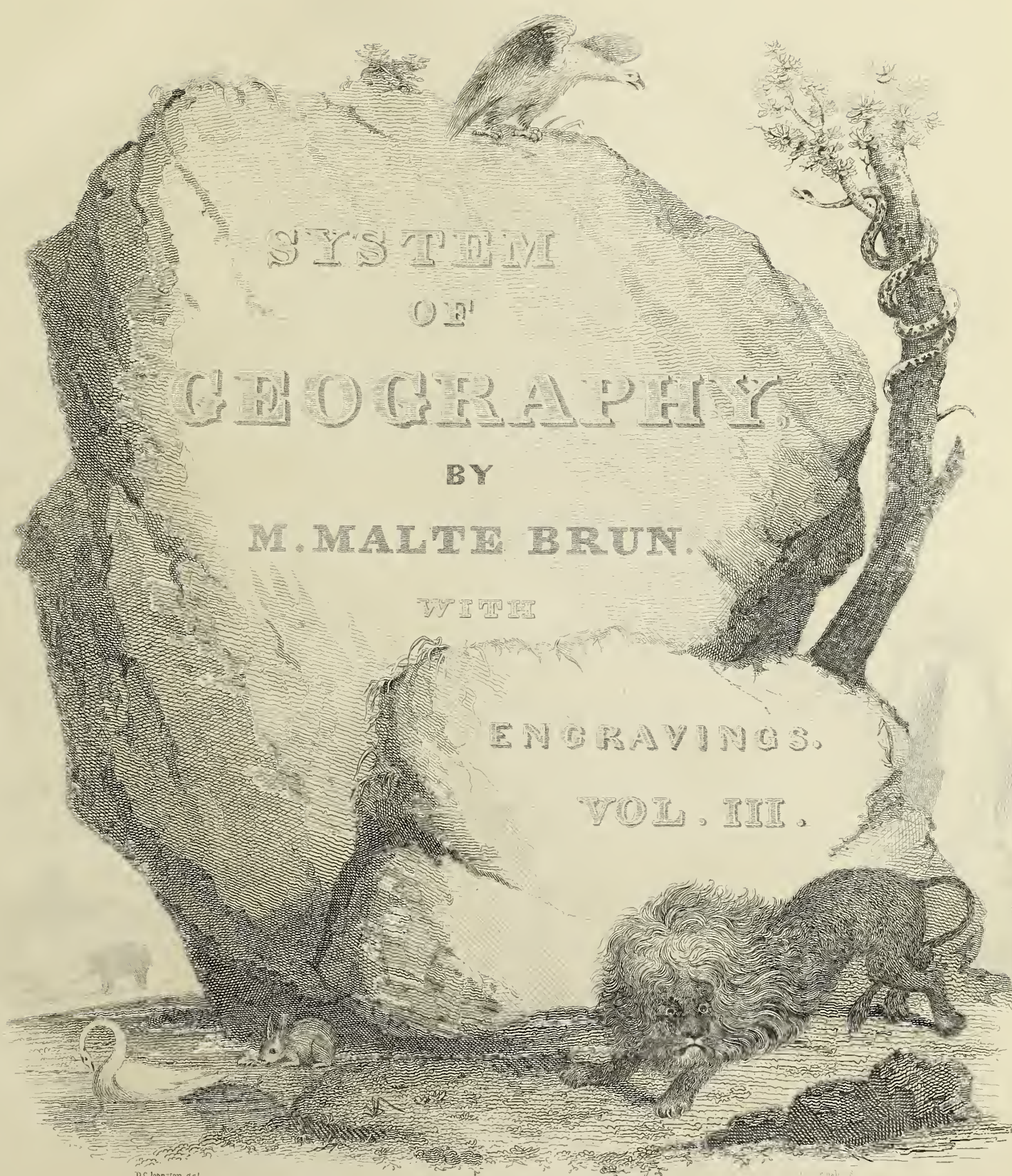


Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2016

<https://archive.org/details/descriptionofall03malt>



View of London.



SYSTEM
OF
GEOGRAPHY.

BY
M. MALTE BRUN.

WITH
ENGRAVINGS.
VOL. III.

D.C. Johnston, del.

Printed & Published by Samuel Walker, B. ton.

A
DESCRIPTION OF
ALL PARTS OF THE WORLD,

ACCORDING TO THE GREAT NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE GLOBE;

WITH

ANALYTICAL, SYNOPTICAL AND ELEMENTARY TABLES;

OR,

UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

BY M. MALTE-BRUN,

EDITOR OF THE "ANNALES DES VOYAGES," ETC.

WITH ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS,

BY JAMES G. PERCIVAL.

A NEW EDITION:

CONTAINING RECENT GEOGRAPHICAL DISCOVERIES, CHANGES IN POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY, AND OTHER VALUABLE ADDITIONS;

COMPILED FROM THE LATE FRENCH EDITIONS OF MALTE-BRUN, BY MM. HUOT AND LAVALLÉE, AND OTHER LATE AUTHORITIES.

BY W. A. CRAFTS.

BEAUTIFULLY ILLUSTRATED WITH STEEL ENGRAVINGS AND FINE COLORED MAPS.

IN THREE VOLUMES.

VOL. III.

BOSTON:

PUBLISHED BY SAMUEL WALKER, JR.

1863.

Entered, according to Act of Congress, in the year 1863, by

SAMUEL WALKER, JR.,

In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the District of Massachusetts.

9910
8/11/20 E
1863
V. 3

ADVERTISEMENT.

THE Geography of M. Malte-Brun has long been acknowledged as the most complete work of its kind. It not only acquired a high reputation in the original French, but when translated into English was admitted by the best critics to be superior to any English work. Its completeness and general arrangement have been highly commended; but it is the execution of the work, the animated and attractive style in which it is written, that makes it especially worthy of praise. It is not a dry treatise, but so abounds in interesting description and lively statement even of philosophical views, that it enlists the attention as closely and pleasantly as works of simply an entertaining character, while it is none the less a thorough and scientific work.

The first American edition was issued under the supervision of James G. Percival, who was distinguished for his literary and scientific attainments. He revised the translation with care, corrected errors, and added numerous notes to explain or modify the text, or further to illustrate the subject. His notes on the geological portions of the work are especially full and important.

That edition has for some years been out of print, and the demand for the work, from time to time, among those who know its value, has induced the publisher to issue a new and superior edition, beautifully illustrated, and containing much additional matter, designed to adapt it to the present state of the science, and to the taste and wants of the American public.

The additions will be found in an Appendix, and embrace recent EXPLORATIONS and DISCOVERIES, including those of DR. KANE and THE LATE ENGLISH ARCTIC EXPEDITIONS; new facts in PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY developed by late researches; changes in POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY; statistics of POPULATION, AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, MINERAL PRODUCTS, etc. They are compiled chiefly from the late French edition of Malte-Brun, edited by M. Huot, an accurate and learned writer, and the still later edition of M. Theophile Lavallée, who is highly esteemed as a scholar, and the author of a History of France. The statistics are taken from the most reliable authorities.

The work contains a series of finely colored maps, and is illustrated with numerous engravings on steel, embracing views of the principal cities of the world, places celebrated in history, and remarkable scenery. The illustrations are executed in the highest style of the art, and render the work one of the most beautiful, as it is one of the most useful, works ever published in this country.

2 Nov 26 App. vol. done - vs. of S

NOTE.

THE Appendix will be found arranged in the same order as the body of the work. To avoid a multiplication of notes, no special reference is made on the pages of the text to the Appendix, but all additions, corrections, and changes may be found by turning to the corresponding "Book" in the Appendix.

CONTENTS OF VOL. III.

BOOK CXXII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Germany.—Sixth Section.—Kingdom of Wirtemberg.—Grand Duchy of Baden.—Principalities of Hohenzollern-Hechingen, Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen and Lichtenstein.

Present and Former Divisions compared,	1
KINGDOM OF WIRTEMBERG—Geology—Climate,	1
Fossil Bones—Lakes—Ancient Inhabitants,	1
House of Wirtemberg—Productions—Game—Manufactures—Spirits,	2
Commerce—Inland Trade,	2
Revenue—Expenditure—Emigration—Aurora Borealis,	2
Army,	3
Population—Privilege of bearing Fire-arms—Liberty of the Press,	3
Education,	3
Orders of Knighthood—Constitution,	4
Religious Liberty—General Assembly—Conservative Council, Divisions of the Kingdom—Towns—Stuttgard,	4
Ludwigsburg—Ellwangen,	4
Hohenstaufen—Reutlingen—Tubingen, University—Ulm,	5
Biberach—Antiquities—Crimes,	5
GRAND DUTCHY OF BADEN,	5
Extent and Surface—Mountains—Geological Formation—Lakes and Ponds,	6
Climate—Forests,	6
Natural Productions—Mines—Agricultural Produce—Manufactures,	6
Commerce—House of Baden, its Antiquity—Population,	7
Religion,	7
Government—Conscription—Code—Weights and Measures,	7
Ranks—Education,	8
Crimes—Finances—Army—Political Divisions,	8
Language—Towns—Manheim,	8
Population—Heidelberg, University,	9
Castle—Famous Tun—Other Towns—Carlsruhe,	9
Supposed Origin of Pforzheim,	9
Roman Town—Rastadt—Baden—Marshal Turenne—Offenburg—Friburg—Brisach,	10
Southern District—Willingen—Constance,	10
Martyrdom of Huss and Jerome of Prague,	10
Administration—Freedom of Trade,	10
PRINCIPALITIES OF HOHENZOLLERN—Hohenzollern-Hechingen,	11
Hechingen—Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen—Town of Sigmaringen,	11
Town of LICHTENSTEIN,	11
PRINCIPALITY,	11

BOOK CXXIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Germany.—Seventh Section.—Kingdom of Bavaria.

Political Limits—Basins,	12
Mountains—The Spessart—Rocks,	12
The Rhæne-Gebirge—The Fichtel-Gebirge—The Bœhmerwald—Length,	13
Formations on the North and South of the Danube,	13
Fossil Bones—Lakes,	13
Mineral Springs—Climate—Ancient Inhabitants,	13, 14
Hermunduri—Narisci—Vindelici,	14
Roman Colonies—Bavaria during the Middle Ages—Chiefs or Dukes,	14
Thassilo—The Country divided into Counties by Charlemagne—Luitpold, the First Margrave,	14
Soil—Agriculture,	15
Domestic Animals—Oxen—Hogs—Horses—Sheep,	15
Bees,	15
Horticulture—Wines—Woods and Forests,	16
Quarries and Mines—Iron,	16
Manufactures—Commerce,	16, 17
Corn Trade—Population,	17
Religion—Inhabitants,	17
Education—Constitution,	17
General Assembly of Two Chambers,	18
Orders of Knighthood—Army—Finances,	18
Political Divisions—Circle of the Isar—Munich,	18
Royal Palace—Public Collections,	19
Places of Education—Charitable Institutions,	19
Academies—Trade—Landshut, University,	19
Library, Collections, &c.—Freysingen—Circle of the Lower Danube—Passau,	20
Trade, Population, &c.—Fresh water Pearls—Straubing,	20
Bodenmais—Circle of the Regen—Ratisbon—History,	20
Population, &c.—Kepler's Monument—Don John of Austria,	20, 21
Amberg—Ingolstadt—Abensberg—Eichstedt—Circle of the Upper Maine,	21
Bayreuth—Bamberg,	21
Hoff—Caverns at Gailenreuth—Fossil Bones—Circle of the Rezat,	21, 22
Anspach—Erlangen, University,	22
Fürth—Nuremberg,	22
Commerce—Inventions,	23
Nördlingen—Circle of the Lower Maine—Wurzburg, University,	23
Vineyards,	23
Aschaffenburg—Circle of the Upper Danube—Augsburg—Population—Buildings,	23

Bishops—Industry—Commerce—Neuburg—Tomb of La Tour d'Auvergne, 24
 Battle of Blenheim—Memmingen—Kempten—Lindau—Circle of the Rhine, 24
 Soil—Climate—Mineral Productions, 24
 Ancient Inhabitants—Spire, 25
 Other Towns—Landau on the Queich, 25

Statistical Table of the Kingdom of Bavaria Proper, and of the Bavarian Possessions on the Rhine, according to the Latest Authorities, 26
 Circle of the Isar, 27
 Circles of the Lower Danube—Circle of the Regen, 27
 Circle of the Upper Maine, 27
 Circle of the Rezat, 27
 Circle of the Lower Maine, 28
 Circle of the Upper Danube, 28
 Circle of the Rhine, 28
 Budget in 1825, 28

BOOK CXXIV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Germany.—Eighth Section.—Territories and Free Towns of Bremen, Hamburg, Lubeck, and Frankfort on the Maine.

Hanseatic Towns—Origin of Suburbs, 29
 Origin of the Hanseatic League—Bremen, 29
 Manufactures—Herring and Whale Fisheries, 30
 Territory—Government, 30
 Military Force—Hamburg—Population, 30
 Losses in 1813—Public Buildings—The Binnen-Alster, 30, 31
 Places of Education—Mendicity—Vaccination—Life Insurance, 31
 Classes of Inhabitants—Jews—Right of Citizenship—Government—Military Force, 31
 Revenue—Manufacturing Industry—Foreign Trade—Whale Fishery, 31, 32
 Port—Territory—Lubeck—History, 32
 Government—The Town—Useful Institutions, Places of Education, &c. 32
 Revenues—Military Force—Manufactures—Travemunde—Frankfort on the Maine, 32, 33
 Territory of Frankfort—Public Buildings, 33
 Origin of its Name—Reformation—Quarter of Wollgraben—Useful Establishments, 33
 Government—Religion, 33
 Finances—Military Force—Manufactures and Commerce, 34

TABLES—Commerce of Bremen in 1825, 34
 Table of Grain Exported from Hamburg, from 1815 to 1825, 34
 Different Commercial Tables, 34

BOOK CXXV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Germany.—Ninth Section.—Description of Bohemia.

Kingdom of Bohemia—Its Basin the Bed of an Ancient Caspian Sea, 35
 Mountains—Geological Formation, 35
 Volcanoes, 35, 36
 Earthquakes—Mineral Springs, 36
 Rivers—Lakes, Ponds and Marshes—Climate, 36
 Winds—Rain—Ancient Inhabitants—Boii, 36
 Marcomanni, 37
 Slavi—Historical Recollections, 37
 Progress of Civilization, 37, 38

Constitution—Political Organization of the Kingdom—The States, 38
 Privileged Towns—Protected Towns—Religion, 38
 Moral and Political State of the Jews, 39
 Protestants—Convents—Ecclesiastical Dignitaries, 39
 Population—Nations which make up the Population—Germans, 39
 Bohemians or Tchekhes—Bohemian Language—Physical Constitution, 40
 Character of the Inhabitants, 40
 Dress—Food of the People, 40
 Agriculture—Domestic Animals, 40, 41
 Culture of the Vine—Fruit Trees—Flax and Hops—Forests—Bees—Game—Fish, 41
 The Silurus—Mines, 41
 Mineral Waters—Waters of Tœplitz, 41, 42
 Sedlitz Waters—Precious Stones, &c. 42
 Manufactures—Commerce, 42
 Industry of the Jews—Exports—Means of Transportation—Towns, 42
 Prague, 42, 43
 Its Antiquity—Other Towns, 43
 Public Instruction—Charitable Institutions, 43, 44
 Finances—Army, 44

BOOK CXXVI.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Germany.—Tenth Section.—Description of Moravia and Austrian Silesia.

Moravia—Different Rocks—The Alt Vater, 45
 Austrian Silesia—The Gesenke-Gebirge—Ancient Mines—Geology, 45
 Ancient Inhabitants—Quadi, 45
 Buri—Moravia erected into a Kingdom—Slavonians, 46
 Slavonic Language, 46
 Dialects—Germans—Other Nations—Religion, 46
 Climate—Productions—Minerals—Revenue, 46, 47
 Territorial Divisions—Government—Towns in Moravia—Brünn—Public Buildings, 47
 Public Walks—Useful Institutions—Neighbourhood—Walks—National Dance, 47
 Southern Frontiers of Moravia, 47, 48
 Towns in the Moravian Mountains—Iglau—Trebitch, 48
 Ingrowitz—Olmütz—Public Buildings—Trade—Ancient Name, 48
 Kremsier—Austrian Silesia—Troppau, 48

BOOK CXXVII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Germany.—Eleventh Section.—Archduchy of Austria.

Position, 49
 Superficial Extent—Mountains—Geological Structure—Mountains of Salzburg, 49
 Vegetation, 49
 Lakes—Rivers—Ancient Inhabitants, 50
 Ancient Towns—Name of Austria, its Origin—Blending of Nations, 50
 Language—Climate—Diseases—Agriculture, 50
 Wines—Animals, 50, 51
 Industry—Manufactures—Commerce, 51
 Religion, 51
 Constitution—The States—Courts of Justice—Censorship, 51, 52
 Revenue—Neighbourhood of Vienna, 52
 Vienna—The City—Public Squares, 52
 Public Buildings—Palaces—Arsenals, 52, 53

Number of Houses, &c.—Principal Churches, 53
 Suburbs, 53
 Places of Instruction, 53
 Charitable Institutions—Houses of Correction—Places of
 Amusement—Manufactures, 54
 Commerce, 54
 Manners—Sieges of Vienna, 54
 Antiquities—Environs—Schenbrunn—Laxenburg, 55
 Villages—Towns—Baden—Neustadt, 55
 Visit to the Schneeberg, 55
 Towns seen from the Schneeberg, 56
 Towns in Upper Austria—Lintz—Steyer—Ens, 56
 Gmunden—Benedictine Convent of Garsten—Hallstadt, 56
 Salzburg—Character of the Austrian People—Revenue, 56, 57

BOOK CXXVIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

*Germany.—Twelfth Section.—County of Tyrol, and Dutchy of
 Stiria.*

Comparison between Tyrol and Stiria, 58
 Acquisition of Tyrol by the Dukes of Austria—Boundaries
 and Extent—Appearance of the Country—Direction of the
 Mountains, 58
 Glaciers and Rivers—Rocks, 58
 Lignite—Tertiary Deposits—Plants, 58
 Mineral Springs—Animals—Ancient Inhabitants—Metals
 and Minerals, 59
 Agriculture—Vineyards—Fruit Trees—Forests—Popula-
 tion—Industry, 59
 Character of the Tyrolese—Religion—Constitution—Mili-
 tary Force—Revenue, 60
 Towns and Villages—Innsbruck, the Capital, 60
 Hall—Schwatz—Botzen—Trent—Roveredo, 60
 STIRIA—Mountains—Rivers, 60, 61
 Ancient Inhabitants—Character of the Inhabitants—Religion,
 Climate—Agricultural Produce, 61
 Mines—Constitution of Government—Towns and Villages, 61
 Zell—Bruck, 62
 Grätz—Radkersburg, 62
 Marburg—Cilly, 62
 District of Voitzberg—Population of Stiria, 63

BOOK CXXIX.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

*Germany.—Thirteenth Section.—Kingdom of Illyria Described.—
 Austria and Germany Concluded.*

Kingdom of Illyria, 64
 Ancient Inhabitants, 64
 Historical Notice—Boundaries, Superficial Extent—Soil—
 Mountains, 64
 Cavern at Adelsberg, 64
 Cave of Magdalena—Lake of Cirknitz, 65
 Metals—Rivers—Climate—Agriculture—Industry, 65
 Population—Religion—Language—Government and Reve-
 nue—Towns and Villages—Klagenfurt, the Capital of
 Carinthia—Laybach, 65, 66
 Gottschee—Government of Trieste—Trieste, 66
 Capo d'Istria—Rovigno—Pola, 66
 General View of the Austrian Empire, 66, 67
 General View of Germany—Comparison between its Former
 and its Present Constitution, 67
 Northern and Southern Germany, 68

State of the Sciences, 68
 Education—Gymnastics—Literature and Music—Population
 —Improvements Demanded, 68

*Statistical Tables of the German Provinces under the Austrian
 Empire.*

Kingdom of Bohemia, 68, 69
 Moravia, and Austrian Silesia, 69
 Archduchy of Austria, 69, 70
 County of Tyrol, 70
 Dutchy of Stiria, 70
 Kingdom of Illyria, 71
 Number of Horses, Cattle, &c.—Increase of Population—
 Population of German Austria per square mile, in 1825—
 Proportion between the Numbers of the Two Sexes—
 Sentences pronounced by the Supreme Criminal Court at
 Vienna, from 1806 to 1809—Amount of Capital Crimes
 committed in the Austrian Empire—Number of Trials—
 Number of Children who frequent the Schools—Number
 of Journals and Newspapers published in Germany in 1826, 71

BOOK CXXX.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Switzerland.

Boundaries and Extent, 72
 Mountains—Jura—Rocks that compose it—The Alps—Ap-
 pearance, 72
 Granitic Rocks—Glaciers, 72, 73
 Avalanches, 73
 Rivers—Lakes—Fish—Metals and Minerals, 73
 Mineral Springs—Vegetation—Wild Animals, 73
 Combats between the Bear and the Bull—Chamois and Great
 Eagle of the Alps—Ravens, 73, 74
 Ancient Inhabitants—Greek Colonies, 74
 Helvetii defeated by Cæsar—First Foreign Invasion—Bur-
 gundian Kings—Religion, 74
 Other Invasions—Helvetia under the protection of the Ger-
 man Empire, 74, 75
 Religion—Languages, 75
 Manners and Character of the Swiss, 75
 Dress—Agriculture—Domestic Animals, 76
 Commerce—Canton of Schaffhausen—Canton of Thurgau—
 Canton of St. Gall—Canton of Appenzell, 76
 Canton of Zurich—Canton of Aargau—Canton of Basle—
 Basle, 76
 Canton of Soleure—Canton of Berne—Berne, 77
 Canton of Lucerne—Canton of Zug, 77
 Canton of Schwytz—Canton of Glaris, 77
 Canton of Uri—Canton of Underwalden—Canton of Friburg
 —Canton of Vaud, 77, 78
 Canton of Geneva—Lake, 78
 Geneva—Canton of the Valais, 78, 79
 Canton of Tesino—Canton of the Grisons—Canton of Neu-
 chatel, 79
 Helvetic Confederation—Political Constitution, 79
 Army—Finances, 79

Statistical Tables of Switzerland.

Population of the Principal Towns, and Contingents of the
 Twenty-two Cantons, classed according to the Order and
 Rank they hold in the Confederation, 80
 Population, Surface and Convents of Switzerland, 80
 Number of German, French and Italian Newspapers, pub-
 lished in Switzerland in 1826, 80

Number of Strangers whose Passports were examined at Geneva in 1825,	80
--	----

BOOK CXXXI.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Italy.—First Section.—Physical Geography of Italy.

General Remarks,	81
Limits of Italy—Mountains,	81
Capes—Plains—Rivers,	81, 82
Lakes—Mineral Springs—Climate,	82
Vegetation,	82
Animals—Fish,	82, 83
Cuttle Fish, Nautilus, &c.—Winds,	83
Geological Constitution—Diminution of the Sea by Alluvial Deposits,	83
Fossil Bones,	84
The Appennines—Travertine—Calcareous Incrustations,	84
Calcareous Deposit from the Waters of San Filippo—Volcanic Phenomena—Salsa at Sassuolo—The Solfatara,	84
The Grotto del Cane—The Lucrine Lake—Monte Nuovo—Vesuvius,	85
Minerals—Islands—Sicily—Capes—Rivers,	85
Rocks—Mount Ætna,	85
Mud Volcanoes—Vegetation—Animals,	86
Separation of Sicily from the Continent,	86
Scylla and Charybdis—Malta,	86
Comino—Gozzo—Pentellaria—The Ægades—The Lipari Islands,	86, 87
Lipari—Volcano,	87
Stromboli—Islands in the Gulf of Naples—Capri—Ischia,	87
Procida—The Pontian Islands—Island of Elba,	87, 88
Sardinia—Mountains,	88
Rivers—Climate—Vegetation—Quadrupeds,	88
Birds—Insects—Reptiles—Neighbouring Islands,	88, 89

BOOK CXXXII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Description of Italy.—Second Section.—Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom.

Ancient Inhabitants,	90
Longobardi—Fall of their Kingdom—Lombard Republics,	90
Guelphs and Ghibelines,	90, 91
Decline of the Lombard Republics,	91
Republic of Venice,	91
Former Government—Italian Republic—Kingdom of Italy—Limits of the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom—Climate,	91
Valley of the Po—Agriculture—Ancient Recollections,	92
Industry—Constitution—Government of Milan—Milan—Population—Corsi,	92
Cathedral—Other Churches,	92
Etymology of Mediolanum—Public Buildings,	93
Theatres—Puppets—Their Antiquity,	93
Public Walks,	93
Useful Institutions—Great Men,	93, 94
Monza—Pavia,	94
Lodi—Como—Bergamo—Cremona,	94
Brescia—Mantua—Government of Venice—Pellagra,	94, 95
Verona,	95
Padua,	95
Vicenza—Treviso—Belluno—Udina—Lagoons—Venice,	96
Public Buildings—Church of St. Mark,	96
Square of St. Mark,	96
Ducal Palace—Churches—Naval Arsenal,	97
Education—Gondolieri,	97
Libraries—Manners—Island of Torcello,	97

BOOK CXXXIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Description of Italy.—Third Section.—Sardinian Monarchy.—Principality of Monaco.

Ancient Inhabitants,	98
Savoy—Origin of its Dukes—Language,	98
Religion—Legislation,	99
Towns,	99
Mount Cenis—The Simplon—Vercelli,	99
Turin—Royal Castle—Churches,	99, 100
Other Towns,	100
Genoa—Fortifications—Streets—Terraces—Churches—Hospitals,	100
Public Walks—The Exchange—Manners—The Mezzaro—Industry,	101
Gulf of Genoa,	101
Principality of Monaco—Island of Sardinia,	101
Character of the Sardinians—Towns—Cagliari,	102

BOOK CXXXIV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Description of Italy.—Fourth Section.—Dutchies of Parma, Modena, Massa and Lucca.—Grand Duchy of Tuscany.—Republic of San Marino.

Ancient Inhabitants—Senones—Etymology of Picenum,	103
Etymology of Sabini—Dutchy of Parma—Its Princes—Position of the Dutchy—Parma—Farnese Palace—Theatre of Vignola—Cemetery,	103
Guastalla—Placentia—Origin of its Name,	103, 104
Celebrated Men—Neighbourhood of Placentia—Industry,	104
Dutchy of Modena—Town of Modena—Reggio—Dutchy of Massa,	104, 105
Town of Massa—Carrara,	105
Dutchy of Lucca—Industry—Town of Lucca—Grand Dutchy of Tuscany,	105
The Maremma,	105
Tuscany erected into a Dutchy,	106
Rivers—Pisa—Cathedral—Baptistery,	106
Leaning Tower—Campo Santo,	106
Florence—Churches—Ducal Palace—Florentine Gallery,	106, 107
Other Towns,	107
Arezzo—Cortona—Sienna,	107
Piazza del Campo—Society of St. Catherine,	107
Volterra—Leghorn—Ophthalmia—Piombino,	108
Island of Elba—Condition of Tuscany,	108
Republic of San Marino,	108

BOOK CXXXV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Description of Italy.—Fifth Section.—Description of the States of the Church.

Spiritual and Temporal Power of the Pope,	109
Origin of his Temporal Power,	109
Late Events,	109
Extent and Divisions of the Roman States,	110
Rome—Appearance of the City—Carnival—Horse Races—Moccolletti,	110
Police—Marriages—Monopolies—Lotteries—The Cavalletto,	110, 111
The Strappado—Punishment of Death,	111
Government,	111

Religious Ceremonies—Certificate of Communion,	111
Cicisbei—Arts and Sciences,	112
Education—Ancient Monument,	112
The Pantheon—The Coliseum,	112
The Vatican,	113
Quirinal Palace—The Capitol—The Forum,	113
Church of St. Peter,	113, 114
The Baldacchino,	114
Ancient Church—Palaces,	114
Neighbourhood of Rome—Pontine Marshes,	114, 115
Ostia,	115
Spoletto—Perugia—Bologna,	115
Ferrara—Ravenna—Faenza—Rimini—Ancona,	115
Loretto—The Casa Santa—Detached Districts,	116

BOOK CXXXVI.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Description of Italy.—Sixth Section.—Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

ANCIENT Inhabitants—Origin of their Names,	117
Samnium,	117
Campania—Vesuvius in the time of Strabo,	117
Lucania—Sybaris,	118
Brutii—Sicily—Foundation of the Duchy of Benevento,	118
Aversa ceded to the Normans,	118
Norman Princes—Usurpation of Henry VI.,	118, 119
House of Anjou—Sicilian Vespers,	119
San Germano—Monte Cassino—Dance of the Reapers,	119
Charity—Mendicants,	120
Bandits—Costume,	120
Mola—Gaeta—Capua—Naples,	120
Manners of the People,	121
Lazzaroni—Mendicity, Theft,	121
Advantages of the Revolution at Naples—Education,	121
Manners of the Rich—The Chiaja—Squares—Streets,	121
Theatres—Palaces—Churches—Hospitals—Industry,	122
Environs of Naples—Pompeii,	122
Herculaneum—Naples as seen from Camaldoli,	122
Pausilippo—Pozzuoli,	123
Temple of Serapis—Traces of Pholades—Explanation of the Phenomenon,	123
Gomb of Virgil—Salerno,	123
Avellino—Aquila—Chieti,	123, 124
The Theatines, Origin of their Name—Mount Gargano—Foggia—Cannæ,	124
Terra di Bari—Altamura—Trani—Bari—Terra di Otranto—Brundisium—Otranto—Taranto,	124
Purple—The Tarantula,	125
Potenza—Calabria—Cosenza,	125
Crotona or Cotrone—Pizzo,	125
Gierace—Reggio,	125
Earthquake of 1783—Effects of the Catastrophe,	126
Vegetation of Calabria—Bretian Pitch,	126
Animals—Quadrupeds—Fish—Sword Fish,	126, 127
Manners and Character of the Calabrians—Condition of the Peasants—Zingari or Gypsies,	127
Extent of the Neapolitan Territory—Luminous Phenomenon, Fata Morgana,	127
Sicily—Constitution,	127
Present State of the Island—Productions—Improvements required,	128
Convents—Nobles—Roads,	128
Climate—Agriculture,	128
Messina—Port—Public Buildings,	128, 129
Places of Education, &c.—Taormina,	129
Etna—Gigantic Chestnut Trees,	129
Catania—Ravages of Earthquakes,	129, 130
Convent of Benedictines—Antiquities—University—Knights of Malta—Industry and Commerce,	130
Ancient Syracuse—Fountain of Arethusa—Catacombs,	130
The Ear of Dionysius—Modern Syracuse,	130, 131

Other Towns—Girgenti—Manners of its Ancient Inhabitants—Public Buildings—Sciacca—Ruins of Selinus,	131
Mazzara—Marsala—Trapani,	131
Ruins of Segesta,	132
Alcamo—Montreale—Palermo—Its Two Principal Streets—Gates—Royal Palace,	132
The Vicaria,	133
Useful Institutions—Moorish Palaces—Cathedral—Catacombs of the Capuchins,	133
St. Rosalia—Festival of St. Rosalia,	133
Public Walks,	134
Neighbourhood—Termini—Islands,	134
Character of the Sicilians—Manners—Elementary Education neglected,	134
Religion—Peasantry—Conversazioni—Society,	134, 135
Corruption—Police,	135
Manner of Computing Time—Destinies of Italy,	135

Statistical Tables of Italy.

Lombardo—Venetian Kingdom,	136
Kingdom of Piedmont and Sardinia—Principality of Monaco,	136—138
Duchy of Parma—Duchy of Modena,	138
Duchy of Massa—Duchy of Lucca,	138
Grand Duchy of Tuscany,	139
Republic of San Marino—States of the Church,	139
Places of Education, Religious Houses and Hospitals,	139
Statistics of the Population of Rome from 1816 to 1825, inclusive,	140
Kingdom of the Two Sicilies,	140, 141

BOOK CXXXVII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Physical Geography of the Spanish Peninsula.—History of the Ancient People that inhabited Spain and Portugal.—Mussulman Conquest.

EXTENT and Surface,	142
Mountains—Pyrenees—Rocks,	142
Iberian Range—Fossil Bones—Rocks—Carpetano-Vettonic Range—Rocks,	142, 143
Lusitanian Range—Marianic Range,	143
Rocks—Cuneic Range—Rocks—Bætic Range—Perpetual Snow,	143
Rocks—Rock of Gibraltar—Parameras,	143, 144
Basins—Basin of the Tagus,	144
Basin of the Guadiana—Basin of the Duero,	144
Basin of the Guadalquivir—Salt Formation,	144, 145
Basin of the Ebro,	145
Other Smaller Basins—Basins of the Guadalaviar—Of the Jucar—Of the Segura—Of the Minho—Of the Mondego,	145
Four Divisions from Declivities of Surface—Cantabrian—Lusitanian—Bætic—Iberian—Six Regions of Vegetation,	146
Central or Celtiberian Region,	146
Bætic Region—Iberian Region,	146
Lusitanian, Galician and Cantabrian Regions,	146
Balearic Islands—Fromentera—Ivica—Majorca,	146, 147
Minorca—Natural Productions,	147
Ancient Inhabitants,	147
Origin of the word Spain—Ancient Inhabitants—Celtiberi—Their Manners,	147, 148
Earliest Colonies,	148
Spain a Roman Province—Lusitania—Bætica—Tarracoenensis—Inhabitants of Lusitania,	148
Inhabitants of Bætica—Inhabitants of Tarracoenensis,	148
Manners of the Ancient Spaniards,	149
Dress—Spain in the Middle Ages,	149
Spain under the Moors,	149, 150
Conquest of the Kingdom of Granada,	150
Expulsion of the Moors,	150

BOOK CXXXVIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Spanish Peninsula.—Kingdom of Portugal and Algarva.

General Remarks,	151
Position—Political Limits—Natural Limits—Extent and Population,	151
Climate—Seasons and Temperature,	151, 152.
Climate of Lisbon and the Provinces—Storms—Salubrity of Portugal,	152.
Diseases—Earthquakes,	152
Mineral Wealth—Agriculture,	153
Cattle—Oil—Fruits—Wines,	153
Domestic Animals—Wild Animals,	153
Fish—Religion—Clergy—Character and Manners,	154
Physical Appearance—Amusements—Language,	154, 155
Literature and Sciences—Fine Arts—Education,	155
Government—Origin of the Cortes—Their Prerogatives—Constitution of 1821,	155
Province of Estremadura—Lisbon,	156
Population—Squares—Public Buildings,	156
Places of Education—Scientific Institutions—Police—Neighbourhood of Lisbon—Aqueduct of Bemfica—Convent of Mafra—Campo Grande,	156, 157
Other Towns,	157
Province of Beira—Coimbra—Province of Entre Douro e Minho—Braga—Oporto,	157
Province of Tras-os-Montes—Province of Alentejo,	157
Evora—Province of Algarva—Portuguese Foreign Possessions,	158
Commerce of Portugal,	158
<i>Statistical Tables of Portugal,</i>	159, 160

BOOK CXXXIX.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Spanish Peninsula.—Kingdom of Spain.

Origin of the Spanish Monarchy—Population of Spain,	161
Religion—Physical and Moral Character of the Spaniards	161
Language and Literature—Sciences and Arts,	161, 162
Government—Revolution of 1820,	162
Power of the Crown,	162
Agriculture—Produce,	162
Vineyards,	163
Sheep—The Mista—Shepherds,	163
Sheep—Shearing—Oxen—Hogs,	163, 164
Horses—Mules—Wild Animals—Locusts—Fish,	164
Territorial Divisions,	164
Kingdom of Navarre—Pampeluna,	164, 165
Vasconian Provinces—Province of Guipuscoa,	165
St. Sebastian—Province of Biscay—Bilboa—Province of Alava—Vittoria,	165
Principality of the Asturias—Oviedo—Kingdom of Galicia—St. Jago de Compostella—Orense—Lugo,	165, 166
Ports in Galicia—Ferrol—Corunna—Kingdom of Leon—Town of Leon—Valladolid—Salamanca,	166, 167
Old Castile,	167
Santander—Burgos—Soria—Segovia—Trajan's Aqueduct—The Alcazar,	167
St. Ildefonso,	168
Avila—Kingdom of Arragon—Tarazona—Huesca,	168
Saragossa,	168
Catalonia—Character of the Catalonians—Junquera—Figueras—Gerona,	168, 169
Urgel—Linda—Montserrat,	169
Manresa—Cardona—Mines of Rock Salt—Solsona—Vich,	169

Mataro—Barcelona—Public Buildings—Fort of Monjuich—Barcelonetta,	170
Falls of St. Michael—Road to Tarragona—Roman Remains—Tarragona—Reuss,	170
Tortosa—Kingdom of Valencia—Character of the Valencians,	171
Language—Costume—Towns—Peñiscola—Pope Luna—Valencia—Public Buildings—Police—Education,	171
Neighbourhood of Valencia—Alicante—San Felipe,	172
New Castile—Province of Cuenca—Province of Guadalaxara—Province of Madrid—City of Madrid—Climate,	172
Squares—Bull-fights,	172, 173
King of Spain and the Indies—New Palace—Arsenal—Royal Library—Royal Museum—Charitable Institutions,	173, 174
Public Walks—Bridge over the Manzanares—Industry—Environ of Madrid—Alcala—The Escorial,	174, 175
Manners of the People of Madrid—Province of Toledo—Toledo—Aranjuez,	175
Province of La Mancha—Estremadura,	175
Character of the Inhabitants—Chief Towns of the Districts—Plasencia—Alcantara,	175, 176
Caceres—Merida—Antiquities,	176
Badajos,	176
Andalusia—Nuevas Poblaciones,	176, 177
Character of the Andalusians—Kingdom of Jaen—Baexa—Jaen—Kingdom of Cordova,	177
Lucena—Cordova—Mosque,	177
Province of Seville,	178
Seville—Wonders of Seville,	178
The Giralda—Ruins of Italica—Province of Cadiz,	178, 179
Xeres—Cadiz,	179
Fortifications—Buildings—Isle of Leon,	179
Medina Sidonia—Kingdom of Granada—Province of Malaga,	179, 180
Ronda—Marbella,	180
Malaga—Vineyards—Antequera,	180
Lovers' Mountain,	180
Province of Granada,	181
Alhama—Santa Fe,	181
Granada—The Alhambra,	181
Guadix—Province of Murcia—Lorca—Murcia—Cartagena,	181, 182
The Balears—Ivica,	182
Manners—Costume—Marriages,	182
Fromentera—Cabrera—Majorca,	182, 183
Dress—Minorca—Port Mahon,	183
Commerce and Industry of Spain—Foreign Trade,	183
Republic of Andorra—Origin,	184
Government,	184
<i>Statistical Tables of Spain,</i>	185—188

BOOK CXL.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

France.—Historical Notice.

Ancient Inhabitants—Character of the Gauls,	189
Division of Gaul under the Romans,	189
First Narbonnaise—Second Do.—Maritime Alps—Novempopulania—First Aquitaine,	190
Second Aquitaine—Viennoise—Great Sequanaise—First Lyonnaise—Second Do.,	190
Third and Fourth Lyonnaise—First and Second Belgium,	190
First Germany—Celtic Language—Government of the Celts,	191
Manners,	191
Marriages—Worship—Priests,	191, 192
Mistletoe—Chief of the Druids—Druidesses,	192
Influence of the Roman Conquests—Christianity substituted for Druidism,	192
Burgundians and Visigoths—Franks—France after the Death of Clovis,	192, 193

France under Charlemagne—France under Hugh Capet and his Successors, 193
 State of France under Philip of Valois and his Successors, 193, 194
 France under Henry IV. and Louis XIII., 194
 France under Louis XIV. and XV.—French Revolution—France divided into Departments—Reign of Terror—Montbelliard and Mulhausen united with France—The Rhine made the Boundary of France—Nice and part of Switzerland united with France, 194
 French Empire—Piedmont united with the Empire—Part of Italy, the Valais, Holland, and the North-western Part of Germany, to the Shores of the Baltic, added to the Empire, 195
 France confined within its Former Limits—Return of Napoleon—Loss of Saar-Louis—Position of France, 195
 Dimensions—Superficial Extent—Population, 196
 Corsica—Ancient Names and Inhabitants, 196
 History and Revolutions of Corsica—King Theodore, 196
 Pascal Paoli—Corsica ceded to France, 197

BOOK CXLI.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Physical Geography of France.

Mountains, 198
 Franco-Celtic Group—Ceveno-Vosgian Chain, 198
 Armorican Chain—Basins and Rivers—Garonne, 198
 Rhone, 199
 Loire—Seine—The Barre, 199
 Germanic Basin—Rhine—Meuse, 199, 200
 Scheldt—Somme—Orne—Rance—Vilaine, 200
 Charente—Adour—Aude—Argens—Lakes and Lagoons, 200
 Capes—Gulfs and Bays—Gulf of Lyons, 201
 Islands, 201
 Corsica—Geology of France—Preliminary Remarks—Granite Rocks, 201, 202
 Old Sandstone—Saline Deposits—Jura—Limestone—Cnaik Formation, 202
 Ancient Reptiles—Tertiary Deposits—Small Inland Seas—Lakes, 202
 Ancient Quadrupeds, 203
 Basins in Auvergne, 203
 Fossil Animals—Geology of Corsica—Substances used in the Arts—Granite and Porphyry, 203
 Marble, 204
 Slate, and Stones for Building—Brick and Porcelain—Clay—Flint—Millstones—Chalk, &c., 204
 Metals—Mineral Substances not Metallic, 204
 Value of the Mineral Products—Mineral Springs—Atmospheric Phenomena, 205
 Winds—Rain, 205
 Temperature—Regions of different Plants, 205
 Influence of the Sea, 206
 Height of the Soil—Plants Indigenous to France—Plants Naturalized in France, 206
 Forest Trees—Cork-Tree—Pine—Cherry of the Vosges—Mulberry—Plum, 206
 Garden Vegetables—Vines—Soil of France, 206
 Mountainous Regions—Sandy Plains—Chalky Plains—Products of the Soil, 207
 Natural Vegetation—Wild Animals—Quadrupeds, 207
 Birds—Birds of Passage—Partridges, &c., 207, 208
 Reptiles—Saurian and Batrachian Orders, 208
 Tortoises—Fish, 208
 Cetaceous Animals, 208
 Snails—Mollusca—Crustacea—Insects—Domestic Animals, 209
 Horses, 209
 Asses—Oxen—Sheep, 209, 210
 Pigs—Poultry, 210
 Importation of Animals, 210

BOOK CXLII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Kingdom of France.—First Section.—Southern Region.

Division into Five Regions, 211
 Department of Corsica—Ajaccio, 211
 Bastia—Mariana—Other Towns—Department of the Var, 211, 212
 Antibes—Frejus—St. Tropez, 212
 Toulon, 212
 Pass of Ollioules—Brignolles—Draguignan—Grasse—Department of the Lower Alps—Castellane—Digne, 213
 Sisteron—Antiquities, 213
 Department of the Mouths of the Rhone—Aix—The Orbittelle—University, 213
 Procession on Corpus-Christi Day—Marseilles, 214
 Island of Carmague—Arles, 214
 Department of Vaucluse—Avignon, 214
 Apt—Carpentras—Fountain of Vaucluse, 215
 The Sorgues—Orange, 215
 Department of the Drome—Montelimart—Valence—Department of the Higher Alps—Gap, 215, 216
 Briançon, 216
 Department of the Isere—Road from Briançon to Grenoble—Grenoble—University, 216
 Sassenage—The Great Chartreuse, 216, 217
 Offering of Omelets—Pont de Beauvoisin—Vienne—Historical Details, 217
 Department of the Ardeche—Etymology of the word Helvia—Volcanic Mountains, 218
 Pont de la Beaume—Chenavari—Roche-maure—Giants' Causeway—The Gueule d'Enfer, 218
 Bridge of Arc, 218
 Domain of Ubas—Volcano of Prasoncoupe—Volcano of Loubresse, 219
 L'Argentiere—Temple of Mithra—Villeneuve de Berg, 219
 Privas—Annonay, 219
 Character of the People—Climate—Department of the Upper Loire, 220
 Extinct Volcanoes—Mineral Products—Le Puy, 220
 Miraculous Image of the Virgin, 221
 Department of the Lozere—The Pas de Souci—Mende, 221
 Chateaufort de Randon—Luc, 221
 Department of the Gard—Alais—Uzes—Pont St. Esprit—Roquemaure, 221, 222
 Nimes—Roman Monuments—Maison Carrée—Amphitheatre, 222
 Beaucaire—Fair—Aigues-Mortes, 222, 223
 Products of the Department—Department of the Herault—Ganges—Lodeve, 223
 Montpellier—University—Celebrated Men—Medical School—Antiquities, 223
 Botanical Garden—Lunel—Cette, 223, 224
 Beziers—Department of the Tarn, 224
 Alby—Trembling Stone—Grotto of St. Dominic, 224, 225
 Department of the Upper Garonne, 225
 Toulouse—Antiquities—The Capitole—Gay Science, Floral Games, 225
 Muret—St. Gaudens—Bagneres de Luchon, 226
 Department of the Aude—Castel-Naudary, 226
 Carcassonne—Narbonne, 226
 Department of the Eastern Pyrenees—Perpignan, 227
 Ceret—Port Vendre—Department of the Arriege, 227
 Foix—Pamiers—St. Girons—Department of the Upper Pyrenees—Shepherds, 227, 228
 Tarbes—Bagneres de Bigorre—Campan—Cauterets—Cascade of Gavarnie, 228, 229
 Department of the Lower Pyrenees—Isle of Pheasants, 229
 Pau—Castle of Pau, 229
 Oloron—Orther—Bayonne, 229, 230
 Department of the Landes—Dax—Thermal Springs, 230
 St. Sever—Mont de Marsan, 230, 231
 Department of the Gironde, 231
 Bazas—Langon—Bordeaux—Port, 231
 Castle of Ha—Squares—Public Buildings, 232

Industry and Commerce—Blaye—Libourne—La Reole,	232, 233
Department of the Lot and Garonne,	233
Marmande—Tonneins—Agen,	233
Nerac—Department of the Gers—Condom—Auch,	233, 234
Lectoure—Last Count of Armagnac,	234, 235
Department of the Tarn and Garonne—Moissac,	235
Montauban—Department of the Aveyron,	235
Spontaneous Combustion of Coal,	235
Rhodez,	236
St. Afrique—Department of the Lot—Figeac—Singular Ceremony,	236
Cahors—Former Privileges of the Bishop,	237
Gourdon—Department of the Dordogne,	237
Sarlat—Bergerac—Perigueux,	237, 238
Brantome,	238

BOOK CXLIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Kingdom of France.—Second Section.—Western Region.

Department of the Charente,	239
Angouleme—Confolans,	239, 240
Jarnac—Cognac—Department of the Lower Charente,	240
Saintes—St. Jean d'Angely,	240
Rochefort—La Rochelle,	240, 241
Department of La Vendée,	241
Fontenay le Comte—Les Sables d'Olonne,	241
Bourbon Vendée—Department of the Two Sevres,	242
Niort—Parthenay—Thouan,	242
Department of the Vienne—Civray—Poitiers,	242, 243
Chatellerault—Loudun,	243
Department of the Maine and Loire—Saumur—Baugé,	243, 244
Angers—Pont de Ce,	244
Beaupreau—Cholet—Department of the Lower Loire—Soil and Industry of the Department,	244, 245
Nantes—Public Buildings—Commerce,	245
Paimbœuf—Ancenis—Department of Morbihan—Vannes,	246
Peninsula of Rhuy—Islands—Quiberon,	246
Carnac, Druidical Monument—Lorient—Port Louis,	246, 247
Ploërmel—Pontivy—Department of Finisterre,	247
Quimperlé—Quimper,	247
Concarneau—Chateaulin—Carhaix,	247, 248
Brest,	248
Landernau—Morlaix—St. Pol de Leon—Department of the North Coast,	248, 249
Laudeac—St. Brieux,	249
Dinan—Department of the Ille and Vilaine,	249
St. Malo—Fougères,	250
Montfort sur Meu—Rennes,	250
Public Buildings—Vitré,	250, 251
Department of the Mayenne—Laval,	251
Chateau Gonthier—Mayenne,	251, 252
Department of the Sarthe—Mamers—Le Mans—Cathedral,	252
St. Calais—Chateau du Loir,	252, 253
La Fleche—Military School,	253

BOOK CXLIV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Kingdom of France.—Third Section.—Central Region.

Department of the Indre and Loire,	254
Former Prosperity of Touraine,	254
Tours—Cathedral—Collections,	254, 255
Amboise—Chateau—Renault,	255
Langeais—Chinon—La Haye—Descartes,	255
Loches—Department of the Loir and Cher—Blois,	256
Chambord—Romarantin—Vendome,	256, 257

Department of the Eure and Loir—Nogent le Rotrou,	257
Dreux—Burgh of Anet—Maintenon,	257
Chartres—Collections,	257
Chateaudun—Department of the Loiret—Orleans,	258
Scientific Institutions,	258
Commerce and Manufactures,	258, 259
Pithiviers—Montargis—Quality of the Soil in the Department—Department of the Nièvre,	259
Cosne—Pouilly—La Charité—Clamecy,	259, 260
Chateau—Chinon—Nevers—Industry,	260
Department of the Allier—Moulins,	260
Souigny—Bourbon l'Archambault,	261
La Palisse—Vichy—Mont-Luçon—Neris les Bains,	261
Department of the Creuse—Aubusson,	261, 262
Gueret—Department of the Cher—St. Amand,	262
Bourges—Public Buildings,	262, 263
Antiquity of Bourges,	263
Mehun—Department of the Indre,	263
Levroux—Chateauroux,	263, 264
La Chatre—Department of the Upper Vienne,	264
Bellac—Limoges,	264
Antiquity of Limoges—Rochechouard,	265
Department of the Correze,	265
Uzerche—Tulle—Brives la Gaillarde,	265, 266
Ussel—Department of Cantal,	266
Industry—Maurs—Aurillac,	266, 267
Vic en Carladez—St. Flour—Chaudes-Aigues,	267
Murat—Department of Puy de Dome,	267
Appearance of Mont-Dor—Trou de Soucy,	268
Lake Pavin—Puy de Sancy—Its height—Valley of Enfer,	268
Valley of Mont-Dor—Cascade of the Serpent—Great Cascade—The Capuchin—Village of Bains,	268
Lake Chambon—Issoire—Vic le Comte,	269
Billom—Mountain of Gergovia,	269
Pont du Chateau—Clermont—Squares,	269, 270
Scientific Institutions—Fountain of St. Allyre,	270
Industry of Clermont—Its Antiquity—Neighbourhood—Mont-Ferrand,	270
Valley of Royat—Granaries of Cæsar—Puy de Dome,	271
Puy de Nadailhat—Puy de Pariou—The Great Sarcouy,	271
Pont-Gibaud—Volvic,	271
Riom—Aigue Perse—Thiers,	272
Ambert—Wealth of the Department—Poverty of the Inhabitants,	272, 273

BOOK CXLV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Kingdom of France.—Fourth Section.—Eastern Region.

Department of the Loire,	274
Rive de Gier—Rail-road,	274, 275
St. Etienne,	275
Montbrison—Roanne,	275
Department of the Rhone—Tarare—Beaujeu,	275, 276
Ville-Franche—Lyons,	276
Origin and Antiquities—Confluence of the Rhone and the Saone,	276
Squares,	276, 277
Historical Recollections,	277
Industry—Edifices,	277, 278
Scientific Societies—Charitable Institutions,	278
Celebrated Men—Department of the Ain,	278
Trevoux—Bourg en Bresse—Belley,	279
Nantua—Gex—Ferney—Department of the Saone and Loire—Macon,	279
Tournus—Charolles—Chalons sur Saone,	279, 280
Autun—Department of the Cote d'Or—Vineyards,	280
Nolay—Beaune—Jean de Losne—Dijon,	280, 281
Auxonne,	281
Montbard—Chatillon sur Seine—Department of the Yonne,	281
Avallon—Vermanton—Chablis,	282
Auxerre,	282

Joigny—Sens, 283
 Festival of Fools, 283
 Tonnerre—Department of the Upper Saone, 283, 284
 Fougères—St. Loup—Luxeuil—Lure, 284
 Vesoul—Frais-Puits, 284, 285
 Neighbourhood of Vesoul—Gray—Department of Jura, Dole, 285
 Poligny—Arbois, 286
 Salins, 286, 287
 Lons le Saulnier, 287
 Ancient Customs—Septmoncel, 287
 St. Claude—Abbey—Industry, 288
 Department of the Doubs—Pontarlier, 288
 Besançon—Beaume les Dames, 289
 St. Hippolyte—Montbelliard—Department of the Upper Rhine—Befort, 289, 290
 Huningen—Mulhausen, 290
 New Brisach—Colmar—Department of the Lower Rhine—Scheessat, 290, 291
 Strasburg, 291
 Edifices—Places of Instruction—Celebrated Men, 291
 Neighbourhood—Antiquity—Peasantry—Dress, 292
 Haguenau—Saverue—Seltz—Weissemburg, 292

BOOK CXLVI.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Kingdom of France.—Fifth Section.—Northern Region.

Department of the Moselle, 293
 Bitche—Sarregue mines—Thionville, 293
 Sierck—Longwy—Metz—View of the Town—Court of Justice—Cathedral, 294
 Antiquities, 294
 Metz in the Middle Ages—Useful Institutions, 294, 295
 Department of the Meuse—Etain—Verdun, 295
 Bar—St. Mihiel, 295
 Department of the Vosges—Domremy—Joan of Arc—Neuf-Chateau, 296
 Appearance and Riches of the Vosges, 296
 Epinal—Remiremont, 297
 St. Dié—Department of the Meurthe—Cirey, 297, 298
 Dieuze—Luneville, 298
 Road from Luneville to Nancy—Nancy—Edifices, 298, 299
 Useful Institutions—Industry—Pont à Mousson, 299
 Toul—Department of the Upper Marne—Bourbon les Bains, 299, 300
 Langres—Eponina and Sabinus, 300
 Chaumont—Joinville—Vassy—Department of the Aube—Clairvaux, 300, 301
 Bar sur Aube, 301
 Brienne—Bur sur Seine—Troyes, 301
 Public Buildings, 302
 Arcis sur Aube—Department of the Marne—Vetry le Brûlé, 302
 Vitry le François—Sezanne—Montmirail—Epernay, 303
 Chalons sur Marne, 303
 Courtisou—St. Menehould, 304
 Rheims—Antiquities—Public Buildings, 304, 305
 Department of the Ardennes, 305
 Rethel—Sedan—Principality, 305, 306
 Mezieres—Charleville—Fumay, 306
 Givet and Charlemont—Department of the Aisne, 307
 Guise—St. Quentin, 307
 La Fere—St. Gobain—Laon, 307, 308
 Soissons—La Ferté-Milon—Chateau-Thierry, 308
 Department of the Seine and Marne—La Ferté sous-Jouare—Meaux, 308, 309
 Melun—Fontainebleau—Nemours, 309
 Montereau—Provins, 310
 Department of the Oise—Senlis, 310, 311
 Creil—Compiègne, 311
 Noyon—Clermont-Oise, 312
 Beauvais—Department of the Seine and Oise, 312

Pontoise—Mantes—Rosny, 313
 Meulan—Poissy—Forest of St. Germain—St. Germain, 313, 314
 Marly—Rueil—Argenteuil—St. Cloud, 314
 Meudon—Sevres—Versailles, 314
 Palace—The Trianons—Expense of the Palace at Versailles, 315
 Useful Institutions—Neighborhood of Versailles—Montfort-l'Amaury—Rambouillet—Dourdan—Etampes, 315, 316
 Corbeil—Riches of the Department—Department of the Seine—Paris, 316
 Early Extent—Enlargement of Paris by Charles VI.—By Francis I., 317
 By Henry IV.—By Louis XIII. and XIV., 317
 By Louis XV.—Monuments of the Reigns of Louis XIV. XV. and XVI., 318
 Under the Consular and Imperial Governments—Quays—Bridges, 318, 319
 Fountains—Markets—Cemeteries—Monuments—The Exchange—Since the Restoration, 319
 Population—Under Philip the Fair—Under Louis XI., 319, 320
 Under Henry II.—Under Henry IV.—Under Louis XIV.—Religious Edifices, 320
 Scientific Institutions, Schools, &c.—Neighbourhood of Paris—St. Denis, 320, 321
 Vincennes—Arcueil—Fontenay aux Roses—Sceaux—Department of the Eure, 321
 Vernon—Evreux—The Andelys, 321, 322
 Valley of Fleury—Louviers—Quillebeuf, 322
 Pont-Audemer—Bernay—Department of the Orne—Argentan, 322, 323
 Mortagne—Seez—Alençon—Domfront, 323
 Department of the Channel—Avranches—Coutances, 324
 Cherbourg—Port, 324, 325
 St. Lo—Department of Calvados, 325
 Isigny—Bayeux—Falaise, 326
 Caen—University, 326, 327
 Lisieux—Honfleur, 327
 Department of the Lower Seine—Havre—Fecamp—Lillebonne, 328
 Caudebec—Rouen—Edifices, 328, 329
 Elbeuf—Gournay—Aumale—Dieppe, 329
 Department of the Somme—Abbeville, 330
 Amiens—Peronne—Montdidier, 330, 331
 Department of the Straits of Calais—Montreuil—Boulogne, 331
 Calais—Guines—Ardres—Bethune, 331, 332
 Arras—Department of the North, 332, 333
 Cambrai—Landrecy—Avesnes—Maubeuge, 333, 334
 Valenciennes—Anzin—Famars—Denain, 334
 Condé—St. Amand—Douay—Lille, 334, 335
 Armentieres—Hazebrouck—Bergues—Gravelines, 335, 336
 Dunkirk, 336
 Roads—Canals, 337
 Money, 337

Statistical Tables of France, 338—355

BOOK CXLVII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Description of the Scandinavian Peninsula.—First Section.—Kingdom of Norway.

Language of the Scalds—Scandinavian Poems, 356
 Creation of the World and of Man—The Olympus of the North, 356
 Destruction of the Universe, 357
 Resurrection of the World—Origin of this Cosmogony—Runic Alphabet—Origin of the Scandinavians, 357
 Ancient Names, 358
 Ancient Inhabitants—Ancient Manners, 358
 Ancient Names of Norway—Historical Notices, 359
 Government, &c., 359

Present State of Norway,	360
Summer Occupations—Winter Occupations,	360
Character of the Norwegians—Dress—Manners of the Towns,	360, 361
Mountains—Rivers,	361
Geological Constitution,	362
Mineral Wealth—Vegetation,	362
Animal Kingdom,	363
Climate,	363
General Appearance—Cities and Towns—Hammerfest—Tromsøe,	363, 364
Drontheim—Bergen,	364
Christiansand—Arendal,	365
Frederikstad—Kongsberg—Christiania,	365
Frederikshald—Norwegian Archipelago,	365, 366
Industry in Norway,	366

BOOK CXLVIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Description of the Scandinavian Peninsula.—Second Section.—Description of Sweden.

Laplanders,	367
Westro-Bothnia—Jemtia or Jemtland—Helsingia—Nericia—Dalecarlia—Gothia or Gothland—Rivers,	367, 368
Lakes—Canals,	368
Roads—Islands—Eland—Gothland—Hven—Geology,	368
Rocks and Veins—Diluvium,	369
Animals—Vegetation,	369
Agriculture—Climate,	370
Seasons—Cities and Towns—Lulea,	370
Umea—Manners of the Laplanders—Manners of the Northern Swedes,	370
Hernæsand—Gefle—Fahlun—Manners of the Dalecarlians—Manners of the Helsingians,	370, 371
Upsal—University,	371
Cathedral—Curiosities in the Cathedral,	371
Stockholm—Surrounding Country—Suburbs—Harbour,	372
Royal Palace,	372
Squares—Churches—Cathedral,	372, 373
Useful Institutions—Environs—Erebro—Carlstad,	373
Linköping—Jönköping—Gottenburg,	374
Uddevalla—Halmstad—Lund—Malmö—Christianstad,	374
Carlsrona—Calmar—Union of Calmar,	374, 375
Wisby—Manners of Southern Sweden—Fêtes and Amusements,	375
Education—Police—Taxes,	375
Navy—Laws—Government—Senate,	375, 376
Council of State—States-General—Industry and Trade,	376
Ameliorations,	377

Statistical Tables of the Swedish Monarchy, 378—380

BOOK CXLIX.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Description of Denmark and of the Færoe Isles.

Limits of Denmark,	381
Diminution of the Baltic Sea,	381
Geology—Fossil Vegetables,	381, 382
Fiords—Lakes,	382
Canals,	382
Dimensions of Denmark—Climate—Seasons—Vegetation—Forests,	383
Meadows—Cultivation,	383
Wild Animals—Domestic Animals,	384
Fish—Commerce,	384
Language—Danish Character	384, 385

Inhabitants of Holstein—Education,	385
Learned Men,	385
Artists—Government,	386
Revolution of 1660,	387
Establishment of Absolute Power,	388
Present Form of Government,	388
Orders—Privileges of some Provinces—Liberation of the Peasantry,	388, 389
Aspect of the Danish Coasts—Sound Duties—Zealand—Copenhagen	389
Disasters of Copenhagen—Its Quarters,	389
Literary Establishments—Industry and Trade,	390
Police—Environs of Copenhagen—Elseneur,	390
Islands—Bornholm—Mœen—Funen—Langeland—Laaland—North Jutland—Aalborg—Viborg—South Jutland,	390, 391
Sleswick—Flensburg,	391
Islands on the Western Coast—Islands on the Eastern Coast—Dutchy of Holstein,	392
Gluckstadt—Kiel—University,	392
Rendsburg—Preetz—Probsty of Preetz,	393
Ploen—Itzehoe,	393
De Brut-Kamp—Obelisk—Elmshorn—Pinneberg,	393, 394
Altona—Destruction in 1713,	394
Dutchy of Lauenburg—Ratzeburg—Lauenburg,	395
Færoe Islands—Thorshavn,	395, 396

Statistical Tables of the Danish Monarchy, 397

BOOK CL.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Belgium, or the Netherlands.

History and Inhabitants,	398
Government of the Late Kingdom of the Netherlands,	398, 399
Recent Changes,	399
Mountains—Rivers,	400
Lakes and Marshes—Geological Constitution,	400, 401
Configuration of the Surface in Belgium—Minerals,	401
Climate and Cultivation,	401, 402
Manufactures—Iron, &c.—Woollen—Linen—Lace—Cotton,	402
Breweries, &c.—Foreign Trade—Roads and Canals,	402
Religion—Cities—Antwerp—Cathedral,	403
Malines—East Flanders—Ghent,	404
Alost—Oudenarde—West Flanders—Bruges,	404, 405
Ostend—Ypres,	405
Courtray—Fields of Battle,	405
Fontenoy—Fleurus—Steenkerke—Jemappe—Tournay,	406
Tomb of Childeric I.—Mons,	406
Dinant—Namur,	407
Nivelles—Waterloo—Brussels,	407
Squares,	408
Churches—Fountains—Population of the Different Quarters of the City,	408
Scientific and Benevolent Establishments—Promenades,	408, 409
Louvain—University—Tirlemont,	409
Tongres—Maestricht—The Mosasaurus,	409
Maaseyk—Wert—Venloo,	410
Ruremonde—Limburg—Verviers—Spa—Liege—Grand-Dutchy of Luxemburg,	410, 411
St. Hubert—Bouillon—Arlon—Luxemburg,	411

BOOK CLI.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Holland, or the Seven United Provinces.

Glance at the History of Holland,	412
Government—Ancient Physical State,	412
Surface—Rivers,	413

Lakes—Marshes, 413
 Gulfs or Bays—Canals—Islands—Geology, 413, 414
 Climate and Cultivation—Language, 414
 Ancient Inhabitants—Territorial Divisions, 414, 415
 Cities—Groningen—University, 415
 Leeuwarden—Harlingen—Assen—Coevorden—Zwol, 416
 Campen—Deventer—Zutphen—Arnhem—Nimeguen, 417
 Utrecht—University, 417, 418
 Amersfoort—Islands in the Zuyderzee—Texel—Camperdown, 418
 Willems-Ord—Medenblik—Horn, 419
 Alkmaar—Saardam—Broek, 419
 Amsterdam—The Amstel, 420
 Streets, 420
 Public Buildings—The Stadthouse, 421
 Commerce and Industry, 421, 422
 Haarlem—Invention of Printing, 422
 Leyden—University, 423
 The Rhine at Leyden, 423
 The Hague—Public Buildings, 424
 Environs of the Hague, 424
 Delft—Rotterdam, 425
 Dordrecht or Dort, 426
 Middleburg—Flushing—Bergen op Zoom—Bois le Duc, 427
 Breda—Character of the Dutch, 427
 Manners of the Dutch, 428

Statistical Table of the Belgian Provinces, 429
Statistical Table of the Dutch Provinces, 429, 430
Dutch Colonies, 430
Statistical Tables connected with the Late Kingdom of the Netherlands, embracing both Dutch and Belgian Provinces, 430, 432

BOOK CLII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued—Great Britain—England—First Section—Civil Geography—Early Inhabitants—Roman Conquests—Saxon Invasion—Normans—History, Progress and Settlement of the Constitution.

Early Inhabitants, 433
 Roman Invasion, B. C. 55, 433
 Intercourse with Gaul—Towns, Houses, &c.—Married State, 434
 Appearance—Method of Fighting, 434
 Money—Hospitality—Government, 434
 Power of the Priests—Effects of the Roman Conquest, 435
 Government of Agricola, 435
 Northern Tribes, Caledonians—Number of Tribes—Roman Provinces, 435
 Monuments of the Romans. Prætentura of Agricola—Vallum of Hadrian, 436
 Vallum of Antoninus, 436
 Wall of Severus, 436
 Britons under the Romans, 437
 British Soldiers in the Roman armies—Corn, Towns, &c.—States—Advances in Civilization, 437
 Scots and Picts—Saxons, Angles and Jutes, 438
 Saxon Conquest—Chorography—Kingdom of Kent—Kingdom of Sussex, 438
 Wessex—Essex—East Anglia—Bernicia, 438, 439
 Deira—Mercia—Octarchy—Divisions of the Country, 439
 Sheriffs—Accessions made in the Norman Period—Wales—Counties—Ridings—Lathes—Rapes—Hundreds and Tithings, 439
 Anglo-Saxon Language, Similitude to the English, 439
 Anglo-Saxon and English Words, 440
 Population during the Anglo-Saxon Period—Domesday Book, 440
 Barbarism of the Saxons—Arts, Trade, &c. 440
 Houses—Government, 441

Governments, 441
 Juries—Norman Conquest, 441
 Henry the Third—The Edwards, 442
 Wretched Condition of the People, 442
 Famine in the time of Edward the Second, 442
 Pestilence in 1349—Poll-Tax, 442, 443
 Parliaments, 443
 Parliament—Rise of the Towns, 443
 Elective Franchise extended by Henry the Eighth, 443
 House of Lords, 444
 Abuses abolished—Statute of Treasons—Architecture—Churches, 444
 Clocks—Woollen Manufactures, 444, 445
 Foreign Merchants—Richard the Second, 445
 Dependents of the Great—Deposition of Richard the Second, 445
 Period from the Accession of Henry the Fourth to the Accession of Henry the Seventh—Religious Persecution, Wealth of the Church—Power of the Commons, 445, 446
 Electors, 446
 Irregularity of Elections—Corrupt Practices of Sheriffs—Wages of Members of Parliament, 446
 Defects in the Government—Dispensing Power—High Constables—Decreased Population, 447
 Decline of Villeinage—Commercial Regulations, 447
 Population of 1485—Period of the Tudors, 447
 State of the Aristocracy, 448
 Wise Laws of Henry the Seventh, 448
 Star Chamber, 448
 Reformation, Law of the Six Articles, 449
 Suppression of Monasteries, 449
 Abject State of Parliament—Elizabeth, 450
 Commerce under Elizabeth—Trade to India—Flemish Emigrants, 450
 Poor Laws, 451
 Progressive Extension, 451
 Work-houses—Bad Effects of the Poor Laws, 451
 Roads, 452
 Naval Power in the time of Elizabeth—The Stuarts, 452
 Canons of the Clergy—Proceedings of the Lower House, 453
 Unjust Acts of James's Reign, 453
 Charles the First, 453
 Nineteen Propositions, 454, 455
 Major-Generals, 455, 456
 Declaration and Bill of Rights—Appropriation of Supplies, 456, 457
 Duration of Parliaments, 457
 Law of Treason—Liberty of the Press, 457
 Act of Settlement—Reports of Parliamentary Speeches, 457
 Settlement of the Constitution, 458
 Parties—Whigs and Tories, 459
 Religious Liberty, 459
 Resources of England—Commercial Resources, 459
 Inland Navigation, 460
 Roads—Piers, Moles, &c. 460

BOOK CLIII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued—England and Wales—Second Section—Physical Geography—Extent—Climate—Coasts—Rivers—Mountains—Productions.

Superficial Extent, 462
 Trigonometrical Survey, 462
 Climate, 462
 Seasons—Spring, 463
 Summer—Autumn, 463
 Difference of the Climate in the North and the South, 464
 Quantity of Rain in Different Parts of England—Annual Rains in the Midland Counties, 464
 Counties in the North-West—Neighbourhood of London—General Results—Annual Quantity of Rain in England, 464

Temperature—Temperature of Liverpool—Temperature of Dover—Temperature of Lancaster—Temperature of London,	465	Animal Kingdom,	488
London and the West of England—Extremes of Cold and Heat—Winds,	465	Deer—Game—Bustard—Migratory Birds—Turtle Dove—Nightingale—Woodcock,	488
Prevalent Winds near London—Deviation at Liverpool,	465	Starling—Fish—Herring Fishery—Mackerel—Pilchards,	489
Coasts—Coast of Cumberland—Lancashire,	466	Oysters—Domestic Animals—Horse,	489
Estuary of the Ribble—Cheshire, North Wales,	466	Suffolk Horses—Black Cart Horse,	489
Menai Straits—Holyhead—Cardigan Bay,	466	Oxen—Devonshire Oxen, and Other Varieties,	490
Pembrokeshire Coast—Milford Haven—Bay of Swansea,	466, 467	Long and Short Horned Cattle—Sheep—Long Woolled Sheep,	490
Monmouthshire Coast—Bristol Channel,	467	Short Woolled—Number of Long and Short Woolled Sheep—Quantity of Wool,	490
Southern Coasts—Southern Coast of Cornwall,	467	Pigs,	490, 491
Eddystone Rock—Devonshire,	468		
Isle of Wight,	468		
Southampton Water—Spithead—Sussex—Kent,	468		
Downs—Goodwin Sands—Isle of Thanet,	469		
Essex,	469		
Suffolk,	469		
Lincolnshire,	470		
Yorkshire,	470		
Durham—Northumberland,	470, 471		
Resemblance between the British and the Opposite Shores on the Continent,	471		
Rivers—Thames,	471		
Feeders—Severn,	471, 472		
Rivers that communicate with the Washes,	472		
Humber—Trent,	472		
Feeders of the Trent,	473		
Streams flowing into the Humber from the North—Basins of the Principal Rivers—Basin of the Thames,	473		
Basin of the Severn—Bristol Channel,	473		
Basin of the Wash,	474		
Basin of the Humber—Basin of the Mersey,	474		
Lakes,	474		
Northern Lakes—Derwent Water,	475		
Bassenthwaite Water—Crummock Water—Buttermere,	475		
Winandermere—Mountains,	475		
Northern Range,	475, 476		
Malvern Hills—Cambrian Mountains,	476		
Cader Idris—Mountains in Devonshire,	476		
Plains, &c.—Wealds—Vale of York,	477		
Forests,	477		
Plants,	477		
Oaks,	478		
Soil,	478		
Geology—London Clay—Organic Remains,	478		
Wells—Chalk,	479		
Camden's Account of the Mole,	479		
Fossil Remains—Economic Purposes—Marles,	480		
Agricultural Character—Oolites,	480		
Position—Purbeck and Portland Stone—Great Oolite—Organic Remains,	480, 481		
Alum—Coal,	481		
Coal Districts in England,	481		
Great Northern District,	481		
Great Coal-Field of Northumberland and Durham—Quantity of Coal,	482		
Calculation by Dr. Thomson—Waste of Coal—Dangers to which the Miners are exposed,	482, 483		
History of the Northern Coal Trade,	483		
Number of Individuals employed in the Coal Trade,	484		
Other Coal-Fields—South Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire Coal-Field—Manchester or South Lancashire Coal-Field,	484		
Whitehaven Coal-Field,	485		
Central District—Dudley, or South Staffordshire Coal-Field,	485		
North-Western District—Coal in Flintshire—Plain of Shrewsbury—Coalbrook-dale—Clee Hills,	485		
Billingsley—South-Western Division—Great Coal-Field of South Wales,	486		
Forest of Dean Coal—Somersetshire and Gloucestershire,	486		
Metals, Copper and Tin—Veins—Length and Depth of the Veins,	486		
Breadth of the Veins—Number of Mines—Management of the Mines—Ignorance of the Miners,	487		
Character of the Miners,	487		
Consequences of the Ignorance of Geology,	488		
		BOOK CLIV.	
		EUROPE.	
		<i>Europe Continued—England—Section Third—Topographical Divisions—Towns, &c.</i>	
		Divisions. Anglo-Norman Islands,	492
		Jersey—Guernsey—Alderney—Scilly Islands,	492
		Cornwall—Agriculture, Industry—Natural Productions,	492, 493
		Minerals,	493
		Falmouth—Parliamentary Representation—Devonshire,	493
		Dartmoor—North Devon—Minerals,	493, 494
		Industry—Towns—Plymouth—Trade—Exeter,	494
		Dorsetshire,	494
		Isle of Purbeck—Isle of Portland—Dorchester,	494, 495
		Poole—Somersetshire—Agricultural Produce, Minerals, &c.—Canals,	495
		Wells—Bath,	495
		Buildings, Charitable Institutions—Bristol,	496
		Eminent Men—Gloucestershire,	496
		Gloucester,	497
		Industry and Manufactures—Mineral Waters—Stroud,	497
		Cirencester—Berkeley—Wilts—Face of the Country, Soil, Rivers, &c.	497
		Towns—Salisbury,	498
		Amesbury—Stonehenge—Representation, Industry—Hampshire,	498
		Forests—Isle of Wight,	498, 499
		Southampton—Portsmouth,	499
		Harbour—Naval Manufactories,	499
		Fareham—Gosport—Winchester,	499, 500
		Cathedral—College—Isle of Wight—Towns,	500
		Newport—Carisbrook Castle—Sussex—Soil and Products,	500
		Rivers—Towns. Chichester,	500, 501
		Horsham—Lewes—Hastings—Brighton,	501
		Eminent Men—Kent,	501
		Dover,	501, 502
		Pile of Bones—Hythe and Romney—Sandwich—Deal,	502
		Canterbury—Early History—Cathedral,	502
		Dioceses—Privileges of the Archbishop—Rochester—Chatham,	503
		Military Academy—Greenwich,	503
		Greenwich Hospital—Observatory—Gravesend,	503
		Middlesex—Canals—London,	503, 504
		Trade—History of London,	504
		Streets Lighted for the First Time—First Printing Press,	504
		Silk Manufacture,	505
		Plague—Fires—Municipal Divisions,	505
		Form, Buildings, &c.	505
		Squares—Public Buildings,	505, 506
		Palace of St. James—Churches,	506
		Bridges,	507
		Thames Tunnel—Parks—Theatres,	507
		Scientific and Useful Institutions—Benevolent Institutions—Number of Houses, Streets and Squares,	507
		Police—Environs of London,	508
		Chelsea—Surrey,	508
		Mineral Products—Products of Industry—Guildford—Kew—Richmond,	508
		Berkshire—Windsor—Reading,	508, 509

Newbury—Abingdon—Wantage—Whitehorse-vale, . . .	509	Communications—Cotton Manufactures,	535
Oxfordshire—Soil—Streams and Rivers—Products—Ox-		Means of Instruction—Societies,	535
ford—Antiquities—Historical Associations,	509	Situation—Liverpool and Manchester Railway,	536
University,	509,	Chat Moss,	536
Useful Institutions,	510	Other Towns—Bolton—Face of the Country—Natural Prod-	
County,	510	ucts—Blackburn—Cheshire—Boundaries—Early His-	
Buckinghamshire—Soil—Inland Navigation—Towns,	511	tory,	537
Buckingham—Eton—Eminent men,	511	Brine Springs—Rock Salt,	537
Hertfordshire—Hertford—Ancient Inhabitants of the Coun-		Other Products—Agricultural Products—Chester,	537,
ty,	511	Canals—Buildings,	538
St. Albans—Battles,	512	Macclesfield—Nantwich—Grand Trunk Canal—Derby-	
County—Eminent Persons—Essex,	512	shire,	538
Coriander, Carraway and Teasel—Potatoes—Minerals,	512	Derby—Industry,	539
Industry—Chelmsford—Colchester,	513	Buildings—Chesterfield—Eminent Men,	539
Harwich—Other Places,	513	Nottinghamshire—Soil—Face of the Country,	540
Suffolk—Soil—Domestic Animals,	513	Agricultural Products—Minerals—Rivers—Canals,	540
Minerals—Ancient Trade—Sudbury—Ipswich,	514	Nottingham,	540
Bury St. Edmunds—Cambridgeshire—Newmarket—Cam-		Situation—Benevolent Institutions,	541
bridge,	514	Mansfield—Leicestershire—Boundaries—Early Inhabitants,	
University,	515	Face of the Country—Cheese—Minerals—Leicester—An-	
Buildings—Colleges,	515	cient and Present Population of the County,	542
Ely—County,	516	Rutland—Northamptonshire,	542
Norfolk—Rivers—Agriculture—Face of the Country,	516	Agricultural Products—Rivers,	543
Turnips,	517	Canals—Northampton,	543
Norwich,	517	Peterborough—Huntingdonshire,	543
Industry,	517	Huntingdon,	544
Yarmouth—King's Lynn,	518	Bedfordshire—Face of the Country—Minerals,	
Feast of Reconciliation—Eminent Persons—Lincolnshire—		Early Inhabitants—Roman Works—Bedford,	544
Name and Early Inhabitants—Superficial Extent—Popu-		Eminent Men—Woburn—Warwickshire,	545
lation—Nature of the Country—Divisions,	518	Soil—Minerals—Rivers—Canals,	545
Holland—Water Fowl,	519	Warwick,	546
Kesteven—Lindsey—Products—Rivers—Canals,	519	Castle—Coventry,	546
Boston,	519	Manufactures,	546
Lincoln—Cathedral,	520	Birmingham,	547
Other Towns,	520	Education—Benevolent Institutions,	
Number of Churches—Eminent Men—Newton—Yorkshire,		Progressive Population—Stratford on Avon—Staffordshire	
Ridings—North Riding,	521	—Situation—Aspect of the Country,	547
East Riding—West Riding,	521	Rivers,	547,
Country—Rivers,	521	Potteries—Earthenware,	548
York—Minster,	522	Wedgewood,	548
Leeds—Markets,	522	Stafford,	549
Bradford—Wakefield,	523	Lichfield—Newcastle under Line—Wolverhampton,	
Huddersfield—Halifax,	523	Salop or Shropshire,	549
Sheffield,	523	Minerals—Products of Industry,	550
Hull—Old and New Docks,	524	Coalbrookdale—Shrewsbury,	550
Durham—Boundaries, Aspect of the Country, &c.,	525	Trade—Battle of Shrewsbury—Worcestershire,	550
Durham,	525	Face of the Country—Products—Kidderminster,	551
Neville's Cross—Sunderland—Bishop—Wearmouth,	525,	Trade,	551
Monk—Wearmouth—South Shields—Life-Boat,	526	Herefordshire—Agricultural Products—Fruits—Face of the	
Holy Island,	526	Country,	551
Northumberland—Boundaries—Extent—Face of the Coun-		Hereford—Other Towns—Monmouthshire,	552
try—Soil and Products,	526,	Soil—Minerals,	552
Agriculture,	527	Japanned Goods—Eminent Men,	552,
Minerals—Rivers—Salmon—Newcastle,	527	Chepstow—Curiosities—Wales—Limits—Extent—Popula-	
Manufactures, Trade, &c.,	528	tion,	553
Charitable and Useful Institutions—The Tyne—North		Aspect of the Country—Mountains,	553
Shields—Tynemouth,	528	Roads,	554
Other Towns—Alnwick—Manner of making Freemen,	528	South Wales—Glamorganshire—Calcareous Basin,	554
Berwick-upon-Tweed—Cumberland—Boundaries,	529	Brecknockshire—Caermarthenshire—Pembrokeshire,	555
Soil—Mountains,	529	Cardiganshire—Radnorshire,	555
Carlisle,	529	North Wales, Merionethshire,	555,
Cathedral—Trade and Industry—Other Towns—White-		Denbighshire—Flintshire—Caernarvonshire—Snowdon,	556
haven,	530	Anglesea—Menai Straits—Suspension Bridge,	
Workington—Isle of Man,	530	Administration of Justice—Ecclesiastical Government—	
Ports—Westmoreland,	530	Cardiff—Cardiff Canal,	557
Minerals—Towns—Appleby—Kendal,	531	Iron Works of South Wales—Merthyr Tydvil,	558
Lancaster Canal—Lancashire—Boundaries—Soil—Prod-		Landaff—Swansea—Caermarthen,	558
ucts,	531	Pembroke—Milford Haven—St. David's,	558,
Rivers—Towns—Lancaster—Castle,	532	Cardigan—Brecon,	559
Liverpool,	533	Radnor—Montgomery—Denbigh,	559,
Progress of its Commerce,	533	Flint—Caerwys, Bards—Holywell,	560
Contraband Trade with Spanish America—Slave Trade,	534	Caernarvon—Beaumaris—Amlwch—Holyhead,	560,
Public Buildings, Exchange, &c.—Town-House—Literary		Manners—Customs—Superstitions—Welsh Raptures—	
Institutions,	534	Witchcraft,	561
Lyceum—Benevolent Institutions—Docks,	534	Spirits of the Mountains—Elves and Fairies—Family	
Manufactures—Manchester,	535	Pride,	561

BOOK CLV.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued—Description of the British Islands—Second Section—Scotland.

Extent—Situation,	562
Hills in the South—Boundary between Scotland and England,	562
Valleys—Grampians—Parallel Chain,	562, 563
Sidla Hills—Ochils—Campsie Hills—Northern Chain—Rivers and Valleys in the Grampian and Northern Chain,	563
Rivers,	564
Resemblance between the Tay and the Tiber—Islands,	564
Currents—Coasts,	564, 565
Western Coast,	565
Depth of Water—Northern Coast—Mineral Kingdom,	565
Coal—Annual Consumption of Coal—Iron—Lead,	565, 566
Silver—Materials for Building—Marble,	566
Precious Stones—Products of Agriculture,	566
Antiquities,	567
Early Inhabitants—Middle Ages,	567
Independence of Scotland—James the First—James the Second—James the Third—James the Fourth,	568
James the Fifth—Reformation,	568
Revenues of the Church—Scottish Parliament,	568, 569
Change introduced by James the First,	569
Lords of the Articles,	569
Causes of the Change—Effect of the Change—Changes introduced after the Union of the Crowns,	570
Heritable Jurisdictions,	570
Supreme Courts of Scotland—Court of Session—Justiciary and Sheriff Courts—Ecclesiastical Polity,	570
Ecclesiastical Divisions—Education,	571
Past State of Parliamentary Representation,	571

BOOK CLVI.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued—Scotland—Section Second—Civil Divisions—Topographical Details.

Population,	572
Wigtownshire,	572
Stewartry of Kirkcudbright—Minerals—Rivers,	572, 573
Kirkcudbright—House Societies—Dumfries-shire—Rivers,	573
Minerals—Dumfries,	573, 574
Annan—Roxburghshire,	574
Soil—Kelso,	574, 575
Jedburgh—Melrose—Hawick,	575
Selkirkshire—Minerals—Selkirk,	575
Berwickshire—Lammermoor—Merse—Towns,	576
Pease Bridge—Haddingtonshire—Heights,	576
Soil and Climate—Minerals—Agricultural Improvements,	576, 577
Towns—Dunbar—North Berwick,	577
Eminent Men—Mid-Lothian—Surface—Rivers,	577, 578
Minerals—Edinburgh,	578
Castle,	578
Holyrood House—Modern Works,	579
New Town—Register—Office—North Bridge,	579
Regent Bridge—University—Increase in the Population—Trade and Industry,	579
Leith,	580
West-Lothian—Minerals,	580
Towns—Linlithgow,	580, 581
Lanarkshire—Coal—Iron and Lead,	581
Artificial Navigation—Monkland and Ardrossan Canals—Surface and Population—Glasgow,	581
Progress of its Trade,	582
Useful Institutions,	582
Public Buildings,	582, 583
Other Towns—Peebles-shire,	583

Soil and Minerals—Renfrewshire—Rivers,	583
Minerals—Towns—Paisley—Manufactures,	584
Port-Glasgow—Greenock—Ayrshire,	584
Manufactures—Towns—Ayr,	585
Kilmarnock—Troon—Ardrossan,	586
Stirlingshire,	586
Soil and Minerals,	587
Stirling—Bannockburn,	587
Clackmannanshire,	588
Millstones—Coal—Towns—Clackmannan—Alloa,	588
Industry—Kinross-shire—Loch Leven—Leven,	588, 589
Kinross—Fife—Natural Divisions,	589
Minerals—Limestone—Towns—Cupar,	589, 590
St. Andrews—University,	590
Kirkaldy—Dunfermline,	590, 591
Antiquities—Small Towns on the Forth—Forfarshire or Angus-shire—Surface—Natural Divisions,	591
Strathmore—Minerals,	591, 592
Streams—Towns—Dundee,	592
Manufactures—Arbroath—Harbour—Bell-Rock Lighthouse,	592
Montrose,	593
Brechin—Forfar—Kincardineshire—Minerals,	593
Rivers—Lakes—Stonehaven—Aberdeenshire,	594
Divisions—Agriculture—Cattle—Fisheries,	594
Minerals—Town of Aberdeen,	594
New Aberdeen—Trade and Industry,	595
Newburgh—Peterhead—Fraserburgh—Highlands,	595, 596
State of Society before 1745,	596
Tacksman—Cotters—Consequences of the Rebellion in 1745,	596
Houses,	597
Buteshire—Climate—Minerals—Agriculture—Fisheries—Industry,	597
Rothesay—Arran—Cumbraes—Inchmarnock—Pladda,	598
Dumbarton—Manufacture—Castle—Imprudence of the Inhabitants,	598
Dumbartonshire—Soil—Minerals—Rivers and Lakes,	599
Manufactures—Argyleshire—Aspect of the Country,	599
Roads and Canals,	600
Hebrides—Position—Number—Population—Surface—Inhabitants—Civil Distribution—Physical Features—Inventory,	600
Perthshire,	600
Mountains—Lakes—Rivers—Soil,	600, 601
Wood—Minerals—Perth,	601
Manufactures—Commerce,	601
Inverness-shire—Population—Face of the Country—Glenmore—Lakes,	601, 602
Rivers—Spey—Mountains—Divisions—Sterility—Minerals,	602
Public Works—Forts—Military Roads—Caledonian Canal,	602
Dimensions—Locks—Inverness—Banff,	603
County—Rivers—Minerals—Cupmoss—Moray or Elgin-shire—Natural Divisions,	603
Minerals—Rivers—Elgin,	604
Forres—Nairnshire—Town of Nairn—Ross and Cromarty,	604
Aspect of the Country—Rivers—Agriculture,	604
Minerals—Towns—Ullapool—Cromarty,	605
Lewis—Stornoway—Sutherlandshire—Coasts—Interior,	605
Rivers and Lakes—Caves and Minerals—Fisheries—Towns—Caithness,	605, 606
Rivers and Lakes—Fisheries—Agriculture,	606
Roads—Wick and Thurso,	606
Orkney and Shetland—Extent—Orkneys—Principal Islands,	607
Mainland or Pomona,	607
Kirkwall—Shetland—Towns,	607, 608

BOOK CLVII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued—Description of Ireland—Boundaries—Nature of the Country—Harbours—Rivers—Islands, &c.

Situation—Boundaries,	609
Coasts—South-eastern—Dublin Bay,	609

Howth Harbour—Kingstown Harbour—Dalkey Island, 609, 610
 Wexford Harbour—Southern Coast—Saltee Islands—Waterford Harbour—Dunmore Harbour, 610
 Trimore Bay—Dungarvan Bay—Youghal Bay—Ballycotton Bay—Cork Harbour—Great Island—Hawlbowl and Spike Island—Kinsale Harbour, 610
 Clognakilty and Castlehaven Harbours—Baltimore Harbour—Cape Clear Island, 610
 Sherkin Island—Crookhaven—Brow Head—Mizen Head—Dunmanus Bay—Bantry Bay—Whiddy Island—Berehaven, 611
 Western Coast—Durse Island—Kenmare River—Skellig Islands—Valentia Island—Dingle Bay—Blasquet Islands—Smerwick Bay—Tralee Bay, 611
 Shannon River—Inniscattery Island—Malbay—Galway Bay—Arran Islands, 612
 Cashin, Kilkeeran, Birterbuy and Roundstone Bays—Clew Bay—Clare Island—Newport—Westport—Achil Island, Blacksod Bay—Broadhaven—Killala Bay—Sligo Bay—Donegal Bay—North Arranmore Island—Tory Island—Northern Coast—Horn Head—Sheep Bay, 612
 Mulroy Bay—Lough Swilly—Lough Foyle—Malin Head—The Skerries—Ballycastle—Rathlin Island, 613
 North-East Coast—Fair Head—Tor Point—Olderfleet Harbour—Belfast Lough—Copeland Islands—Donaghadee—Strangford Lough, 613
 Carlingford Lough—Dundalk Bay—Drogheda Harbour—Skerries Island—Lambay Island, 613
 Island Magee—The Gobbins—Extent—Surface, 614
 Mountains—Rivers—Shannon, 614
 Barrow—Suir—Nore—Blackwater—Lee—Bandon, 614
 Slaney—Liffey—Boyne—Bann—Foyle, 615
 Lakes—Lough Neagh—Lough Erne—Lough Corrib, 615, 616
 Lough Mask—Lough Garra—Lough Conn—Lough Lane—Lough Derg—Woods—Bogs—Central Band, 616
 Species of Bog—Fibrous Bog—Fluid Peat, 617
 Black Bog—Bog Strata, 617
 Surface of Bogs, 618
 Geology—Flötz Limestone—Granite—Mica Slate—Basalt, Chalk—Mulattoe—Lias Limestone—Dykes—Granite, 619
 Mica Slate—Clay Slate—Sandstone, 619
 Moosedeer—Mines—Gold, 620
 Copper—Lead—Iron—Antimony—Coal, 620
 Mineral Springs—Names—Erin, 621
 Scotia—Celtic Remains—Round Towers, 622
 Colonization—Partholan—Milesius—Heber and Heremon, Ollamh Fodlah—Leah Quin—Leah Mowa—Provinces—History—St. Patrick—Declan—St. Kieran, 622
 Danes—Turgesius—Brian Boru—Cardinal Paparon, 623
 Henry II.—Dermod M'Morrough—Strongbow, 623
 Hugh De Lacy, 624
 John, Earl of Morton—Division into Counties—The Pale, Edward Bruce—Statutes of Kilkenny, 624
 Richard II.—Art. M'Murcha—Cumrick—Black-rent, 625
 Brotherhood of St. George—Henry VII.—Lambert Simnel, Perkin Warbeck—Poynings' Laws, 625
 Henry VIII.—O'Neil—Philip and Mary—Elizabeth, 626
 Earl of Desmond—Hugh O'Neil, 626
 James I.—Charles I.—Strafford—Sir Phelim O'Neil, 627
 Cromwell—Charles II.—James II. 627
 Penal Code—Thurot, 627
 Octennial Act—Volunteers, 628
 Grattan, 628
 Regency Question—Catholic Emancipation, 629
 United Irishmen—French Invasion—Rebellion, 629
 The Union—Civil Division, 629
 Representation—Executive—Judicial Officers, 630
 Lord Lieutenants—Grand Juries—Constabulary—Ecclesiastical State, 630
 Parishes—Tithes, 631
 Ministers' Money—Roman Catholic Establishment, 631, 632
 Presbyterian Establishment—Population, 632
 Occupations—Appearance and Character, 632
 Language—Food—Clothing—Religion, 632
 Education—University—Maynooth College—Royal Schools, 633

Diocesan Schools—Erasmus Smith's Schools—Charter Schools—Education of the Poor, 633
 Sunday Schools, 634
 Agriculture, 634
 Grazing, 634
 Hogs—Dairies—Butter—Cheese—Orchards, 635
 Cider—Tobacco—Fisheries, 635
 Manufactures—Woolen, 636
 Linen, 637
 Linen Board—Flax Seed, 637
 Silk, 637
 Cotton—Iron—Distilleries, 638
 Beer—Circulating Medium, 638
 Coinage, 638
 Banks, 639
 Roads, 639
 Inland Navigation—Grand Canal, 640
 Royal Canal—Newry Canal—Lagan Navigation, 640
 Boyne Navigation—Limerick Navigation—Commerce, 640
 Cities and Towns, 641
 Dublin, 641
 Kilkenny, 642
 Drogheda, 643
 Dundalk—Wexford—Carlow—New Ross—Portarlington, 643
 Belfast—Lisburn—Newry, 643
 Londonderry—Armagh—Coleraine, 644
 Carrickfergus—Downpatrick—Enniskillen—Cork—Limerick, 644
 Waterford—Dungarvan—Clonmel—Cashel, 645
 Youghal—Kinsale—Bandon Bridge, 645
 Fermoy—Mallow—Tralee—Ennis—Galway, 645
 Sligo—Tuam—Athlone, 646

STATISTICAL TABLES, 647— 662

TABLES OF MATHEMATICAL GEOGRAPHY.

I. Comparison of French and English Weights and Measures, Old Weights and Measures of France, 663
 II. Synoptical Table of the Planetary System, 664
 III. Table of Climates, 665
 IV. Table of the Decrease of the Degrees of Longitude, according to the Ancient or Nonagesimal Graduation, the Earth being supposed to be spherical, 665
 V. Table of the Decrease of the Degrees of Longitude, according to the New or Centesimal Graduation, the Earth being considered as spherical, 665
 VI. Table of the Decrease of the Degrees of Longitude, according to the New or Centesimal Scale, the Earth being supposed to be a spheroid, flattened $\frac{1}{335}$, 665
 VII. Table of the Increase of the Degrees of Latitude, according to the New or Centesimal Scale, the Earth being supposed to be a spheroid flattened $\frac{1}{335}$, 666
 VIII. Comparative View of Linear Measures, called (or equivalent to) Feet, 666
 IX. A Comparative View of the Agrarian Measures used in the principal States of Europe, in ancient French square feet, (*pieds de roi*), compared with the Arpent fixed by the Government for measuring the Waters and Forests, and with the Hectare, or New Agrarian Measure of France, 666
 X. A Comparative Table of Itinerary and Topographical Measures, 667
 XI. A Table of the different Measures of Antiquity, 668
 XII. Comparative View of Principal Winds, 668
 XIII. Table of the Decrease of Temperature, according to the Altitude, 669
 XIV. Table of the most Remarkable Heights in different parts of the World, expressed in English feet, 669

BOOK CXXII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Germany.—Sixth Section.—Kingdom of Wirtemberg.—Grand dutchy of Baden.—Principalities of Hohenzollern-Hechingen, Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen and Lichtenstein.

THE countries we are about to examine, are more extensive than the petty states which were last described,^a but they were not less subdivided, before Baden was erected into a grand dutchy, and Wirtemberg and Bavaria into kingdoms. The circle of Franconia comprehended the margraviates of Anspach and Bayreuth, as well as the free territory attached to the town of Nuremberg. The dutchy of Wirtemberg, the margraviate of Baden and the imperial towns of Ulm and Augsburg, made up the circle of Suabia. Lastly, the circle of Bavaria was formed by the electorate of Bavaria, the bishoprics of Salzburg, Passau and Freysingen, and the possessions of the free town of Ratisbon.^b

The changes in the territorial divisions in that part of Germany, as well as in other countries, were occasioned by the preponderance which France possessed in Europe, under the reign of Napoleon. In consequence of the treaty concluded at Presburg in 1805, the government of these ancient circles and free territories was changed; the small principalities of Lichtenstein and Hohenzollern retained their privileges, but Baden was raised into a grand dutchy, and Bavaria and Wirtemberg were made kingdoms, within the Germanic confederation. Some alterations in the limits of these states have been necessarily occasioned by the last treaties, and they have acquired, from their new organization, a greater influence than they possessed under the protection of France. Bavaria, which is still a powerful kingdom, holds, after Prussia, the first rank in the confederation. It shall be described in the next book.

The kingdom of Wirtemberg is situated between Bavaria and the grand dutchy of Baden. Roesch considers its greatest length to be equal to three hundred and forty-eight geographical miles; it is not less than five thousand eight hundred and twelve English square miles in superficial extent.^c The greater portion of it is covered with hills, or indented with vallies, the largest of which is watered by the Neckar. A branch of the Schwarz-Wald, or Black Forest,

forms for the distance of seventy miles,^d the western limit of the kingdom. The chain of the Schwarz-Wald, being composed of granite rocks, is consequently of a higher elevation^e than the Rauhe-Alb, another range, formed by limestone of secondary formation; the latter has been called the Suabian Alps by French geographers. These two chains are branches of a single range that commences at the banks of the Rhine, opposite Bale, and forms by its bifurcation the natural boundary of Wirtemberg on the south-west. The elevation of some of the principal mountains in Wirtemberg may be mentioned; the Katzenkopf or Cat's Head, is more than 3000 feet above the level of the sea;^f the Stornberg is 2776, the Rossberg 2689, the Hohenzollern 2621, the Kniebis 2565, the Teck 2327, the Stuienberg 2315, and the Neuffen 2263.^g The climate is in general mild and temperate, but on the heights and in the forests which extend along their declivities, the atmosphere is cold, and the winters are of longer duration. The rivers that rise from the mountains are the Neckar, together with the Enz, the Fils, the Rems, the Kocher and the Jaxt, all of which are feeders of the Neckar, and the Danube, together with several small rivers, such as the Riess, the Roth and the Iller.^h The fossil bones of elephants and other antediluvian animals have been discovered in the valley of the Neckar, in the neighbourhood of Canstadt. The Federsee is the largest lake in the interior of Wirtemberg; we shall not mention the lake of Constance, which forms merely the southern limit of the kingdom.

Ammianus Marcellinus^k and other ancient writers make mention of the Alemanni, who inhabited the country between the Upper Danube, the Upper Rhine and the Maine. That country forms, at present, the grand dutchy of Baden and the kingdom of Wirtemberg. The *Alemanni*, or the *Alamanni* or *Alambani*, as they are sometimes called by the ancients, were the ancestors of the people that now inhabit the states governed by the king of Wirtemberg. Agathias and Jornandes,^l who lived during the reign of the emperor Justinian, have left us much valuable information concerning these barbarous tribes. The first explains the meaning of their name, and tells us that Alemanni signifies a junction

^a The original states, that the countries which are now to be described occupy together a greater extent of surface than the small states which have been already enumerated. Two of these states (Wirtemberg and Bavaria) are larger than any in the preceding book, but Saxony is more extensive than Baden. The three principalities are among the smallest states in Germany.—P.

^b It is not true that the circles of Suabia and Bavaria were *made up of* or *formed by* the states above mentioned; but only that those states were among the most important comprehended in the circles. The great number of immediate small states, scattered over every circle in Germany, and equally independent in theory with the largest, is too well known to need any special enumeration. Such states were particularly numerous in Suabia.—P.

VOL. III.—NO. 42

^c "Its superficial extent is estimated by Roesch at 348 [Germ.] geographical square miles, or 967 [Fr. sq.] leagues."

^d "28 leagues."

^e Such is the language of the original, but it does not necessarily follow that a chain of primitive formation should be higher than one of secondary formation; many instances to the contrary occur.—P.

^f See *Württembergische Jahrbücher für vaterländische Geschichte*, by Memminger, 1823.

^g Stein's Geography, (in Germ.)

^h The measures here given are those of the original.

ⁱ These three rivers enter the Danube from the south, and consequently rise from the Alps, and not from the mountains previously mentioned.—P

^k *Reer. gest.* XXVIII. 5.

^l *De Reb. Goth.* 17.

or union of different nations in Germany; in short, it seems to be derived from *all* and *mann*, two words nearly the same both in German and English. The Alemanni were probably descended from the Suevi. Their government was monarchical, or at all events, they chose a chief when they began a war; their religion was the same as that of the other Germans, but they were distinguished from them by the greater ferocity of their manners. Their hatred against the Romans, excited them to many acts of cruelty, which were committed against their prisoners. Caracalla defeated them, but could not make them submit to his authority, and it was only by means of bribery that some were gained over to his service. They made themselves masters of the forts, which the Romans had built on the Rhine, and laid waste part of Gaul about the middle of the third century. They were afterwards driven back into Germany, and their country desolated, by Maximin. Their history indeed exhibits a succession of victories and defeats, until nearly the end of the fourth century,^a when they submitted to Maxentius.^b

Wurtemberg was formed into a county in the circle of Suabia about the middle of the eleventh century.^c The Emperor Maximilian changed it into a duchy in the year 1495. Many of the inhabitants embraced the reformation under Ulrich the Eighth, who took an active part in the league of Smalkalden. The number of protestants at present in the kingdom is estimated to be more than a million.

The kingdom of Wurtemberg abounds in mines, slate, marble, and different kinds of limestone that are used in building; it is also well supplied with coal, sulphur, salt and mineral springs. The land yields good harvests, and more than a half of it is in cultivation; the vineyards take up nearly a fiftieth part, the meadows about a seventh, and the forests occupy the rest of the country. The landed proprietors rear a great number of horses, oxen, pigs and sheep; merinos have been introduced, and are found to succeed.

The woods and the fields were so much overrun with game, that government found it necessary in 1817 to encourage the destruction of hares, rabbits and other kinds of game by which the crops were injured. The keepers of the forests are obliged to recompense the farmers for any injury that these animals may occasion. Two persons are appointed in every village,^d and their sole occupation is to destroy game.

There are many manufactories in Wurtemberg, but none of them are very important. The articles manufactured in the plains or low districts are cotton, linen and woollen stuffs; many wooden clocks are made in the high country; and paper mills, tanneries and iron works may be seen in the vallies.

But another and very important trade consists in spirits; there are not fewer than thirty distilleries in the district of Heilbronn, two hundred and twenty-six in that of Bahlingen, and sixty-three in that of Biberach. The spirits made

in these distilleries, are not obtained from wine, potatoes or grain, but extracted from the fruit of the small cherry trees that increase so rapidly on the mountains in the Black Forest. That spirituous liquor is generally known by the name of *kirschen-wasser*. The quantity consumed in the country, and exported every year, is sold for 130,000 florins, or £13,000.^e It furnishes the means of subsistence to more than a hundred and twenty families among the lower orders of society. In whatever estimation this liquor may be held by connoisseurs, it is not the less certain that the inhabitants of the Schwarz-Wald ought to raise a monument in memory of Thomas Leodgar, who invented it, and to whom the people are indebted for their wealth.

The foreign commerce of the kingdom consists chiefly the exportation of its wood, wines, grain, dried fruits, leather, linen and *kirschen-wasser*, and also of the wooden clocks that are made in the high districts. The countries to which most of these exports are sent, are Switzerland, France, Bavaria and Austria. It receives in exchange, cloth, oil, fine wool, raw silk and silk stuffs, tobacco and colonial produce.

As to the inland trade, it is believed to be protected by excluding foreign competition by means of prohibitory duties, and by the monopoly which government has imposed on certain articles. Thus, the cotton cloth,^f known by the name of the Chinese city in which it is made, cannot enter the kingdom; unwrought iron cannot be exported from it, and salt and tobacco are sold exclusively by government. For the purpose of encouraging commerce, a uniform system of weights and measures, founded on the decimal division, has been established. The management of the roads is committed to government, and some attempts have lately been made to improve them. Commercial communications are likewise facilitated by navigable rivers.

M. Memminger^g estimates the value of all the merchandise in the kingdom, at thirty-three millions of florins, or three millions three hundred thousand pounds sterling; the natural products, according to the same author, amount to sixteen millions of florins, and the manufactured products to seventeen millions. The value of the exports amounts to more than sixteen millions of florins.

According to Hassel, the revenue in 1821 was not less than 8,300,000 florins,^h from which if the sum derived from the domains and forests be deducted, 5,681,000 remain, the amount of all the taxes and contributions, that are imposed on the people; so that on an average, every individual in the kingdom, pays annually four florins or eight shillings in the shape of taxes. The expenditure amounted to 7,900,000 florins,ⁱ including the interest and extinguishment of the national debt, which at that time was estimated at 20,000,000 florins. But it must have considerably increased within the short period of two years, for, if a report made to the chambers in 1823 be correct, it was then equal to 25,679,616 florins. The revenue, although sometimes

^a "A. D. 388."

^b The dates in the text do not correspond with the common authorities. Maximin died A. D. 238, and Maxentius A. D. 312.—P.

^c Moreri's Dictionary, art. Wurtemberg.

^d "Commune"—Germ. *gemeinde*.

^e "The annual produce is valued at more than 130,000 florins."—The florin in Wurtemberg is 2s. 4d. sterl. Ed. Eneye. .

^f Nankoen.

^g Wurtembergische Jahrbücher, &c. 1821

^h The following details are subjoined :

	Florins.
Domains	2,268,000
Direct taxes	2,000,000

	Florins.
Indirect taxes	2,553,000
Forests	351,000
Saltpetre and salt	94,000
Post office	69,000
Different receipts	404,000
Receipts in arrear	561,000

Total 8,300,000

ⁱ Some of the items may be mentioned: for the civil list, 666,000 florins; for the ordinary appanages of the royal family, 309,000; for the war department, 1,855,000.

higher than in 1821, has more frequently been lower; in 1824, one of the most prosperous years, it exceeded 10,028,000 florins.^{a b}

The harvests have more than once so completely failed, that government has been obliged to remit the taxes in several districts; the same cause has induced many individuals to emigrate to America and the southern provinces of Russia. Stein^c assures us that no less than twelve thousand persons emigrated during the first four months of the year 1817. But it must be admitted that a considerable number were influenced by religious notions; the *aurora borealis*, which appeared in Wirtemberg, during the month of February in the same year, was considered a sign or an injunction of the Lord, by which the people were commanded to leave the country.

It was determined in 1819 that the army should consist of nineteen thousand men in time of war, and six thousand in time of peace, exclusively of three hundred and seventy gendarmes. The contingent, which the state furnishes to the confederation, amounts to fourteen thousand men. It ought to be mentioned that a law was passed nineteen years ago, rendering it imperative on every bachelor from the age of twenty to forty, to enter the militia, which is made up of sixty cohorts, and each cohort of a thousand men.^d Those who have attained the age of forty, form a corps of reserve. The time fixed for the military service is ten years for the cavalry, and eight for the infantry. Officers were entitled to inflict corporal punishment on the soldiers, a privilege which has often been abused in the German armies. Government considered that a method of punishment so humiliating to private soldiers, was not tolerated in despotic countries; it was therefore abolished about twelve years ago; at present, no man in the army can be punished without the sentence of a court martial.^e It was fixed by a law passed in 1812,^f that the widows of sub-officers and soldiers, who had been slain in the field of battle, should be entitled to a pension equivalent to the pay of their husbands; their children too may be brought up at the royal orphan-houses at Stuttgart and Ludwigsburg, if their relatives are unable to maintain them.

Some notion of the number of inhabitants in Wirtemberg may be formed from the military force. Hassel estimated the population in 1822, at one million four hundred and forty-six thousand individuals, consisting principally of Germans, Wends,^g and Jews.^h But the number of inhabitants has increased since that period, and it appears from the excess of the births above the deaths, that the population amounted in 1826 to 1,517,770 souls, from which it follows that the average number of individuals for every English square mile, is upwards of two hundred and sixty-one,ⁱ a number that places Wirtemberg on a level with the most populous states in Europe.

^a "The revenue has sometimes been higher than in 1821, as in the year 1824, when it amounted to 10,028,000 florins; but it has occasionally been lower."

^b *Allgem. Deutsche Justiz-Kammer, &c.* February, 1825.

^c Stein's *Geography*, (in Germ.)

^d "There is a law by which all bachelors, from eighteen years to forty, are enrolled in a general militia, consisting of sixty cohorts, each of one thousand men."

^e "Corporal punishment in time of peace, was abolished, about ten years since, by a royal ordinance. This degrading penalty, which is not even tolerated in despotic countries, can now be inflicted only in extraordinary cases, and by sentence of a court martial."

^f "By a royal ordinance of 1812."

^g *Vaudois*, in the text of the original; *Wendes*, in the Table of Errata. *Waldenses*. (Hassel.)

^h In the above number are included 703,500 males and 740,600 females.

The law by which many, before the year 1817, were prevented from having fire-arms in their possession, has been wisely modified. That privilege is granted at present not only to landed proprietors, their stewards, the officers of government, the magistrates and the huntsmen appointed by the districts,^k but also to the tenants of isolated houses, and the proprietors of manufactories and storehouses. Each district may dispose of a certain number of guns, that are entrusted to the mayor, who gives them to any that wish to destroy noxious animals, or to guard their property against the depredations of thieves.

The press is not wholly free in the kingdom of Wirtemberg; but the restrictions imposed on it, indicate on the part of government, rather the desire of diffusing instruction and the light of knowledge, than the dread of any imaginary abuses, that may arise from a privilege which has now become necessary to the inhabitants of a civilized state. According to a law passed on the 30th January, 1817, any work may be published that contains nothing contrary to religion and the public tranquillity. The journals are equally free in time of peace, but during war, they must be examined by censors. It is the duty of the crown lawyers to prosecute the authors of blasphemous and immoral works, or of writings which tend to calumniate private characters, or to attack the conduct of the king and his ministers, or that of the members of the chambers, or of the representatives of foreign powers.

Government deserves to be commended for its zeal in diffusing knowledge among the different classes of the community. There is hardly a town of any size in the kingdom without a gymnasium, and not a small one without one or more schools. These institutions are attended by children from six to fourteen years of age, and schools of art are open for the instruction of mechanics.^l A gratuitous school has been established in every village, and schoolmasters repair twice or thrice a-week to the remote hamlets, where the pupils assemble in each other's houses. It may be affirmed, indeed, that almost all the children among the lower ranks of society are taught to read, write and cast accounts. The different seminaries are under the inspection of the clergymen and curates, but the scholars must be examined every year by professors, who are sent from Stuttgart and Tübingen. The schools for the lower orders^m are annually increasing; thus there were not more than two hundred and sixty in 1823, and the number of pupils did not exceed ten thousand and sixty-four; but in 1825, the number of schools amounted to three hundred and forty-two, and the scholars to fourteen thousand and eighty-seven. The masters of the different public schools are mostly selected from the seminaries at Esslingen and Ehingen, which may be considered normal schools. Clergymen superintend some places of education,ⁿ but in ge-

The tables of Hassel enable us to arrive at an approximation concerning the number of the different classes.

Nobles	1,700
Burgesses and householders,*	1,193,300
Artisans,	108,000
Husbandmen and vine-dressers,	101,000
Day labourers and servants,	42,000

* "Rentiers," tenants. Total 1,446,000

^l "1569 per sq. league."

^k "Communes."

^l "All the towns of any importance possess a gymnasium, and the smaller towns institutions of a lower order. Each primary school is connected with a school of arts and trades. These institutions are attended by children from six to fourteen years of age, and Sunday schools are open for apprentices, till they have reached the age of eighteen years."

^m "Schools of industry"

ⁿ "Private seminaries"

neral, those who devote themselves to the noble career of instructing youth, are educated and trained by men of distinguished merit. The sons of the lower orders, if they are desirous of following the ecclesiastical profession, and show any talent, for it is a matter of indifference whether they be catholic or protestant, are educated at the expense of government.

Two orders of knighthood have been instituted in the kingdom of Wirtemberg, and the honour, which the prince may thus confer, was intended as a reward for civil services and military merit. The officers, who receive this distinction, wear a gold medal, and the soldiers a silver one.^a *Vir-tutis amicitiaque fœdus* is the motto on the cross of the Golden Eagle, which was founded in 1702. The members are foreign princes or officers of high rank, and according to the statutes of the order, an intimate union must subsist between them; they must assist each other in the field of battle if it be in their power, and perform good offices to one another in the ordinary occurrences of life. The number of knights is limited to fifty, but as none can be admitted that are not sprung from an ancient and noble family, the order of Merit was instituted in 1806 for those who cannot receive the decoration of the Golden Eagle. The members wear a medal with the inscription *Bene merentibus*, and they are divided into grand crosses, commanders and knights. These honorary distinctions, the influence of wealth, and the importance of civil employments, have contributed to form several distinct classes in the kingdom.

The dukes of Wirtemberg shared, from the commencement of the sixteenth century, the rights of sovereignty with the assembly of the states, which was formed by the fourteen highest ecclesiastics and eighty-nine deputies from the towns and districts. When Napoleon raised the dutchy into a kingdom, the assembly was dissolved. But after the deliverance of Germany, to use a German phrase, or more correctly, after the establishment of the new Germanic confederation, the districts and the nobles claimed their privileges and a national representation, by which the power of the crown might be confined within proper bounds. According to the constitution, the king is of full age at eighteen years; his person is inviolable; he may be either a Catholic or a Protestant; to him only belongs the ratification and execution of the laws, the right of administering justice, and of making peace or war, and the command of the army.

Liberty of conscience and equality among the different Christian communions have been solemnly sanctioned by the constitution, and a very important privilege has thus been conferred on the different sects in the kingdom. No legislative enactment can be put in force, until it has been approved by the general assembly of the districts; the same body fixes the amount of the taxes, and regulates the contributions; lastly, individual liberty has been guaranteed, and the confiscation of property abolished.

The assembly consists of thirteen members, who are chosen for life among the nobles, whose annual income amounts to at least fifty thousand florins, and of six Protestant ecclesiastics, a Catholic bishop, two Catholic clergymen, and four lawyers.^b The deputies elected by the people must have an income of eight thousand florins. A deputy is elected in the towns, for every two hundred inhabitants.

^a "The honorary distinctions intended as a reward for civil services and military merit, consist of two orders of knighthood, and a gold medal for the officers and a silver medal for the soldiers."

The deputies are appointed for six years, and that period can only be abridged by an extraordinary dissolution. A fund has been established out of which the expenses of the assembly, and even the travelling expenses of the members are defrayed. The deputies of the districts are elected by the land proprietors, but no one can exercise his elective privileges until he has completed his twenty-fifth year. Three members are chosen by the upper chamber, and as many by the lower, and out of that number, the king nominates the speakers of the two houses.

Government has shown itself favourable to the representative system, and in order to preserve the principles on which it depends, a conservative council has been created. It consists of lawyers and magistrates, one half of whom are appointed by the king, and the other by the lower chamber. The council passes judgment on the public functionaries and deputies, that are accused of acting unconstitutionally. It judges concerning the differences that may arise between the ministers and the districts concerning the interpretation of the constitution. The districts may accuse the king's ministers, but the latter cannot make a public functionary resign his situation for a lower office, much less deprive him of office, unless he be guilty of a crime, or unfitted for the discharge of his public duties by want of capacity.

The kingdom of Wirtemberg is divided into four circles, which bears the names of the rivers that water them, or of the principal mountains that form the western boundary of the state. Thus, the circles of the Neckar and the Jaxt are situated on the north, that of the Schwarzwald or Black Forest on the west, and that of the Danube on the south. Twelve provincial and sixty-four subordinate courts of justice have been instituted in these four great divisions of the kingdom. There are a hundred and thirty towns in Wirtemberg, a hundred and twenty-eight burghs, one thousand one hundred and fifteen villages, and two thousand four hundred and ten hamlets.

Stuttgart or Stuttgard, the capital of the kingdom, rises in the middle of a fruitful valley, surrounded with hills and vineyards, on the banks of the Nesenbach. The town has been lately enlarged, and it contained in the year 1823,^c one thousand nine hundred and eighty houses, and twenty-seven thousand seven hundred and eighty inhabitants, exclusively of the garrison.^d The streets are broad and straight; two of them are remarkable for their regularity, and the number of fine buildings. Stuttgart is the seat of the supreme courts in the kingdom, and the king possesses two palaces, of which the more modern has been much admired for its architecture and the magnificence of its interior; a collection of natural history is contained in the other. Among the buildings that ought to be mentioned, are the principal church, the chancery and the opera. The useful institutions are a library containing more than 200,000 volumes, a collection of twelve thousand bibles and a great number of manuscripts; a museum of arts, an academy of painting and sculpture, and a botanic garden. The commerce of the capital consists principally in cloth and linen.

The small town of Esslingen may vie with Stuttgart in the beauty of its situation; it is encompassed by vineyards and forests, and watered by the Neckar, and was formerly among the number of free cities; it contains at present a court of justice, and its population amounts to 5600 inhabitants.

^b "Four members of the different learned societies in the kingdom."

^c In the original, the date 1823 is confined to the population.

^d Hoffmann Umriss zur Erd und Staatenkunde, &c.

If we follow the winding course of the Neckar, we remark on its left bank, and at the distance of eight miles^a to the north of Stuttgart, the town of Ludwigsburg, a royal residence, peopled by six thousand individuals, and containing a fine castle, an orphan hospital, a house of correction, and several cloth manufactories.^b At the distance of ten leagues in the same direction,^c and on the opposite bank of the river, may be observed a larger town, that of Heilbronn; it was formerly a free city and a commandery of the Teutonic Order; it is enriched by the produce of its vineyards and distilleries, by its lead works and the navigation of the Neckar. Hall, which lies ten leagues to the east of the last place, has been called *Swabian Hall* (*Schwabisch-Hall*), to distinguish it from many others of the same name. Situated on the banks of the Kocher, surrounded with rocks, and peopled by more than 6400 inhabitants, it owes its origin to the abundant saline springs in the vicinity.

Ellwangen on the Jaxt, the metropolis of a circle, and the seat of a theological university, cannot be compared in other respects with Gmünd, a town on the Rems, with a population of six thousand individuals, and well known for its different manufactures, particularly for the skill which its artisans have attained in working the precious metals. Gesslingen or Geisslingen carries on a trade in different articles, made of ivory, bone and wood; the quantity exported may be equal in value to 90,000 florins. Four thousand five hundred inhabitants make up the population of Göppingen, a town watered by the Fils. It has manufactories of cloth and pottery. The mineral waters of Ueberkingen, situated in a romantic country at no great distance from the last town, are visited every year by many strangers.

The neighbouring village of Hohenstaufen stands on a height, that commands an extensive view. The old castle, now in ruins, still towers above the village; it was for a long time the residence of the emperor Barbarossa. The last descendant of the family of Hohenstaufen, was young Conrad,^d who, for having attempted to ascend the throne of Sicily, a country over which his father had reigned, but which the Pope had made over to Charles of Anjou, perished on the scaffold at Naples in 1269.^e

Reutlingen, formerly a free town, and at present the metropolis of the circle of Schwarzwald, contains nine thousand inhabitants. It possesses a lyceum, its vineyards cover the sides of the Alp and the Georgenberg, and it carries on a trade in leather, lace and cutlery.

Tubingen, at the confluence of the Neckar and the Steinach, has been entitled the second capital of the kingdom. The population amounts to seven thousand individuals; it has a university, attended by eight hundred students, a public library, containing sixty thousand volumes, a faculty of theology, a seminary for Lutheran clergymen, an observatory, and a veterinary school. The town cannot be commended for its appearance; the streets are crooked and narrow, the houses are gloomy and ill built.

Ulm, peopled by eleven thousand inhabitants, has a bet-

ter claim to the rank of second capital. It was formerly a free and imperial town, and its population was at one time more considerable, for it contained in 1808 more than fourteen thousand individuals. Its situation on the frontiers of Bavaria, at the confluence of the Blau and the Danube, the fortifications that defend it, its manufactures and transit trade, by which its declining commerce is still supported, put it on a level with the principal towns in Wirtemberg. Its fortifications, it must be admitted, are not as formidable as when the French made themselves masters of it, but it is equally certain that it might be rendered a much stronger place than it is at present.^f As it did not offer any resistance to the French armies, its buildings were not injured; the most remarkable are the town-house, the public library, and the church of Munster,^g a building that cannot be too highly commended on account of its proportions and rich Gothic architecture.^h The trade of the town may have fallen off, but it possesses other claims to distinction. The pastry known by the name of Ulm bread, its asparagus, and the snails fattened in the vicinity, are duly appreciated by gourmards; could it be believed, that more than four millions of these animals are annually exported?

Biberach on the banks of the Riess, a town peopled by five thousand inhabitants, carries on a trade in paper and linen.

The kingdom of Wirtemberg has been often visited by antiquaries. Several ancient monumentsⁱ are situated in the southern part of the country. The ruins of an aqueduct about three leagues in length, may be observed in the neighbourhood of Rothenburg on the Neckar. The *Devil's Wall*, which rises on the banks of the Danube, and of which traces have been discovered at no great distance from Ellwangen, forms only a part of the remains of a vast line of fortifications constructed by the Romans.^k The remains of Roman earthen works, from which a great many vases have been collected, may still be seen between Weiblingen and Endersbach, not many miles from Stuttgart. An altar and several basso-relievos have been found in the same part of the country. The names of several places are connected with ancient recollections. *Beinstein* or *Beystein* signifies near the stone, and a monument was erected there by the Romans. *Kalkofen*, where Roman potteries were discovered a few years ago, has always borne the same name, which signifies a limekiln.

We abstain from making any reflections on the morality of the people of Wirtemberg; it may be remarked, however, that the number of criminal prosecutions in the different courts, during the year 1823, has been published in a German journal,^l and the prevalence of crime must necessarily be inferred from the result. According to the same document, the number of persons prosecuted for crimes during the same year, was not less than eight thousand five hundred and sixty-six. It appears from the population at the time, that the individuals accused were to the rest of the inhabitants as one to a hundred and sixty-nine.

^a "3 leagues."

^b "A royal cloth manufactory."

^c "7 leagues N. of Ludwigsburg."

^d Conradin of Swabia.

^e J. F. Ammermüller, Hohenstaufen, ein Lesebuch. [F. Von Raumer, Geschichte der Hohenstaufen und ihrer Zeit, 6 Bden.]

^f Its fortifications are now completely levelled, but the German diet appears inclined to convert it into a national fortress. Convers. Lex. art. Ulm.—P.

^g *Münsterkirche*, the minster-church.

^h Kurzgefasste Beschreibung der Reichsstadt Ulm. Fabri, Handbuch der Neuesten Geographie.

ⁱ "Tombelles"—tumuli?

^k The Devil's Wall (*Teufelsmauer*) is the name given in Germany to the remains of a wall constructed by the Romans between the Danube and the Rhine, about 80 German miles in length, and which has been traced throughout the greater part of its extent.—P.

^l Allgemeine Handl. Zeit. März, 1825, p. 147.

To what can so frightful a state of society be attributed, unless to the remissness of government and the imperfection of the laws?

Political commotions, changes in dynasties and governments, the long residence of foreign armies, the corruption of morals, the ordinary consequence of wars and revolutions, the destruction of trade, and the difficulty of procuring the means of subsistence for the lower orders, tend to increase crimes in a country. It is then that wise legislators see the necessity of a new code adapted to the new wants of society. It is then that the laws must be simple, precise and distinct; it is then, above all, that the diffusion of education among the lower ranks, serves as a barrier against immorality. The government of Wirtemberg has experienced the advantages, that may be derived from the instruction of the people; it will without doubt finish what it has so successfully begun.

The grand duchy of Baden forms a long and narrow tract that extends along the right bank of the Rhine, from the lake of Constance to the country beyond the mouth of the Neckar. It is bounded by the Rhine on the south and the west, by Bavaria and the grand duchy of Hesse on the north, and by the kingdom of Wirtemberg and the principalities of Hohenzollern on the east; its irregular frontiers on the south-east are also contiguous to the same principalities. It is unnecessary to mention the ancient people that inhabited the country; they were the *Alemanni*, of whom some account has been already given in the description of Wirtemberg.

The length of the grand duchy may be equal to a hundred and sixty-two miles; the breadth to thirty-eight in the northern districts, seventy-six in the southern, and ten near the centre.^a Crome estimates the superficial extent at two hundred and seventy-four German square miles, which being reduced into English measure, makes the whole surface not less than three thousand two hundred and eighty-eight square miles.^b

The greater part of the country, particularly from the centre to the southern extremity, consists of high mountains and fruitful valleys; the plains are comparatively insignificant both in number and extent. The mountainous country forms the highest part of the Schwarzwald or Black Forest. The most elevated summit or the Feldberg reaches to the height of 4610 feet above the level of the sea; the lowest or the Winterhauch does not exceed 1640.^c The Storenberg, the Rosskopf, the Pöelle and the Todnauerberg have become celebrated in military history, on account of the fine retreat made by General Moreau in 1796. The Herberg and part of the Odenwald, two chains, in which the Kniebis is one of the most elevated points, extend to the northern extremity of the duchy.

The heights of the Black Forest, nearest the Rhine, are composed of granite, and those in the direction of Wirtemberg, are formed by sandstone and other rocks, belonging to what Werner and his disciples have termed the transition

formation; of the same period is the chain that extends northward to the banks of the Neckar, and it appears too that trapp rocks and others of a volcanic origin, have been observed in those mountains. A belt of secondary limestone extends along the western declivities of the Schwarzwald; but the land beyond it on the banks of the Rhine, from Bale to Manheim, belongs to the tertiary formation, or to the one succeeding the formation of chalk, and contemporaneous with that in the neighbourhood of Paris.

The Bodensee or the lake of Constance, forms part of the boundary of the grand duchy. The others, which have been incorrectly denominated lakes, are rather large ponds, almost all of which are situated in the mountainous country, and at a considerable elevation; that of Schluch on the Feldberg, is at the height of 2287 feet; that of Echner and several others are at least 1467 feet above the level of the sea.^d

The climate is mild and agreeable in the lower districts, or on the banks of the Rhine, the Maine and the Neckar; but the winters are very rigorous in the mountains and particularly in the chain of the Schwarzwald; even in summer the air is always keen, and the snow seldom melts in the highest region.

The forests in the grand duchy of Baden occupy a surface of one million five hundred and eighty thousand acres;^e one million three hundred thousand are cultivated, two hundred and nine thousand are waste, three hundred and thirty-five thousand are in meadow and pasture, seventy-four thousand are planted with vines, and a hundred and fifty thousand belong to the different towns, burghs and villages.^f The mountains are covered with thick forests of oaks and pines, but the low grounds and the vallies produce varied and abundant harvests. Crops of poor oats and potatoes can hardly be raised in the high country, and the cherry does not ripen before September; but the spectacle is very different in the plains and vallies; the vine, the almond, the chestnut and various other fruit trees, different kinds of grain, hemp, flax and the plants most useful to man, grow luxuriantly, and diffuse wealth and plenty over the land.

Different products are obtained; their number and importance depend on the nature of the country. Many animals haunt the forests, game abounds in the fields, and a considerable revenue is derived from the fishings on the Rhine and the lake of Constance. Salmon are not uncommon, and the carp of the Rhine, some of which weigh more than forty pounds, are considered a great delicacy by the wealthy. But though not so well known as those that have been last mentioned, the ablet^g (*Cyprinus alburnus*, Linn.) is perhaps a more valuable fish. The scales of the ablet have given rise to a branch of commerce; they are exported into Saxony, France and Switzerland, and used in giving a lustre to imitation pearls, by which it is difficult to distinguish them from real.

The mineral riches of the country, though not great, consist at least of many different kinds. About 12,000

^a "Length about 65 leagues—breadth in the north 11 leagues, in the south 31, and in the middle 4."

^b "761 geographical leagues, Fr. measure."

^c We may mention the heights of some other mountains in the duchy, as they are marked in the tables of Hassel.

Rosskopf	3633 feet.
Blauen	3597
Stockberg	3358
Egarten	2898
Hohekopf	2560
Kaltenbronn	2400

Kaiserstuhl	2050
Katzenbuckel	1780

[The measures in this note, and the two in the text, are those of the original.]

^d These measures are those of the original.

^e "Arpents"—Forests 1,580,622 *morgen*, vineyards 74,000 *jauchart*. (Hassel, 1822.)—P.

^f "—to the communes."—The grand duchy is divided into circles, the circles into districts, and the districts into communes (*gemeinden*). (Hassel.)

^g "Ablette," Eng. blay or bleak.

quinta's of iron, 700 of lead, and nearly 500 marks of silver, are annually extracted. The other products are copper, zinc, arsenic, alum, sulphur, coal, and nearly 4000 quintals of salt. Coarse and fine potter's clay, slates, marble and alabaster are found in several places; even gold might be mentioned among the metals, for particles of gold are collected in the alluvial deposits that are watered by the Rhine. A hundred and twenty individuals are employed in seeking it, but the quantity collected every year, does not exceed on an average £700.^a

That part of the Black Forest, situated within the grand dutchy, may rival that which belongs to Wirtemberg, for its *kirschen-wasser*. Several vineyards are noted both for the quantity and quality of the wine produced by them; the most noted are those of Constance, on the banks of the lake, and next to them the vineyards of Margraff and the Bergstrasse. The domestic animals, with the exception of the horse, are of a good kind and very numerous. Many inhabitants are employed in weaving or manufacturing hemp and flax. The raw and spun hemp exported every year from the territory of Ettenheim, amounts in value to 30,000 florins; and the hardware trade in the district of Pforzheim, occasions a circulation of 1,700,000. Many wooden clocks and other articles, which it is unnecessary to enumerate, are made in the Schwarzwald. It may suffice to state that notwithstanding the stagnation of commerce, there were a few years ago in the grand dutchy of Baden nearly 75,000 workmen employed in different branches of labour.

The transit trade is very active; the exports are also considerable; they consist chiefly in timber, which is sent to Switzerland, France and the Netherlands. The other exports are wines, corn, hemp, dried fruits, *kirschen-wasser*, tobacco, mineral water and hardware goods; the country receives in exchange French wines, salt, different manufactures, colonial produce and a number of horses.

Some genealogists have maintained that the family of Baden was sprung from the Gothic kings; others affirm it to have descended from Etichon, duke of Alsace in 684. But it is certain that the lordship of Baden was erected into a margraviate by Henry the Fowler, about the commencement of the tenth century. Hermann, the son of Berthold, and the first prince whom the chroniclers mention, flourished during the eleventh century; he derived from Judith, his first wife, the heiress of Baden, the principality from which his successors took the title of margraves. But the marquise was governed by several families that became successively extinct.^b The country was made an electorate in 1802, and some years afterwards, it was erected into a grand dutchy.

It has been already observed that the population in Germany is annually increasing; the same remark may be still more applicable to the grand dutchy of Baden, than to many other states in the same country. The number of inhabitants was estimated by Stein in 1813, at 1,001,630, and by Hassel in 1822, at 1,040,700. But the increase has been still greater since that period. According to M. Adrian

Balbi,^c the population in 1826, was not less than 1,130,000. Stein remarks in his geography, that the women were much more numerous than the men in 1813; indeed it appears from his calculations that the excess was equal to 31,343.^d The same writer attributes the disproportion to the ravages of war, and to the fact that many young men migrated to foreign countries in order to avoid the conscription. But it is not likely that these were the only causes, because Hassel has shown that there were 27,400 more women than men in the country during the third year after the peace, and because nearly the same proportion subsisted at a still later period in the year 1826. The blessings of peace, which Europe has so long enjoyed, are not then the sole causes of the increasing population; it must be partly attributed to the diffusion of wealth,^e and to such discoveries as vaccination; for during twenty years, the augmentation had not been sensibly diminished by all the evils of war. As to the difference in the number of the two sexes, it must be in a great degree occasioned by the frequent migrations that take place among the working classes, an important element, which does not appear to have entered into the calculations of statistical writers. It is difficult to believe that the men averse to the military life, are so numerous as Stein supposes, or that the habits of the people in Baden are so peaceful; they cannot be reproached for want of valour; besides, fear prevents very few in any country from entering the army.

The reigning family of Baden adheres to the Augsburg confession, but nearly two thirds of the population are Catholics; the other inhabitants are mostly Lutherans and Calvinists; the latter, however, are not more than a fourth part of the former; there are, besides, some Mennonites and Jews, the last of whom enjoy all the rights of citizens.^f Several convents for women still remain in the grand dutchy, but the purpose for which they were erected has been altered; they now serve for places of education. By a law passed in 1811, no person can take the vows before the age of twenty-one; the period during which the vows last, is limited to three years, at the end of which time, the nuns may return to the world, and participate in its duties and enjoyments. Silence, austerity, and almost all the obligations mentioned in the rules of different monastic orders, have been abolished.

The government of the grand dutchy was purely monarchical; but the sovereign published a decree on the 16th of March, 1816, in which, after having announced his desire of securing the happiness, tranquillity and liberty of his subjects, he declared that these intentions could only be accomplished by granting them a constitution, in which the rights of the prince and the people might be more accurately determined. According to the constitution,^g the duke possesses the right of making peace or war, proposing laws, and levying contributions, dispensing mercy to criminals, conferring titles of nobility, and lastly, of approving or forbidding the establishment of religious societies. The

sects, the following table, given by Hassel for 1822, may still serve to show their numerical importance.

Catholics,	705,850
Lutherans,	248,900
Calvinists,	69,100
Mennonites and other sects,	1,450
Jews,	15,400

Total 1,040,700

^g The constitution was published, Aug. 22, 1818.—P.

^a "Annual amount, 15,000 francs."

^b Dictionnaire de Moreri, art. Baden.

^c Tableau de la Balance politique du Globe.

^d Handbuch der Geographie und Statistik.

^e "New institutions"—abolition of feudal services, more equal division of landed property, extinguishment of mortmains, greater personal liberty and freedom of trade and commerce, and the numerous other improvements in the social state which have arisen from the convulsions of the French revolution, and of which the diffusion of wealth may be considered as one among many beneficial consequences.—P.

^f The increase in the population being nearly the same in the different

states consist of two chambers, which must be convoked at least once every two years; they fix the amount of the taxes and contributions, assist in enacting laws, and have the privilege of proposing whatever may contribute to the prosperity of the state.

The conscription has not been abolished; but the Napoleon Code, which was introduced into the country, has been superseded by the Roman law, and the ancient customs that were established in the dutchy before the French conquest. A new system of weights and measures, according to the decimal divisions, may be considered the only benefit that the country has derived from its connexion with France.

The inhabitants are divided into four classes; the nobles, knights, burgesses and peasants. The nobles possess baronies and estates, to which different privileges are attached. The knights are the members of the three orders of knighthood instituted by the prince. The burgesses hold property or civil offices in the different towns;^a none can enjoy the rights of citizens, who cannot read, write and manage their own affairs.

Government has promoted education by different institutions, of which the inhabitants are daily reaping the advantages. It maintains two universities, those of Heidelberg and Freyburg; it has founded four lyceums, one at Constance, another at Baden, a third at Carlsruhe, and a fourth at Mannheim; it has contributed to the establishment of other schools, as the institution for the deaf and dumb, the academy of architecture, and the two commercial seminaries at Mannheim and Carlsruhe. There are besides in the principal towns, ten gymnasiums and fifteen schools, in seven of which Latin is taught, and also a school of theology for the Catholics at Mersburg, and another for the Protestants at Carlsruhe. But in the year 1815, government found it advisable to impose some restrictions on the power that a parent has of educating his children; according to an enactment made in that year, the sons of burgesses, merchants and peasants, who have no reasonable expectations of receiving a patrimony, equal at least to 8000 florins, are not permitted to study the law, or to choose the profession of the bar, unless, indeed, they distinguish themselves in such a way as to afford indications of future talent or eminent success. The measures of government were rendered necessary by the difficulty experienced in finding employment for the lawyers and attorneys in the country, as their number was three times greater than that required for conducting all the business of the different courts.

If the number of criminals in the grand dutchy be compared with those in the kingdom of Wirtemberg, a very great difference will be found in that respect at least, between the two contiguous countries. According to the

^a "The population is divided into four classes, lords (*seigneurs*), knights (*chevaliers*), burgesses or citizens (*bourgeois*), and peasants. The lords consist of all those who possessed principalities or counties in the country, and who still retain many peculiar privileges. The knights are the members of the nobility who possess seignorial estates, and the members of the three orders of knighthood instituted by the prince. The citizens are those who hold property, rents or office."—The inhabitants of Baden consist of three classes, nobles (*die Adel*), citizens (*bürger*), and peasants (*bauern*). The former are divided into two ranks, mediatised or peers (*standesherrn*) or such as have the privilege of sitting personally in the upper house of the parliament or assembly of states, and such as possess seignorial estates (*rittergüter*) and are represented in the upper house by deputies. (Hassel.)—P.

		^b Revenue.
1821	.	9,651,827 florins.
1822	.	9,597,938

reports which we have examined, the number of persons who are prosecuted annually for crimes, varies from six to seven hundred; so that the proportion between those accused of crimes and the other inhabitants, is as one to sixteen hundred.

It appears from the report made to the chambers in 1825, concerning the administration from the year 1821 to 1823, inclusive, that the mean term of the revenue may be estimated at 9,586,000 florins; according to the reports relative to the expenditure, it may amount to 9,497,000.^b The national debt was equal in 1820 to 19,000,000 florins, and the expenses of the civil list to 2,000,000.

The grand dutchy of Baden is obliged to furnish a contingent of ten thousand men to the Germanic confederation. The army consists of an effective force equal to eleven thousand men, and a reserve amounting to seven thousand. The Jews in the country, having been long averse to the military service, the individuals amongst them, on whom the conscription falls, are each permitted to deposit 400 florins at the office of the war department, and these sums are given to substitutes, who are always very willing to enter the army on such conditions.

There are seven principalities and two counties in the grand dutchy, and the noble proprietors of these states enjoy many important privileges. The country is divided into six circles, bearing the names of the different rivers and the lake of Constance,^c and containing a hundred and eight towns, thirty-six burghs, two thousand four hundred and twenty-seven villages and hamlets, a hundred and fifty-four thousand seven hundred and ten houses, which, according to the lowest calculations, were valued in the different insurance offices^d some years ago, at three hundred and fifty millions of florins.

The inhabitants of Baden speak a harsh and guttural dialect, that appears to be composed of ancient German and Slavonic; but it is different in different districts, particularly at the two extremities of the country; thus, it is easy to distinguish by their pronunciation the natives of the Schwarzwald from those of the Odenwald.

Wertheim, a town situated at the confluence of the Maine and the Tauber, is a mediate possession of the prince of Læwenstein under the sovereignty of the grand duke of Baden. It is encompassed with walls and adorned by two castles; it contains 3500 inhabitants, who carry on a trade in leather, spirits and wines; the conveyance of goods on the Maine forms an important part of their commerce.

Mannheim or Mannheim, the largest town in the grand dutchy, has thrice within a century and a half, experienced the fatal effects of war. Devastated by the Bavarians in 1622, it had hardly recovered from its losses before it was included in the destruction of the Palatinate, a decree that

1823	.	9,508,955
		<i>Expenditure.</i>
1821	.	9,849,287 florins.
1822	.	9,323,624
1823	.	9,320,444

See the German work entitled Hertha, 1825.

^c The following are the names of the circles, beginning at the north east.

	Chief Towns
1°. Circle of the Maine and Tauber,	Wertheim.
2°. ————— Neckar,	Mannheim.
3°. ————— Murg and Pfalz,	Durlach.
4°. ————— Kinzig,	Offenburg.
5°. ————— Treisam,	Freyburg.
6°. ————— Lake (Germ. <i>Seckreis</i>),	Constance.

^d "The general insurance office."

disgraces for ever the administration of Louvois. The fury of the French soldiers could not be restrained; almost all the houses were demolished, and the generals of Louis the Fourteenth saw their men plunder the tombs of the palatines. Rebuilt by its princes, it was bombarded in 1795 by the republican armies of France, and a great many of its buildings were reduced to ashes. But its advantageous situation at the confluence of the Neckar and the Rhine, the activity of its commerce, and the importance of its manufactures, which consist in linen and woollen stuffs, and jewellery made chiefly of the alloy, that is known by the name of *Manheim gold*, have contributed to restore it to its ancient prosperity. Its population amounts, according to Hassel, to 21,525 persons. The streets are broad and straight; there are six squares, two fountains, a ducal castle, a large building which contains the exchange, and seven churches; the finest of the churches forms a part of the ancient residence of the Jesuits, which still attests their former wealth and power. The observatory, enriched with every useful instrument for astronomical purposes, might be considered an ornament to any town. It possesses besides a theatre of anatomy, a school of midwifery, a botanical garden, a museum of natural history, a library, a gallery of paintings, and a collection of antiquities.^a It is unnecessary to mention its lyceum, but it may be observed that a meteorological society has been instituted, and some of the members have distinguished themselves by their researches in a department of knowledge which is still in its infancy.^b

Heidelberg is situated ten leagues to the south-east of Manheim, at the foot of a mountain on the south bank of the Neckar. The town was founded in the twelfth century; it contains at present 10,500 inhabitants. The houses are generally well built, and some of the squares have been much admired. Nearly seven hundred students attend its university, which ranks with the most ancient in Germany;^c indeed one cannot observe without interest the different establishments for the instruction of youth, the botanical gardens, the numerous museums, the collections of philosophical instruments, and the valuable libraries. The most celebrated scholars in Europe resorted to Heidelberg during the sixteenth century. It was the residence of Olimpia Fulvia Morata, who was not less distinguished by her virtuous and exemplary life, than by the extent of her learning, and the superiority of her genius. Compelled to take refuge in Germany, on account of her attachment to protestantism, she filled the chair of ancient languages in the university of Heidelberg, and was considered a prodigy of learning, although not more than twenty-nine years of age at the time of her death.^d Francis Junius was one of the celebrated men that have been born in the town; he wrote several valuable works on the ancient languages of the north, and on antiquities.

A castle is situated on the hill that commands Heidelberg; there too may be observed the famous tun, which was substituted for the one broken by the French during the reign of Lewis the Fourteenth. It contains 130,000 gallons,^e and the weight of the iron that encircles it, is up-

wards of 12,000 pounds. The first hot houses in Europe were built near the same castle; from its walls may be seen the finest country in the ancient palatinate, and the fruitful vineyards of Heidelberg and Weinheim, the latter a small town of 4500 inhabitants, situated near the frontiers of the grand dutchy of Hesse.

The ramparts of Philipsburg were destroyed by Louis of Bourbon, and the place was taken forty years afterwards by Louis, dauphin of France.^f The castle, formerly inhabited by the sovereign bishop of Spire, is situated in the pleasant town of Bruchsal, which contains a population of six thousand individuals. Durlach, situated in a fertile plain on the Pfinz, is peopled by four thousand inhabitants.

Carlsruhe or Karlsruhe, the capital of the grand dutchy and the chief town of a district, is situated at the height of three hundred and seventy feet above the sea. It is built with much regularity; the streets are straight, all of them terminate in front of the ducal castle, and diverge from each other in the form of a fan. That singular arrangement has a very fine effect when the town is illuminated. The gardens and woods that extend behind the castle, form agreeable public walks, and the residence of the prince must be admired by every one for its elegant yet simple architecture. There are different collections in the town, but the most valuable are the ducal library and museum of the prince. The buildings are finer than in most places of the same size; the Lutheran and Catholic churches are considered the best works of the celebrated architect Weinbrenner. The theatre is a light and elegant building, and if our limits would permit, it might be worth while to describe some of the private houses on account of their architecture. The population of Carlsruhe amounts to sixteen thousand individuals; as it is the residence of the court, it cannot be supposed a place of trade, still however it has been long known for its different articles of luxury, such as jewellery, watches, household furniture and carriages.

Reuchlin, one of the most remarkable men that flourished in the sixteenth century, both for his erudition and his opinions concerning the reformation of Christianity, attempted to prove that Pforzheim, his native town, was founded by Phorcys, the Trojan auxiliary of Priam. Other learned men, who lived during the same period, maintained that the town was formerly called *Orcynheim*, from the name of the vast forest mentioned by Julius Cæsar, and which ancient writers designated the *Sylva Hercynia* or *Orcynia*. It has been affirmed, on the authority of these fanciful etymologies, that the town which the Romans called *Porta Hercynia*, was no other place than Pforzheim.^g Its antiquity may be considered doubtful; indeed it is very probable that it was not known to the ancients. Pforzheim is situated at the foot of the Schwarzwald, and at the confluence of the Enz, the Nagold and the Wurm; its population, according to Hassel, amounts to six thousand five hundred individuals. It contains a house of correction and an orphan hospital; it carries on an important trade in timber.^h

^a The four last are contained in the right wing of the ducal palace.—P.

^b Die sternwarte zu Mannheim beschrieben vom staatsrath Kuber.

^c Founded in 1386.

^d Musée des Protetans célèbres, tom. II. Notice de Renée de France.

^e "440,000 litres."—600 hhd. Ed. Encyc.

^f "The fortifications of Philipsburg are now dismantled; it was taken by Louis of Bourbon [in 1614,] and by Louis, dauphin of France, [in 1688,]" It is not stated in the original that the ramparts were destroyed

by Louis of Bourbon; on the contrary, its fortifications were strengthened by the French, who retained possession of it till 1676. Moreri.—P.

^g "These forced etymologies do not prove, as some have pretended, that this town must have been called *Porta Hercynia* by the Romans."

^h There are twenty-one manufactories of jewellery in Pforzheim, and the value of the goods sold yearly is equal to 600,000 florins. Convers. Lex.—P.

The ruins of a Roman town were discovered between Durlach and Ettlingen in the year 1802; but antiquaries have not yet agreed as to the name of the place.

Rastadt, on the banks of the Murg, owes its celebrity to the congresses that have been held within its walls, and to the massacre of the deputies of the French republic. It contains two thousand four hundred inhabitants. A ducal castle, the principal edifice, may be remarked not only for its romantic site, but for the Turkish trophies, and other collections, which have been placed in it. The trade, which it has long enjoyed, may be considered great in proportion to the number of its inhabitants; its cutlery and snuff-boxes are exported to different parts of Germany.

Baden or Baaden,^a a place about six miles from Rastadt, has derived its name from its mineral springs and its baths, which were well known and frequented in the time of the Romans. The antiquities that have been found in the vicinity, form a valuable collection. The town is peopled by about three thousand inhabitants. None of the buildings can vie with the ancient college of the Jesuits.

A road from Baden to Offenburg passes through the village of Sassbach, where the traveller cannot see without emotion an old and decayed walnut tree, for it was there that Turenne expired on the twenty-seventh of July, 1675. The virtues and military glory of that great man are appreciated by all; they are admired in other countries as much as in France. A detachment of veterans is stationed in the village; to observe their sergeant describe the engagement, and show the cannon ball that put a period to the hero's career, one might imagine that Turenne had died in the last campaigns of Germany.

The small town of Offenburg contains about 3000 inhabitants, and the lands belonging to it are fruitful in vineyards. The population of Lahr or Lohr has much increased of late; it may amount at present to nearly five thousand inhabitants.^b The cause of its prosperity must be ascribed to its trade, which is becoming greater every year. Friburg or Freyburg stands on the banks of the Treisam, at the foot of the mountains of the Black Forest. Peopled by ten thousand five hundred inhabitants, possessing a gymnasium, a university that is still well attended, and different scientific collections, it has been considered one of the most important towns in the grand dutchy. Many of the houses are well built, and the cathedral has been remarked for its architecture and lofty tower, which rises to the height of five hundred feet.

Brisach or Old Brisach, or as the Germans call it, *All-Breisach*, is supposed to have been founded by Drusus; if that opinion be correct, it was probably the ancient capital of the *Brisagavi*, a German tribe, subject to the Alemanni. The fortifications of Brisach were destroyed by Maria Theresa. It contains about two thousand five hundred inhabitants; although watered by the Rhine, it is not a place of much trade.

It may be readily inferred from the nature of the country, which is principally occupied by the mountains of the Black Forest, that few towns of any consequence are situated in the southern part of the grand dutchy. The only two that can be mentioned are Willingen and Constance. But before we pass the chain of the Schwarzwald, it may be stated, that the thermal springs near the small village of Badenweiler^c have been known for nearly two thousand

years. A considerable establishment was founded there by the Romans; the remains of their works are still apparent, occupying an extent of two hundred and twenty feet in length, and eighty in breadth.

Willingen is situated near the confines of Wirtemberg, in a lofty valley on the banks of the Big; it contains a population of three thousand three hundred individuals. Another town, Constance or Konstanz,^d more important than the last place from the number of its inhabitants, and better known from the council that was held within its walls in the year 1451, is situated in the same circle. Constance gives its name to the lake on which it stands. The two most zealous precursors of the reformation, John Huss and Jerome of Prague, were condemned to death by a decree of the council. Indignant at the corruption of the clergy, they chose rather to be burnt alive than to recant their opinions on the necessity of abolishing abuses.

The following remarkable passage for the time, may be found in the treatise on the church, a work written by Huss in the year 1413. "The church may be defined a mystical body, of which the head is Jesus Christ, and the members, the just and the predestined. The latter cannot be separated from the church by an unjust excommunication; *their spirit beareth witness to his spirit that they are the children of God.*"

The sovereign pontiff, the cardinals, the bishops, belong to the body of the church, but the sovereign pontiff is not the head of it. The church would exist, although there were neither pope, cardinals nor bishops. Popes, cardinals, bishops and priests cease to be members of the church by the commission of sin. Whatsoever ye bind on earth, says our Saviour to his apostles, shall be bound in heaven; whatsoever ye loose on earth, shall be loosed in heaven. If the popes, as the successors of the apostles, claim the same power, it can only be exercised through Jesus Christ, for as it requires an infinite power to justify a sinner, it must be the attribute of the divinity. No sins can be remitted, without repentance on the part of the sinner; absolution of itself therefore cannot be sufficient. The faithful, without doubt, owe a reasonable obedience to their bishops; but Christians have a surer guide for their conduct than the word of man; they have the word of God, contained in the Old and New Testaments."

A turret, in the ancient convent of the Franciscans, served as a prison for Huss, who was burnt in the suburbs^e of Constance. Jerome of Prague shared the same fate; as undaunted as his friend; it is said when the executioner endeavoured to kindle the funeral pile behind him, the martyr desired him to set fire to it in front, adding, that had he been afraid of death, he might have escaped from his judges.

Constance, formerly a free and imperial town, is ill peopled in proportion to its size; it contains only four thousand five hundred inhabitants. The streets and houses are well built; the finest edifices are the ducal castle and episcopal palace. Its academy, gymnasium and lyceum are richly endowed. The trade of Constance was formerly more considerable than at present; it consists of wine and grain, linen and wood.

The government of Baden may be commended for its enlightened views, to which the prosperity of the state must in a great measure be attributed. Judicious retrenchments have been proposed and enforced. The public funds are

^a Germ. *Baden*, Du. *Baaden*, Fr. *Bade*.

^b "4,700."

^c "Situated at the foot of Mount Blauen —."

^d Germ. *Costnitz*, *Kostanz* or *Konstanz*.

^e "In the suburb of Bruel."

not wasted in encouraging a spirit of speculation, as fatal to national welfare, as gambling is to individual happiness. But although such projects are always opposed, the administration is not averse to any plan by which the wants of the people may be diminished. An inhabitant of Carlsruhe, animated by that philanthropic zeal which can excite men to good and generous actions, persuaded his townsmen in 1824 to raise a fund for the foundation of a workhouse, where every artisan without employment might find occupation, and every unfortunate person, skilled in any branch of industry, might obtain the means of subsistence.^a The government promoted the accomplishment of the plan, and unless it had done so, the efforts of the inhabitants might have been unavailing. The public authorities have also approved and encouraged the measures taken by a number of wealthy merchants, clergymen and other citizens, to assist and find employment for the poor throughout the country.

Other interests of a more general nature have not escaped the attention of government. By a treaty made in 1824, between the grand duchies of Baden and Hesse, the utmost freedom of trade was established, and consequently with all the states in the confederation.^b The object of the treaty was to extend the commercial intercourse of the two principalities with foreign countries, and to facilitate the circulation of commodities by removing the restraints which shortsighted statesmen have judged necessary for the prosperity of nations. Although the effect of these changes has been to unite the interests of the two grand duchies, similar changes have not been introduced into other countries—still it is no uninteresting spectacle to see these secondary powers set the world an example of that harmony which renders unnecessary expensive revenue establishments on the frontiers and coasts of different countries, establishments that tend only to encourage fraud, and prevent the inhabitants of civilized nations from enjoying the mutual advantages of their industry.

The principalities that remain to be mentioned, are not of much importance; they may be therefore briefly described. According to some genealogists, the family of Hohenzollern has existed for more than a thousand years. But so many families in Germany claim a like antiquity, that their ancient origin excites neither interest nor surprise. The filiation of the family may be traced from Frederick Count of Hohenzollern, who flourished in the thirteenth century. The same house was afterwards divided into two branches,^c and their possessions were erected into principalities during the seventeenth century at the diet of Ratisbon. The two families are distinguished by the names of the towns in which they reside—Hechingen and Sigmaringen. Their territories are surrounded by the kingdom of Wirtemberg and the grand duchy of Baden.

The principality of Hohenzollern-Hechingen may be about sixty-four square miles in superficial extent;^d the population amounts to fifteen thousand inhabitants, almost all of whom are Catholics. The country abounds with sandstone, and calcareous rocks containing organic re-

mains. It is traversed by a part of the chain that extends from the Black Forest to the eastern extremity of Wirtemberg. The Zollerberg, one of the highest summits, is not more than 2600 feet^e above the level of the sea. The most of the heights are covered with trees. The revenues of the state are equal to 120,000 florins, and the contingent for the confederation amounts to a hundred and forty-five men.

Hechingen, the capital, is situated on a hill, the base of which is watered by the Starzel; it contains about 2600 inhabitants. The old castle of Hohenzollern rises on one of the heights in the neighbourhood. It was built in the fifteenth century on the site of the one which was destroyed by Henrietta, countess of Wirtemberg and Montbelliard. The building was founded with much pomp and solemnity; Nicholas,^f count of Hohenzollern, Philip, duke of Burgundy, Albert, elector of Brandenburg, Charles, margrave of Baden, and Albert, duke of Austria, carried silver trowels and hammers, and laid the foundation stone in 1460. A valuable collection of armour may still be seen in one of the halls.

Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen lies to the south of the last principality; its surface and population are greater; Crome makes out the former to be equal to three hundred and twelve English square miles, and Hassel supposes the latter equal to thirty-eight thousand inhabitants.^g The soil belongs to what German geologists have termed the secondary and tertiary formations. The country for the most part is unfruitful, but some of the vallies yield rich harvests. The revenues amount to 300,000 florins, and the prince furnishes a contingent of 370 men to the confederation.

Although Sigmaringen^h on the Danube is the residence of the prince, it contains only eight hundred inhabitants. Haigerloch, the only town in the principality, for all the other places are burghs or villages, stands on a hill, at the foot of which flows the Eyach. The population amounts to 2000 individuals.

Lichtenstein,ⁱ one of the smallest principalities in Germany, does not contain more than five thousand eight hundred persons, who inhabit a surface of thirty-six square miles.^k The revenue does not exceed 50,000 florins,^l and the state furnishes a contingent of fifty-five men. It is situated on the banks of the Rhine, at the distance of nearly fifteen miles^m from the lake of Constance. The house of Lichtenstein is descended from Azo IV. of Este, who died in the year 1037. It possessed seventy-three seignories during the succeeding centuries;ⁿ and it still possesses under the sovereignty of Austria and Prussia two considerable principalities, those of Troppau and Jägemdorf, together with other territories in Silesia and Austria, of which the total population is not less than 324,000 inhabitants, and of which the revenues amount to 1,500,000 florins.^o The prince is thus enabled to maintain the rank of his ancient family.^p

Vadutz, a burgh on the banks of the Rhine, contains seven hundred souls. The castle of Lichtenstein, where the prince resides, rises in its immediate vicinity.

^a M. Sommelatt was the founder of this excellent institution. See his memoir, entitled *Einladung an alle menschenfreunde und patrioten Badens.*

^b Extra Beylage zu No. 258 der Carlsruher-Zeitung.

^c In the 16th century.

^d 2620 (Hassel.)

^e "Its surface, according to Crome, is equal to 52 square leagues, and its population, according to Hassel, to 38,000 souls. The inhabitants profess the Catholic religion."

^f "Superficial extent 14 leagues."

^g "Josse Nicolas"—died 1488.

^h Germ. *Sigmaringen.*

ⁱ Lichtenstein, M. B. Hassel.

^k "6 square leagues."

^l Revenue hardly 30,000 gulden. (Hassel.)

^m "5 leagues south of the lake of Constance."

ⁿ Mich. Reinhard, *Breviarium Hist. Licht.*

^o Stein's *Geography*, (in Germ.)

^p "The prince, as well as his subjects, are Catholics."

BOOK CXXIII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Germany.—Seventh Section.—Kingdom of Bavaria.

THE ancient dutchy of Bavaria, one of the largest of the German principalities, was the one, according to Hassel, that maintained the most numerous army. Having since been erected into a kingdom, it obtained by the last treaties additional territory, but the inhabitants have derived more important advantages from an enlightened and economical government. It is bounded by the kingdom of Saxony, ducal Saxony, and electoral Hesse, on the north; by the grand dutchies of Hesse and Baden, and by the kingdom of Wirtemberg, on the west; and by the states of the Austrian empire on the south and east. The superficial extent of the territory on the east of the Rhine is reckoned equal to 1359 German geographical square miles, or not less than 22,662 English square miles,^a but if the recent additions on the left bank of the Rhine be included, it will amount to 1499 German or 25,002 English square miles.^b Adhering to the same plan that was followed in the account of Prussia, the whole territory between Austria and Wirtemberg, shall be considered as forming the kingdom of Bavaria proper; after having made some remarks on its physical geography, and entered into the statistical details connected with it, we shall proceed to examine separately the Bavarian province on the banks of the Rhine.

Bavaria proper comprehends almost the whole country enclosed by the Rauhe-Alb and the Spessart on the west, by the Rhœne-Gebirge, the Thuringer-Wald, the Franken-Wald and the Fichtel-Gebirge on the north, by the Bœhmer-Wald on the east, and by different heights connected with the Alps on the south. That extensive region is naturally divided into two parts or basins; the Regnitz waters the first or the northern which forms the basin of the Maine. The mountains which enclose it on the south, consist of two chains or branches that extend from the place where the Regnitz rises; the one, or the Frank-Hœhe, bends to the right, and unites with the Fichtel-Gebirge; the other, or the Steiger-Wald, reaches nearly to the chain of the Spessart, from which it is only separated by the course of the Maine. The principal declivity of the basin is from south to north, and the Regnitz follows the same direction, before it unites with the Maine. The southern basin or the larger of the two is traversed by the Danube, and is formed by the Frank-Hœhe and Steiger-Wald and the other

mountains that have been already mentioned. The heights that rise on the north of the river are much less important than those on the south, and consequently the streams it receives on the left, are by no means so large as the feeders that enter on the right or opposite bank. The three largest rivers on the left side are the Altmühl, which descends from the Steiger-Wald, the Nab, which flows from the Fichtel-Gebirge, and the Regen, which has its source in the Bœhmer-Wald. The rivers, like the mountains on the right bank, are more important; the largest are the Iller, the Lech, the Isar or Iser, and the Inn, all of which have their sources in the Alps. The principal declivity in the basin inclines to the north-east; the different ramifications of the mountains enclose wide vallies or low and humid plains. The most extensive of these plains, or the one between Ratisbon and Osterhofen, is about forty-five miles^c in length, and nearly as many in breadth.

Thus, the basin of the Danube marks distinctly the separation of two great mountain ranges, that of the Alps on the south of the river, and that of the Hercynio-Carpathian mountains on the north; a separation which we have already had occasion to observe in the chapter on the physical geography of Europe.^d It is unnecessary to mention a second time the height of the Alpine summits, which, like the Watzmann and the Hochvogel, rise above the mountains in the south of Bavaria;^e but it may be remarked that the Bœhmer-Wald and the Fichtel-Gebirge on the eastern limits, vary in height from three thousand to upwards of five thousand feet.^f

The general arrangement of these mountains has been described in a former book;^g but it may be requisite to give a more minute account of the Spessart, Rhœne-Gebirge and Bœhmer-Wald in order to complete the physical geography of Bavaria.

The chain of the Spessart commences on the banks of the Maine, at the place where the course of the river separates it from the chain of the Oden-Wald. The extremity nearest to the Maine bears the name of Engelsberg; it extends to the north, giving off branches to the south-west and south-east, and joins the Rhœne-Gebirge; different streams, most of which are tributary to the Maine, descend from these heights. The mean elevation of the chain is about thirteen hundred and thirty-six feet; some of the mountains, however, are considerably higher; the Hohe-

^a "3,778 leagues."

^b "4,167 leagues."—The English sq. miles in both these instances, are obtained by multiplying the French leagues by six, and are of course much too small. Present superficial extent 32,000 sq. miles. (*Morse.*)—P.

^c "15 leagues."

^d Book XCIV.

^e See the Table of Altitudes, Book XCIV.

^f As these mountains have not been mentioned in the general table of

altitudes, the heights of the loftiest summits may be now stated. We adhere to the measurements of Hassel.

Hohe-Staufen near Reichenhall,	5,408 feet.
Grunten near Southofen,	4,160
Ochsenkopf or Ox's Head (Fichtel-Gebirge)	3,394
Kassein, (idem)	3,060

^g Book CXVI.

Wart rises to the height of two thousand feet, and the Geyersberg, the loftiest in the range, to two thousand and eighty.^a

Volcanic rocks are observed in the Spessart, but the most frequent are granite, gneiss, sienite and porphyry, which serve as a support for sandstone, limestone and beds of clay. Veins of copper, cobalt, lead and iron are found in the primitive, but oftener in the secondary rocks. As to the form of the mountains, the most of them are rounded, and their gentle declivities extend to a considerable distance; it is only in the neighbourhood of Aschaffenburg, that the stranger observes steep rocks and pyramidal summits.^b

The Rhœne-Gebirge is more extensive than the Spessart; it unites on the west with the chain of the Vogelsberg, and on the east with that of the Thuringer-Wald. Its mean elevation exceeds that of the Spessart, and it furnishes two feeders to the Maine,—the Sinn and the Saale. Granite rocks rise at the western extremity, on the declivities of which lie rocks of secondary limestone, and above these various deposits of basalt.

The Fichtel-Gebirge, which connects the Rhœne mountains with the Bœhmer-Wald, consists chiefly of granite; the highest point in the range is the summit of the Ochsenkopf. Two small rivers descend from the Fichtel-Gebirge, to form the Maine; the inhabitants call one of these streams the White Main; the other, or the Red Main, flows to it from the south. The bed of the former at Culmbach has been found to be a hundred and thirty-six feet higher than the bed of the latter at Bayreuth. The declivity in the basin of the Maine from east to west is considerable; from Bayreuth to Wurtzburg, a distance of nearly sixty miles,^c it is upwards of six hundred feet.^d

The chain of the Bœhmer-Wald joins the Fichtel-Gebirge; it commenced at the sources of the Eger, and terminates at the Moravian mountains, which shall afterwards be more fully mentioned. The Bœhmer-Wald may be about two hundred miles in length; its breadth on the north-west may vary from fifteen to twenty near the centre, and from twenty-four to more than thirty on the south.^e It rises gradually from the northern extremity to the neighbourhood of Waldmunchen; the highest point is situated near Swiesel, and the chain becomes gradually lower, until it unites with the Moravian mountains. The most elevated summits are the Arber, the Rachel and the Dreysel.^f The range is very steep on the side of Bavaria, but much less so towards Bohemia. Several branches extend from it into the former country, the most important of which are the Greiner-Wald and the Bayer-Wald; the first rises near Waldmunchen, and the Regen, a feeder of the Danube, flows along its southern declivities; the second reaches from Mount Rachel to the neighbourhood of Ratisbon, and separates the course of the Danube from that of the Regen. The last is not the only river that has its source in the

Bœhmer-Wald, and follows the declivities in the basin of the Danube. Several of the streams which form the Nab, flow from the same range and that of the Fichtel-Gebirge, and the Ilz rises from the base of mount Rachel. The basis of the Bœhmer-Wald is composed of granite, which supports masses of gneiss and micaceous schistus. One may observe on these heights deep cavities and numerous marshes; the naked summits resemble needles or pyramids, and the forests that stretch along the declivities afford shelter to the lynx and the bear.

Two distinct geological formations are separated in Bavaria by the course of the Danube. The country on the north of the river, including the basin of the Regnitz and the Maine, is of secondary formation, comprehending oolitic limestone, muschel-kalk, zechstein and other analogous rocks, as well as variegated sandstone, quadersandstein and other quartzose deposits. Vast tertiary deposits extend on the south of the river, from the lake of Constance to the confluence of the Inn and the Danube; they rest on rocks of earlier formation, which are supported by the granite that belongs to the chain of the Alps.

The alluvial lands on the north of the river are of an earlier formation than those in southern Bavaria; geologists have discovered in them the bones of the animals that inhabited our planet at a time when its climate and productions rendered it unfit for the residence of man. Fossil bones of the tapir and rhinoceros have been found in the valley of the Regen, crocodiles have been discovered in the calcareous schistus in the valley of the Altmühl, and the remains of elephants, which must have been much larger than any that exist at present,^h have been collected near Schweinfurt and Arnstein in the valley of the Maine. Some caverns in the Steiger-Wald are filled with the bones of lions and hyenas; the remains of animals now wholly extinct may be observed in other places; in short, it is difficult to mention a more interesting country than Bavaria to those who are engaged in the most attractive department of natural history.

The highest and most southern portion of Bavaria is exposed to the influence of the Alps. The lakes are numerous, and some of them are large; thus, besides the lake of Constance, a very small part of which is situated in the kingdom, eight others of considerable extent might be mentioned. The largest are the Ammer, the Würm and the Chiem. A river of the same name issues from the first, and throws itself into the Isar. The Alza, a feeder of the Inn, flows from the Chiem. The others that may be enumerated, are the Staffel, the Kochen, the Walchen, the Tegern and the Bartholomæus or royal lake. These lakes, and many more of a smaller size, are not without their value to the inhabitants; several fisheries have been established on them, and a lucrative branch of industry has thus been produced.ⁱ

The most frequented mineral springs in Bavaria are those of Sichertersreuth^k in the picturesque country of the

^a "Mean height about 400 metres—Hohe-Wart 600 metres—Geyersberg 624 metres."

^b See the topographical essay on the Spessart by M. Behlen, (in Germ.)

^c "Nearly 30 leagues."

^d See the Astronomical and Geographical Correspondence of Baron Von Zach, vol. XIII.

^e "Length 85 leagues; breadth on the northwest 6 leagues, in the centre 8 leagues, on the south 13 leagues."

^f The last mountain is about two thousand eight hundred and eighty-four feet above the level of the sea. [Height 449 toises, or 2694 feet Fr.—M. B.]

^g Dreissessel, height 2798 feet. (Hassel.)

^h "13 or 14 feet high."

ⁱ The following, according to the most authentic maps, are the dimensions of these lakes:—

	Length.		Mean Breadth.	
	Eng. Miles.—Tr.	Fr. leagues.	Eng. Miles.—Tr.	Fr. leagues.
Ammer . . .	10	4	2½	1
Würm . . .	11½	4½	2½	1
Chiem . . .	9	3½	3½	1½
Staffel . . .	4	1½	1½	½
Kochen . . .	4	1½	2½	1
Walchen . . .	5	2	2½	1
Tegern . . .	4	1½	1½	½
Bartholomæus . . .	4	1½	1½	½

^k Or Alexandersbrunnen. (Hassel.)

Fichtel-Gebirge, the baths of Kissingen situated in a valley watered by the Saale, about thirty-two miles north from Wurtzburg, the acidulous and ferruginous springs of Bocklet and Brückenau, in the same part of the country, and those of Hardeck in the southern part of the kingdom, from which Munich is supplied with mineral water.

The climate on the whole is temperate and salubrious; the elevation of the soil, and the neighbourhood of the mountains occasion however considerable modifications in the temperature. The air is keen in the countries to the south of the Danube, the winters too are long and severe; but that region is the highest of any in Bavaria, and the most exposed to the influence of the eternal glaciers on the Alps. The prevalence of the north-east winds renders the climate cold and dry throughout the Böhmer-Wald. Much rain falls in many places during the spring, and the heat of summer is sometimes excessive in vallies having a south exposure. The autumn, in general, is the finest season in the year.

Before we make any remarks on the natural productions, agricultural wealth and commerce of Bavaria, it may be proper to give some account of the ancient people, who occupied the country. It was formerly inhabited by two nations that were separated from each other by the Danube. The *Hermunduri* possessed the lands on the north of the river, and the country on the south was peopled by the *Vindelici*. The *Narisci*, a people less important than either of the two former, were settled in the country that extends from the declivities of the Böhmer-Wald or Bohemian forest^a to the banks of the Danube, and from the mouth of the Nab to that of the Ilz.

The *Hermunduri*, according to Tacitus, adored Mars and Mercury; they were often engaged in contests and bloody wars with the *Catti*, their northern neighbours. Their enemies were devoted to the gods, and if they proved victorious, all the vanquished, men and horses, were slaughtered without remorse.^b The same people yielded however to the arms of the Romans, and became their most faithful allies. Thus they were the only German people that were permitted to travel freely through the neighbouring colonies. While, continues the historian, other nations are only allowed to see our arms and camps, our town and country houses are open to the *Hermunduri*.^c

The *Narisci*, who, according to Tacitus, inhabited a country in the neighbourhood of the last people, were not inferior to them in bravery and courage.^d The ancients have left us but little information relative to the *Narisci*; nothing remarkable concerning them is mentioned by Ptolemy or Dion Cassius; it may however be observed that the first of these writers calls them the *Varisti*, and the second the *Narista*.

The *Vindelici* were scattered over the country which extends from the lake of Constance to the confluence of the Inn and the Danube; the last river served them for a boundary. According to D'Anville,^e the *Vindelici* were so called from two rivers, the *Vindo* or the modern Wertach, and the *Licus* or the modern Lech. As they were settled on the banks of these rivers from the remotest antiquity, such an etymology does not appear improbable. The *Vindelici* were subdued by the Romans, who, after their subju-

gation, called the country *Vindelicia*; it was at a later period joined to *Rhætia* (*provincia Rhætia*), where several Roman colonies were settled.

The most important of these settlements appears to have been the *Augusta Vindelicorum* or the present Augsburg, which according to different documents formed *Oppidum Augusti*, or the town of Augustus.^f *Cambodunum*,^g another place of some consequence, was probably built on the site of Kempten. Ratisbon on the Danube, the German Regensburg, was the ancient *Regina*, a name derived from the Regen, opposite the mouth of which it is situated. Passau was the former *Batava Castra*, and Neu-Oetting near Muhlendorf seems to have been the *Pons Æni*, an opinion confirmed by the remains of a Roman way situated in the neighbourhood.

Bavaria is the most ancient duchy in Germany; it has retained its name, title, and even part of its constitution, since the fifth century. The Germans call it *Bayern*, a name which has probably some connexion with that of the *Boii*, an ancient people, who were driven into Bohemia by the Romans, and who left that country about the middle of the fifth century along with the barbarians that have been denominated Ostrogoths.

Aldiger or Aldeger is believed to have been the first chief or duke of the Bavarians; he formed the design in common with other German princes, of accompanying Clovis, and sharing his conquests; but after the victory at Tolbiac, Clovis confined the Germans within their former limits, and compelled the Bavarians and their chief to acknowledge his authority. To diminish the chances of a successful revolt, a colony of Franks was settled in that part of Germany, which has since been called Franconia, and the dukes of Bavaria were made tributary to its sovereigns. The Bavarians began to embrace Christianity in the time of Theudo the Third, the grandson of Aldiger; in the sixth century, after the vast monarchy of the Franks was divided, they submitted to the kings of Austrasia.

The weakness of the last Merovingian kings enabled the Bavarians to shake off the yoke; the country retained its freedom until about the year 786, but at that period, Thassilo, a Bavarian duke of the Agilolfingian family, excited a rebellion in different parts of Germany, which was not quelled until Charlemagne marched against him, and forced him to acknowledge his sovereignty. Thassilo having revolted a second time in the following year, was cited before the diet at Ingelheim, accused of high treason, and condemned to death. But his punishment was commuted by Charlemagne, who deprived him of his dominions, and confined him first in the abbey of Lauresheim, and afterwards in the monastery of Jumiege. Thassilo, although a weak prince, became an excellent monk, and died with a great reputation for sanctity.

Charlemagne having made himself master of Bavaria, divided it into several counties, and appointed rulers and princes over them. The government of the same country was again changed after the division of the monarchy between the sons of Lewis I.;^h it fell, with all Germany, to the lot of Lewis the German, who chose Ratisbon for the place of his residence. The dominions of Lewis were

^a *Sylva Gabrita*, Ptolem. lib. II. cap. II. Strabo calls the same forest *Sylva Gabreta*.

^b Tacitus, *Annal.* lib. XIII. sect. 57.

^c Tacitus, *De Moribus Germanorum*, sect. 42.

^d Tacitus, *De Moribus Germanorum*, sect. 41.

^e *Géographie ancienne*, tom. I. p. 47.

^f "— which in commercial transactions is still designated by the name of *Auguste*." (*Ital. Augusta*.)

^g *Campodunum*, Strabo.

^h Louis the Debonnaire.

divided among his children, and Carloman became king of Bavaria. Arnold,^a the natural son of Carloman, succeeded his father, and was elected king of Germany.

Luitpold or Leopold was probably the first who was named Margrave of the country by the German kings in the ninth century. The dignity of count or duke of Bavaria was not hereditary, the emperors conferred it on different princes until the thirteenth century; at that time Lewis the Old, of the house of Wittelsbach, duke of Lower Bavaria, and count palatine of the Rhine, left two sons, Rudolph and Lewis, who were the founders of the Palatine or Rodolphine, and the Bavarian or Ludovician families. The lineal descendants of the Ludovician branch, retained the duchy of Bavaria, which was raised into an electorate in 1618, till it became extinct in the year 1777, and a collateral descendant of the palatine family^b is at present seated on the throne of Bavaria.^c

The soil in the higher parts of the kingdom, is of an ordinary quality, but the low plains and vallies are very productive. The soil in the northern districts is for the most part light; in the south it is heavy and fruitful. The Bavarian government is desirous of encouraging agriculture, but it will be necessary in the first place to overcome the ignorance and indolent habits of the peasantry, which are obstacles to every sort of improvement.

Nearly a third part of the territory on the Isar, the lower Danube and the Regen, is still uncultivated; within the last few years, marshes have been drained at the expense of government, and waste lands have been rendered arable. But as these operations are attended with a considerable outlay of capital, their accomplishment is retarded, although their utility has been always admitted. The differences, which are obvious in the productiveness of the same sort of land in a country under the same government, can only be attributed to the knowledge or ignorance of the agriculturists. A more improved system of cultivation than any other in Bavaria, may be observed in the circles of the Rezat, the upper Danube, and the upper and lower Maine; in the same circles too, the harvests are the most abundant. The produce, it must be confessed, is not so great as in lower Saxony and Flanders; still the inhabitants are industrious and not ignorant of their true interests. The above mentioned circles are the wealthiest in Bavaria, and the rich harvests that are reaped in them compensate in some degree for the deficiency in other parts of the country.

The circles of the upper and lower Maine, yield not only different kinds of grain, but wine and fruits. Agriculture, which was formerly neglected in the mountains of the Spessart, has made great advances of late years. Potatoes and bread form the principal food of the inhabitants. The harvests in some other districts, as well as on these mountains, hardly suffice for the annual consumption; it ought, however, to be mentioned, that government makes use of every means by which knowledge can be diffused among the people, and the Bavarians may ere long be sensible that the elements of their prosperity depend on the cultivation of their country.

The rearing of cattle forms, after agriculture, the principal source of territorial wealth; the meadows that extend along the banks of the rivers are well adapted for this pur-

pose. It may be remarked, that in those districts, where agriculture has arrived at a certain degree of perfection, care has been taken to improve the different breeds. Thus it appears that one branch of industry cannot be established without creating another. The plan of artificial irrigation practised with so much success, not only in the circle of the Rezat, but in those of the upper and lower Maine, has produced verdant and luxuriant meadows, in which numerous flocks and herds are fattened. It must be admitted that the breed of cattle might be still much improved, for it is obvious that little attention has hitherto been bestowed by the Bavarians on the form and proportions of these animals. If the oxen on the declivities of the Alps rival in symmetry any in the Swiss Cantons, it is equally true that the produce of the dairy and the rearing of cattle make up the chief wealth of the people in the elevated country that extends to the south of Munich. Many goats are fed in the same districts and in most of the mountains which bound the kingdom. The hog is fattened in almost every part of Bavaria, and in many places, the flesh of that animal forms the principal sustenance of the people.

The remarks that have been made concerning the Bavarian oxen, are much more applicable to the horses; the inhabitants appear to have been still less successful in improving the breed of that useful animal. The number of horses was considerably diminished during the last wars, and it has not been sufficiently increased since the peace. Although horses are seldom used for agricultural purposes, it must nevertheless be confessed that the government, by neglecting to multiply and improve them, renders itself, in the event of a war, dependent on foreign powers.

The landed proprietors pay great attention to their sheep; the native breed has been crossed with the Merinos, and other experiments have been conducted with much sagacity and corresponding success. If there be a greater demand for the cloth and woollen manufactures of Bavaria, it must be attributed to these causes.

The peasants in some districts have found the management of bees a very profitable employment, but that branch of rural economy was formerly more flourishing than at present, although the use of wax has now become more common. The circles of the Rezat and the upper Danube are most favourable for bees.

It may, on the whole, be concluded that the Bavarians have been surpassed by the inhabitants of other countries in two important branches of rural industry, in rearing cattle and other domestic animals, and in their method of husbandry. But it is rather to the quality than the quantity of live stock that their attention ought to be directed, for it appears from a statistical work published a few years ago, that the proportion of cattle to surface was as one for every five acres (*arpens*) of land. What has been stated concerning the system of agriculture may now be repeated; in both cases the ignorance and even superstition of the country people are the principal obstacles to improvement. So long as the peasants and farmers, neglecting the best means of curing or arresting the progress of contagious disorders among the lower animals, lead their diseased cattle to distant pilgrimages, it is vain to expect any amendment in whatever appertains to rural economy.^d

^a Arnoult (M. B.) Arnoul (Moreri. Beauvais.) Arnulph (Conv. Lex.)

^b Of the house of Birkenfeld.

^c Historisch-Statistische Uebersicht sämmtlicher Provinzen und Bestandtheile des Königreichs Baiern, by J. Marx, baron of Liechtenstern.

^d More than eighteen thousand landed proprietors, farmers and pea-

sants,* went on a pilgrimage with their cattle to Griesbach in 1820, and nearly thirty thousand performed the same journey in the following year. See the work entitled: Ueber den Zustand des Königreichs Baiern, by M. Rudhart, director of the government of Ratisbon, 1825.

* "More than 18,000 cultivateurs."

The art of gardening has made some advances of late years, at least a considerable portion of ground has been laid out in nurseries and flower gardens; but it ought not to be inferred that horticulture has arrived at the same degree of perfection which it has attained in other countries. The culture of vegetables and culinary plants is principally confined to the neighbourhood of large towns.

It has already been observed that the vine is cultivated in the circles of the Rezat and the lower Maine. The wines of Franconia are produced in the latter circle, and the best vineyards are those on the Leiste and the Steinberg, and those in the vicinity of Saleck and Wurtzburg. The wines next to them in repute are those of Calmuth, Eiweilstadt, Sommerach and Eschendorf, and also those produced from the vineyards on the lake of Constance. It may be remarked that the culture of the vine is well understood in Bavaria.

The woods and forests are committed to the Bavarian government, and the care^a of them furnishes employment to several thousand individuals. The most ordinary trees are the oak and the beech; the first grows luxuriantly, and the second which is much more common, reaches in some places to the height of more than a hundred feet. The birch, the ash and several coniferous trees have been planted. The most extensive forests in Bavaria are those situated on the Spessart and the Rhœne-Gebirge, those of Zwiesler, Mitten, Kulwald, Retzer and Lorenz, and those in the neighbourhood of Kempten. Their superficial extent has been estimated at five millions six hundred and fifty-nine thousand acres (*arpens*.) It is calculated that they occupy a twenty-ninth part of all the land in the kingdom, which gives the proportion of nearly eight acres (*arpens*) for every family.^b

The ignorance of the country people is not the only obstacle to the measures contemplated by government for advancing the welfare of the landed interest. The plans proposed by government have been counteracted by different feudal institutions, tithes, baronial rights, the privilege of hunting, and different services exacted from the peasantry. These and other customs equally antiquated, have hitherto been maintained by those who profit by them. It is in vain that every man has been permitted by a recent law to use his property as he pleases; so long as feudal burdens continue, so long as the greater portion of the inhabitants are degraded by servile duties, land must be almost an illusory possession. The freedom of agriculture has been proclaimed in vain; if the woods are under the management of persons appointed by the government, if the culture of the vine is subject to regulations that emanate from the same quarter, if the nobles are permitted to examine whether the lands of the other proprietors are well or ill cultivated, and to propose alterations, agriculture will continue in its infancy.

Many changes must be introduced before the country can be improved; the land must be more equally divided; the waste lands, and part of the forests, which are too extensive, must be freely granted to those who undertake to bring them into cultivation; nay, the new proprietors must be exempt from every tax and contribution for a greater or

less period according to circumstances, and even premiums should be granted them for their encouragement. Such of the pastures as are too poor to be of much use in fattening cattle, should be improved by cultivation. The right of pasturing on the property of others, or of passage over it, should be abolished. The inhabitants should be encouraged to provide the best sort of food for their cattle, and to prevent them from being exposed day and night to the inclemency of the weather. The woods in the fertile meadows which are suffered to remain only because they serve to shelter game, should be removed. The legislature should not fix the *minimum* of landed property that a man can possess, nor hinder any one from building a house on his land, if it does not amount to a certain number of acres. It is obvious that until these reforms shall be introduced, the country can never be in such a state of prosperity as it might be expected to attain, considering the nature of the soil and the industry of the inhabitants.^c

Many quarries, containing different kinds of stone,^d are worked in the country; there are also mines of coal, lead and copper; but all these minerals are of little value, if compared with the products of the salt works and iron mines. The most abundant saline springs are those situated in the circle of the Isar, and those of Reichenhall, Traunstein and Rosenheim; they yield annually about four hundred thousand quintals of salt; the mine at Berchtesgaden furnishes more than a hundred and fifty thousand, another at Orb twenty-four thousand, and a third at Kissingen, sixteen thousand; but in order to supply the wants of the population, government, in consequence of a special treaty, receives every year from Hall two hundred and sixty thousand quintals of salt, which, after the necessary process of purification, is reduced to a hundred and ninety thousand.

The iron mines in the territory of Amberg yield from forty to fifty thousand quintals, those in the circle of the Upper Maine from eighty to ninety thousand, those in the circle of the Isar near the heights of Kressen, about a hundred and twenty thousand, and those in the other parts of the country about twenty thousand; so that the whole produce throughout the kingdom amounts to nearly three hundred thousand quintals.^e The circle of the Upper Maine is the only one in Bavaria proper in which coal is worked, but the quantity obtained does not exceed 35,000 quintals, or not much more than a third of what is extracted in the circle of the Rhine.^f

The different branches of manufacturing industry are in a still less advanced state than agriculture; there are however sixteen iron works, several manufactories of iron wire, and two of fire arms. The moderate degree of perfection to which some of the arts have attained, has been partly the effect of rewards and encouragements given by government. Coarse linen can only be manufactured in the country; all the fine linens are imported. The same may be said of woollen stuffs and different kinds of cloth, which form a considerable branch of importation. Cotton goods and hosiery are manufactured in different parts of Bavaria for home consumption.^g

It may be allowed that in some articles, the Bavarians

^a "Exploitation"—preparation for use or sale.

^b See the work of M. Rudhart:—*Ueber den Zustand des Koenigreichs Baiern*.

^c See the letter addressed to the provincial states in 1822, on the proposed law relative to agriculture, by M. Hazziz, counsellor of state, (in German.)

^d "Millstones and whetstones."

^e 316,400 quintals (*centnern*.) Hassel.

^f Coal in the circle of the Rhine, 85,000 quintals; in that of the Upper Maine, 33,000. (Hassel.)

^g The linens, woollens, cottons and hosiery, manufactured in Bavaria, are principally consumed in the country. (Hassel.)—P.

have acquired a decided superiority over their neighbours; thus the different kinds of leather which they manufacture, are exported, and Saxony is partly supplied with paper from the same country. The musical, surgical and mathematical instruments made at Munich, are sold in many parts of Germany, and the playing cards of Nuremberg are exported into different countries in Europe and America. The glass, porcelain and earthen works in the kingdom, suffice for the supply of the inhabitants. The cambric and lace manufactures are too insignificant to require notice. It ought to be mentioned that the administration, anxious to correct gradually all the abuses connected with the ancient government, encouraged industry by abolishing in 1827 the offices of wardens and masters in the different corporations.

It follows from what has been already said, that the commerce of Bavaria cannot be very important. Fortunately for the country, its situation enables the inhabitants to communicate with different states, and by this means puts them in possession of a considerable carrying trade.

There is only one navigable canal in the kingdom, which opens a communication between the Rhine and the valley of Franconia. Another canal, which was begun by Charlemagne, in order to connect the Rhine and the Danube, and which has since been recommenced at different times, is not likely to be ever finished.^a Commercial transactions are facilitated by the course of the principal rivers, such as the Danube, the Rhine, the Maine, the Regnitz, the Inn and the Salzach, by numerous and well kept roads, that extended in 1812 more than a thousand and eighty German miles, or nearly four thousand three hundred and ten English miles,^b and lastly by the posts, which although expensive, are very expeditious.

The corn trade was in a flourishing state a few years ago; it has since been destroyed by the restrictions imposed on it by government. It may excite surprise that so few statesmen are acquainted with the most elementary truths of political economy. It is not wonderful that the vulgar confound corn merchants with forestallers, eager only to occasion famine or to enrich themselves at the expense of the people, but it is painful to confess that the same prejudices are common to them with men called to the government of kingdoms. It might almost be inferred that Smith, Say, Condillac and other great economists, had written in vain, if such men are ignorant that products of every kind belong to commerce, and that commerce must be free in order to be advantageous to the community.

The Bavarian ministers have at last begun to encourage inland navigation, and vessels constructed at the expense of the state, now sail on the Danube; the example of government will without doubt be imitated by capitalists; the Isar and the Maine covered with vessels of the same sort, or with steam boats, will one day facilitate the transportation of agricultural products, which under a better system must form the principal wealth of the country.^c

Less accurate information has been obtained concerning the population of Bavaria, than of any other state in Germany; a census however was made in 1822, and according to it, the number of inhabitants amounted to 3,566,300. Hassel cannot be supposed to have been ignorant of that

census; still in his statistical tables of the same year, he estimates the population at 3,630,800.^d An author, well known for his accuracy, has concluded from new data and other calculations that the number in 1827 was equal to 3,940,000.^e If these different results be correct, the population in Bavaria must have increased in a very rapid progression, for the difference in five years exceeds 350,000 individuals. The inhabitants in the circle of the Rhine are included in the numbers that have been now stated; but the population of Bavaria proper amounted probably in 1827 to 3,510,000 individuals, and at least four fifths of them were catholics.

The tables at the end of this book are so full as to render further details unnecessary: one observation may however be made, and it is that no civil restrictions on account of religion are imposed on the people in Bavaria. Catholics, Lutherans and Calvinists enjoy the same rights; government never interferes in questions connected with the forms of worship or the religious opinions of the different sects. According to the last concordate, the kingdom is divided into two archbishoprics, the one at Munich, the other at Bamberg, and into six bishoprics, those of Passau, Ratisbon and Augsburg, and the suffragan bishoprics of Eichstedt, Wurtzburg and Speyer. The protestants acknowledge the general consistory at Munich as their highest ecclesiastical court; and the Israelites are under the authority of their rabbis, whose nomination must be approved by government.

The Bavarians have retained some characteristic traits of the different people from whom they are descended. The inhabitants of ancient Swabia are sober, but ignorant and superstitious; the Franks or the people of ancient Franconia, are lively, cunning and enterprising; the Bavarians proper, sprung from a mixture of the *Vindelici* and the *Bœii*, are grave, loyal, faithful to their engagements, constant in their affections, attached to the ceremonies rather than the duties of religion, and ready to make any sacrifice for their country, if the priest commands it in the name of the Divinity.

The state of society is not so unexceptionable as might be imagined; the vices in the great towns are but too evident, and they may be easily accounted for; but the number of natural children in the country and even in the mountainous districts, announces a degree of corruption, that may perhaps be chiefly attributed to the ignorance of the inhabitants.

Government, convinced of that important truth, has at length made some attempts to provide for the instruction of the people. An elementary school has been established in every parish; the time may come when there will be one in every village, and when even the inhabitants of the hamlets may participate in the benefits of education. The higher orders of society possess greater advantages in this respect; lycæums, colleges and universities have been established in several towns, but their number is not sufficient for the wants of the middling classes, which in Bavaria may rank among the most enlightened of Europe.

What has been said of the character and education of the Bavarians, leads us naturally to consider their constitution, for it is found that knowledge may be most easily dif-

too small for the common German mile of 15 to a degree. It should be nearly 5000.—P.

^c Wochenblatt des Landwirthschaft. Vereins in Baiern, 1823.

^d Statistischer Umriss der sämtlichen Europäischen Staaten, 1823.

^e M. A. Balbi, Balance politique du globe.

^a It is not stated in the original that it has ever been recommenced. "Scarcely a trace exists of the canal dug by Charlemagne, in order to connect the Rhine and the Danube." (Hassel.)—P.

^b "1793 leagues."—The extent in English miles in the translation, is

fused among the people under constitutional governments. According to the constitutional act passed on the twenty-sixth of May, 1818, Bavaria forms an indivisible kingdom; the domains of the state cannot be alienated, the crown is hereditary, and the person of the king inviolable. There is no civil list,^a the king determines the expenses of his household,^b and the princes receive for their appanage a sum that has not hitherto exceeded 150,000 florins. The revenue of the queen mother has been fixed at two hundred thousand, and each princess receives a hundred thousand for her dowry.

The general assembly of the states consists of two chambers. The princes of the royal family, the great officers of state, the two archbishops, some of the nobles, a bishop nominated by the king, and the president of the protestant consistory, are members of the upper chamber. The king has it besides in his power to appoint hereditary members or members for life; the number of the latter cannot exceed a third of the former.^c The chamber of representatives consists of a hundred and fifteen members;^d fourteen are chosen by the nobles,^e as many by the clergy,^f twenty-eight by the burgesses, and fifty-six by the landed proprietors; the universities appoint the remaining three, who must belong to the Catholic, Lutheran or Calvinistic communions, and who cannot be elected before the age of thirty. The number of representatives is proportioned to that of families, so as to allow one of the former to seven thousand of the latter: the members are chosen every six years. The executive power is in the hands of the king, and the ministry consists of five members.^g According to the fundamental law of the state, no one can be imprisoned or condemned but by the sentence of a judge, all the citizens are eligible to the different offices of state, and all are obliged to enter the military service.^h

It may be superfluous to make any remarks on the merits or imperfections of the constitution, since at the time it was enacted, the necessity of some modifications was acknowledged. While some writers hailed it as the dawn of freedom in Bavaria, others considered it very imperfect. "The Bavarians," says M. Hazzi,ⁱ "can derive but little advantage from the abolition of personal slavery, while a magistrate, in the plenitude of his power or caprice, can inflict corporal punishment on the burgesses and peasants, and while an officer can degrade his soldiers in the same manner. The condition of the husbandmen can never be improved, so long as compulsory labour, different services and every sort of feudal burden, are imposed on them. It is of little use that a vague law entitles any individual to purchase exemption from such hardships, since there is no law by which the purchase money has been fixed. Religious liberty has been declared a fundamental principle of the constitution, but the Menmonites, Moravians, Anabaptists and Jews, all those, in short, who are neither Catholics,

Calvinists nor Lutherans, are deprived of political privileges. A Bavarian is not permitted to emigrate without the consent of government, and then it must be to one of the confederated states; if he does so of his own accord, his property may be confiscated."

The king is grand master of the five orders of knighthood in Bavaria, viz. those of Saint Hubert, Saint George and Saint Michael, the military order of Max-Joseph, and the civil order of Merit.

The Bavarian army corresponds with the rank which the state holds in the Germanic confederation. The conscription still exists, and the military force of the kingdom consists of fifty-four thousand men, besides a numerous reserve, and a national guard (*landwehr*.) The contingent to the confederation has been fixed at thirty-five thousand; the period of military service is limited to five years. The troops for the protection of the country are trained after the manner of the French gendarmes.^k A military establishment so disproportionate to the number of inhabitants, can only be maintained by measures so severe as to be hardly supportable except in time of war. Every able-bodied man must enter the army, either in the active service, the reserve, or the national guard.

The revenue of Bavaria amounts to about 35,000,000 florins, and the national debt to more than 110,000,000.^l These results are not very satisfactory, but what has been lately gained by economy and retrenchments not only in the expenditure of the state but of the court, cannot fail to improve the finances of the kingdom. The promises of government, which have been already realized in this respect, may be considered a pledge that others made from the throne at the opening of the session in 1828 will also be fulfilled. The sovereign has publicly declared his intention to establish provincial councils, to render the administration of government and of justice less expensive, to apportion the taxes and imposts more uniformly, to enter into commercial treaties with neighbouring nations, to render public the debates and proceedings in the different courts and assemblies, and lastly, to introduce a new penal code adapted to the presents wants of society. Such resolutions are the best guarantee of the future prosperity of the kingdom.

Bavaria is divided into eight circles, namely, those of the Isar, the Lower Danube, the Regen, the Upper Maine, the Rezat, the Upper Danube, the Lower Maine and the Rhine. The last circle shall be described separately, as it forms no part of Bavaria Proper.

Munich,^m the capital of the circle of the Isar or Iser, is also the capital of the kingdom. It rises in the middle of an extensive plain between the heights of the Isar and the Galgen. It occupies nearly the same extent of ground as Vienna, if the suburbs of the latter be not taken into account, and it has been considered one of the finest cities in Germany. It stands on the Isar, at the height of more

^a The amount of the civil list has been fixed at 2,745,000 florins. (Hassel, 1822.) ^b "The allowance (*pin-money*) of his queen." (M.B. Hassel.)

^c "That of councillors of the kingdom (*Reichsräthe*) consists of the princes of the royal family (of full age,) the four great dignitaries of the crown (*Kronbeamten*), the two archbishops, the heads of the principal noble families (*standesherrn*), one of the bishops appointed by the king, the president of the protestant consistory, and such other persons as the king may designate, either as hereditary members or as councillors for life; but the number of the latter (councillors for life) cannot exceed a third of the hereditary members."

^d The number in 1818. But the number varies with the population. The rule of apportionment is $\frac{1}{3}$ to the possessors of seignorial estates, $\frac{1}{3}$ to the other landed proprietors, $\frac{1}{3}$ to the clergy, $\frac{1}{3}$ to the cities and market towns, and 1 member to each of the three universities.—P.

^e Possessors of seignorial estates (*gutsbesitzer*.)

^f Nine by the Catholics, and five by the Protestants.

^g The two great central authorities (*centralbehörden*) are the ministry, consisting of five members, (viz. the ministers of foreign affairs, of justice, of the interior, of finance, and of war,) and the council of state.—P.

^h See Hassel's Geography, (in Germ.)

ⁱ See his work entitled: *Ueber die Standpunkte der Baierschen Verfassungs-Urkunde von 1818*. See also the Bulletin Universal des Sciences et de l'Industrie, Section des Sciences Geographiques, 1er Cahier, 1825.

^k "The *gendarmerie*, for the security of the country, consists of 1693 men."

^l See for the budget of 1820, Allgem. Justiz-Kammer, &c. 1825.

^m *München* (Germ.)

than nineteen hundred feet^a above the level of the sea. It cannot be called a regularly built town; modern houses are placed near edifices which have stood for more than four hundred years; it must be admitted however that several streets are broad, straight and well paved. The number of houses amounts to three thousand one hundred and eighty, and the population to sixty-five thousand individuals. The public squares contribute chiefly to the embellishment of the town; the most remarkable are those of Max-Joseph, Anger and Maximilian, the Place of Arms and the Promenade, the last of which is surrounded with trees and arcades. The public buildings are the royal palace, the palaces of Max and William, the house in which the chambers meet, another that serves as a residence for the minister of the interior, the town-house, the new mint, the two principal theatres, and the academy of sciences, formerly the college of the Jesuits, and the finest of any that the order possessed in Europe.

The royal palace may be styled a model of architecture; it is highly magnificent in the interior, and so extensive, that it was a common saying in former times, that all the kings in Christendom might reside in the palace of Munich. Many valuable curiosities are to be seen in the court chapel, among others a painting by Michael Angelo, the small altar at which Mary Stuart performed her devotions, when in prison, a reliquary adorned with ancient cameos, a pearl of the greatest beauty, known in Europe by the name of the palatine pearl, and lastly a piece of native gold, weighing more than twenty-two pounds. Among the collections in the royal palace, are the cabinet containing a hundred and thirty miniatures, which have been valued at more than £30,000,^b and the Maximilian gallery, in which there are several paintings by the greatest masters.

It may be sufficient to mention one of the twenty-two churches, that of St. Mary, otherwise called *Frauen-Kirche* or the church of Our Lady; not fewer than thirty altars are contained in it; its finest ornaments are several valuable paintings and a mausoleum of the emperor Lewis of Bavaria. The two steeples of the same building rise to the height of three hundred and thirty feet; it may be easily inferred that they command an extensive view; hence most strangers who visit the town ascend them.

The public collections of Munich are highly valuable; more than thirteen hundred paintings by celebrated masters are contained in the royal gallery and there is a fine collection of drawings and mosaics in the ancient convent of the Theatins. The number of volumes in the royal library exceeds four hundred thousand, and amongst them are eight thousand five hundred manuscripts, and more than twenty thousand volumes, published when the art of printing was still in its infancy. One of them is a bible by Guttenberg and Faust, printed in the year 1450. More than ten thousand Greek and Roman gold coins form part of the cabinet of medals; the museum of natural history, the botanic garden, the observatory, and the schools of chemistry and anatomy, contain whatever is useful in such institutions.

Among the public seminaries in Munich, are the royal institute consisting of four different schools, the philological school, the school of medicine and surgery, the central veterinary school, the seminary set apart for poor students from all the towns in the kingdom, the school for cadets and that for the pages of the king, the Maximilian boarding

school^c for the daughters of the nobles, and different elementary and gratuitous schools.

It might be easy to enumerate several establishments for the relief of the indigent, hospitals for the old and infirm of both sexes, and others for orphans, foundlings and lunatics. It may be remarked too that most of these establishments were founded by pious and philanthropic inhabitants of the town; some have existed for nearly four hundred years, and since that period, virtuous citizens, guided by the purest philanthropy, have used their utmost efforts to mitigate wretchedness and misfortune, without being in any way assisted or encouraged by government. Now, that their example is followed by the state, the means of relief are greater, the repression of mendicity more effectual; indeed travellers have declared that fewer mendicants are to be seen in Munich than in any other town of the same size in Germany. It rarely happens that the children of the lower orders accustom themselves early to indolence, by depending for a subsistence on the alms which their importunity extorts. The children who are found begging in the towns or in the country, are removed from that degrading state, the source of so many vices, and educated at the public expense, until they are able to support themselves by their labour. Houses of correction have been built for the confinement of vagrants; in short, it may be sufficient to terminate the account of the charitable institutions in the capital, by stating that the plan proposed by Count Rumford, an individual to whom humanity is so much indebted, has been realized at Munich. Food is gratuitously provided for six hundred persons, in an edifice erected for the purpose. A secret passage leads to the interior of the building; those who wish to conceal their poverty from their fellow citizens enter it, and receive, without being seen, a sufficient quantity of wholesome provisions. It has been affirmed that respectable individuals, victims to the vicissitudes of fortune, are thus better enabled to endure the hardships of poverty.

The two most celebrated academies at Munich, are the academy of arts, and that of sciences. The latter is divided into three classes; the first, or that of philology and philosophy, consists of six members and one associate; the second, or that of the mathematical and physical sciences, consists of thirteen members and two associates; and the third, or that of history, consists of eight members. Each class has its secretary and honorary members. The king is the patron, and there is besides a general secretary of the whole academy. The academy of arts consists of a director, a secretary, and eight ordinary, thirty honorary and forty corresponding members.

The residence of the court at Munich is the means of furnishing employment to many inhabitants; others are provided for by government offices. The manufactures of the town, are cloth, leather, hardware goods, jewellery and tapestry, the last of which has been considered little inferior to that of the Gobelins. Although there are several fairs every year, and corn markets every week, the trade of Munich has not risen to much importance. The castle of Nymphenburg, a royal residence at a league to the north-west of the capital, is built after the model of the one at Versailles, and the grounds are laid out with great taste.

Landshut on the Isar, is, after Munich, the finest town in Bavaria; its name signifies the hat of the country,^d and it was in feudal times a place of protection for the people

^a "Elevation 1920 feet"—1569 Fr. feet (Table of Altitudes, Book CXIV. of the original.)

^b "600,000 francs."

^c The Maximilian Institute.

^d Qu. *land*, country, and *hut*, guard.—P.

against the exactions of the barons. It stands on the declivity of a hill, commanded by the castle of Trausnitz, built by the ancient dukes of Bavaria, and now changed into an observatory to which a botanical garden has been attached. The finest buildings in Landshut, are the university attended by six or seven hundred students, the chancery, the townhouse and St. Martin's church, of which the steeple rises about four hundred and twenty feet above the ground. The places of charity are two hospitals and two poor houses. The public library consists of a hundred thousand volumes. A collection of coins and medals, another of mathematical and philosophical instruments, and a museum of mineralogy belong to the university. A theatre of anatomy, as well as a school of medicine and surgery, are open to those who study the medical profession. The town possesses little or no trade; there are not more than five manufactories, and none of them are of any consequence. It was probably on that account that government determined to transfer the university from Ingolstadt to Landshut. The population does not exceed eight thousand five hundred inhabitants.

Freysingen, situated on the Isar, at an equal distance from Munich and Landshut, contains a castle, a fine cathedral, a normal school, and an institution for the deaf and dumb; it is peopled by three thousand six hundred individuals.

It is only necessary to mention those towns which are worthy of notice from their importance, the recollections connected with them, or the monuments they contain. It ought to be remarked that Bavaria differs from the petty principalities that have been described, inasmuch as it contains several large and flourishing cities; as to the towns of two or three thousand inhabitants, we have not thought it necessary to enter into a description of them, and have preferred adding a list of them with their population to the statistical tables at the end of the chapter.

The principal places in the circle of the Isar have been already mentioned; some account shall now be given of the other departments. Passau, the chief town in the circle of the Lower Danube, is situated in a very romantic country at the confluence of the Ilz, the Inn and the Danube. It is in all probability the most ancient city in Bavaria; it consists of four quarters, Passau or the town properly so called, Innstadt on the right bank of the Inn, Ilzstadt on the right bank of the Ilz, and the suburb of Anger, defended by the castles of Oberhaus and Unterhaus, and also by eight forts, formerly known by the names of eight French generals. The suburbs of Innstadt and Ilzstadt communicate with the town by bridges. The principal buildings in Passau are an episcopal palace, a large cathedral and three parish churches, one of which, St. Mary of the Capuchins, was famous for its miracles. It has besides two public schools, a gymnasium, an infirmary, an orphan hospital and five others.^a Although advantageously situated for commerce, it possesses an inconsiderable trade, which consists in silk, wine and grain. The town is on the whole well built, and the population, including that in the different suburbs, amounts to ten thousand five hundred inhabitants. Passau was the place where Charles the Fifth and Maurice of Saxony concluded a treaty, by which the Reformation was confirmed in Germany.^b The rural palaces of Freudenheim, Löwenhof and Rabengut are situated in the neighbourhood.

Of the many pearl fisheries on the Ilz, some are not far from Passau; these pearls are produced by a fresh water

muscle, the *Mya margaritifera* of Linnæus. The animal having no other means of resistance, says the Swedish naturalist, forms the pearls to defend itself against the attacks of a formidable enemy; an aquatic worm perforates its shell and feeds on it; the only way by which it can escape, after an opening has been made, is by filling it by a calcareous secretion from its body. If the secretion be too great, it forms a tubercle that may be easily detached from the shell. The finest pearls are round and of a white colour.

Straubing, a town of eight thousand inhabitants, is advantageously situated on a height near the banks of the Danube. It was the *Castra Augusta* of the Romans; it carries on at present a considerable trade in earthen ware; its crucibles are exported into different countries. The principal edifices are a castle, seven churches, one of them with a steeple two hundred and forty feet in height, four hospitals and a townhouse. The places of education are a gymnasium and several schools. The fine abbey of Ober-Altaich, famous for its valuable library, is situated in the vicinity.

The burgh of Bodenmais is known to mineralogists from the minerals collected in the neighbourhood, and to landscape painters from the cataracts on the Riss and the Mosbach. The importance of the place depends on its mines and vitriol works; the latter furnish every year a supply of nearly two thousand quintals.

Ratisbon, the chief town in the circle of the Regen, was formerly the capital of Bavaria, and the residence of the ancient German kings of the Carolingian race. Having been erected into a free and imperial city by the emperor Frederick the First, it was afterwards restored to Bavaria in the year 1486. It became a second time independent in 1502, and continued so until the year 1803, when it was granted to the Prince Primate. Lastly, when the grand duchy of Frankfort was founded, it and its territory were included in the dominions of Bavaria. The town had been the seat of the imperial diets from the year 1662 to that period. Many of the houses were formerly built with wood, and it was seven times almost reduced to ashes between the years 891 and 1642. Two ecclesiastics were burnt at Ratisbon in 1418, because they maintained that John Huss had been unjustly condemned to death by the council of Constance; but justice was done to the memory of these two victims of intolerance and fanaticism, when the greater part of the population embraced the Augsburg confession in 1542. A famous battle between the French and the Austrians, which lasted five days, and in which Napoleon received a slight wound in the heel, was fought under its walls in 1809. The town suffered much on that occasion; a hundred and thirty-four houses were consumed, and the loss sustained is said to have amounted to one million five hundred thousand florins.

The town is called Regensburg by the Germans; it contains 26,000 inhabitants, and is encompassed with walls, but not defended with fortifications. There are not fewer than twenty-eight churches; the cathedral, which is the finest, was built in 1400. It is unnecessary to mention the hospitals and different seminaries for the education of youth. The museums and scientific collections are worthy of its importance; it possesses a valuable gallery of paintings, and not less valuable libraries. The principal buildings are the palace of the prince of Tour and Taxis, and the townhouse where the Germanic diets assembled; there is a bridge of fifteen arches across the Danube, a thousand and ninety-

^a "It possesses a seminary, a gymnasium, an infirmary, an orphan asylum and five hospitals."

^b See Sleidan's History of the Reformation.
^c "270 feet."

one foot in length. A monument has been erected in honour of Kepler who died in the town. It seems as if the contending armies had spared this tribute to the memory of the man who determined the revolutions and orbits of the heavenly bodies; it was finished in 1808, and received no injury in the following year, during the engagement by which Ratisbon so severely suffered. The streets are narrow and crooked, but clean and well paved. The houses are very high, and built in the German style. The manufactures are neither numerous nor important; vessels are built for the navigation of the river, and the principal trade consists in the transportation of goods.

Ratisbon was the birth place of Don John of Austria, the natural son of Charles the Fifth, and one of the greatest generals that flourished in the sixteenth century; he gained the battle of Lepanto, kept the Netherlands under the dominion of Spain, and was at last poisoned by his brother, that suspicious tyrant Philip the Second, who feared that he might become sovereign of Flanders.

Stadt am Hof, or the town of the court, may be considered a suburb of Ratisbon, as it is only separated from it by a bridge. It was reduced to ashes in 1809, but it has since been rebuilt and improved; the population amounts to fifteen hundred inhabitants.

Amberg is situated about twelve leagues to the north of Ratisbon, and is watered by the Vils, a river that throws itself into the Nab. It is surrounded with walls, which are flanked by seventy turrets; the streets are straight, broad and well built. The public buildings are the royal castle, the college, the arsenal and the town house, the last a Gothic edifice. It contains ten churches, six hospitals, an infirmary, several seminaries, a normal school, a library, and eight thousand inhabitants. Sixty workmen are employed in making arms, and five thousand four hundred quintals of iron are obtained every year from the mines in the vicinity. The Vils is navigable for the small vessels that descend towards the Danube. Thus, the facility of communication with Ratisbon and other towns, and its manufactures of cotton stuffs, tobacco, earthen ware and playing cards, render Amberg a place of considerable trade. It was on the plains which surround the town, that the archduke Charles compelled the French army under General Jourdan to retreat to the Rhine in 1796.

Ingolstadt on the right bank of the Danube, was formerly one of the most important towns in Bavaria, but its population at present is not, according to Hassel, greater than that of Amberg;^a its fortifications were destroyed in 1800. A Latin school has been opened since the university was transferred to Landshut.

Abensberg on the right bank of the same river, was the ancient *Abusina*, a city of the *Vindelici*; several Roman antiquities are still found near its walls. Although a small place of twelve hundred inhabitants, it is encompassed with walls, which are flanked with thirty-two round and eight square turrets. It was formerly the residence of the counts of Abensberg, and a castle that belonged to them, may still be seen in the town.

Eichstedt, a walled town on the banks of the Altmühl, is situated in a narrow but agreeable valley. There are four suburbs, three public squares and as many large streets; it was the chief town in the principality, that was ceded under the sovereignty of Bavaria to Eugene Beauharnois. The

castle may be considered the finest edifice; next to it are the cathedral, which contains the tomb of the martyr Wilibald, and the church of Walpurg; these two churches and four others of less importance belong exclusively to the catholics. The town possesses a gymnasium, different schools, a public library and several collections; it is peopled by more than eight thousand inhabitants. The land in the neighbourhood of Eichstedt is fruitful, and produces corn, hops, flax and fruits; few cattle are reared, but the country abounds with game, and the rivers are well stocked with fish. Iron mines, marble, and other quarries, are worked in the mountains.

Bayreuth, the metropolis of the circle of the Upper Maine, is built on the banks of that river, in a pleasant valley, formed by branches of the Fichtel-Gebirge. The elevation of the town may be about six hundred and forty feet^b above the level of the sea. The streets are broad, regular and well built; it is surrounded with old walls and three suburbs, one of which is the small town of St. George. The finest buildings are the old castle of Soplhenburg, and the new palace. Although the population consists of fourteen thousand inhabitants, there are not more than a thousand catholics; the latter have their church, and the Jews their synagogue. Bayreuth contains several hospitals, a gymnasium, a theatre and different manufactories.

Bamberg, a town watered by the Regnitz, has been incorrectly considered the ancient *Bergium*, a place mentioned by Ptolemy; it is certain that Bamberg was not built long before the tenth century;^c it was the residence of the counts of the same name. The population amounts to nearly thirty thousand souls; in point of situation and architectural beauty, it may vie with any other town in Bavaria. The houses are built of free stone; it is divided into three parts by two fine bridges; and the highest quarter rises majestically in the form of an amphitheatre crowned by several hills. The castle of Petersberg has been much admired; among the other buildings, may be mentioned a fine church, that contains the tombs of the emperor Henry the Second and Cunigunda his wife, twenty-three other churches, fifteen chapels, three hospitals, an infirmary and a house of correction—a very large edifice. A public library, a collection of natural history, and the archives of the country are deposited in the castle of Petersberg. Bamberg offers a singular contrast with Bayreuth, in as much as it does not contain a thousand protestants. The places of education are numerous; the lyceum is attended by fifty pupils; the gymnasium by two hundred and fourteen, while the number of masters is not less than six. There are besides an ecclesiastical seminary, a normal school for thirty or forty pupils, a school of medicine and surgery, and another of midwifery. Bamberg was the birth place of Camerarius the philologist. Although it possesses no great commerce, there are about fourteen hundred master workmen of different kinds, eleven hundred journeymen and three hundred apprentices, besides five booksellers, four apothecaries, and fifty-six breweries.^d

Hoff,^e at a short distance from the eastern frontier of the kingdom, is watered by the Saale; it contains several schools, a rich hospital, a library and eight thousand inhabitants. Kulmbach,^f a pleasant town in the same department, is surrounded with walls, and situated on the banks of the White Maine. The streets are irregular but well paved,

^a "Its population, according to Hassel, is equal to that of Amberg."

^b "Elevation 608 feet."

^c A. D. 801. (Busching.)

^d Jaeck, Bamberg wie es einst war, wie es jetzt ist.

^e Hof, Stadt zum Hof.

^f Culmbach.

and the market place is remarkable for its size. Like every other town of any consequence in the circle, it contains a sufficient number of hospitals and charitable institutions. The population amounts to little more than four thousand five hundred inhabitants. Plassenburg at no great distance from the last town, stands between two lofty mountains; it may be mentioned on account of its fortress, now a state prison, and the station of a considerable garrison.

Some account may be given of Gailenreuth, a village in the same circle, situated on the west bank of the Weissent, in the basin of the Regnitz, and famous for its natural caverns, filled with fossil bones, which have recently excited the attention of naturalists. The largest of these caverns lies in a vertical rock, and bears the same name as the village; the entrance is about seven feet in height, and opens into a grotto nearly eighty feet in length, which communicates by an aperture not more than two feet high, with a second cavity nearly a hundred and thirty feet long, and forty broad. The height of the second cavity near the aperture is about eighteen feet, but it descends gradually until it becomes so low as five. A narrow passage at the farther extremity communicates with several others which lead to a third grotto about thirty feet in diameter, and five or six in height; the earth on the floor of this grotto is filled with the teeth and jaw bones of different animals. There is a cavity at its entrance, into which one can descend by a ladder, and pass from it to a vault fifteen feet in diameter, and thirty in height, that communicates with a chamber covered with bones. A natural arcade below it leads to another cavern more than forty feet from the ground to the roof.^a This chamber terminates in a cavity or pit about eighteen or twenty feet in depth, and a passage from it communicates with a cave about forty feet in height, and almost filled with bones. Passages lead from the last cave to one about twenty-five feet long and twelve broad, to another twenty feet high, and lastly to a third eighty feet in breadth and twenty-four in height, which contains more bones than any of the preceding. But this is not the end of the labyrinth; the stranger has to advance to the sixth and last cavern. All these subterranean chambers form a figure not unlike a semicircle. The fissures that are perceived in the calcareous rock, may perhaps be passages to other caverns; thus, it was found in 1784, that one of these fissures communicated with a chamber, filled with the bones of hyenas and lions. It has been remarked that the cleft was much too narrow for the entrance of these animals. The chamber terminates in a sort of arcade, and I observed in it, says M. Cuvier, an incredible number of bones and skulls.^b It has been ascertained that the animals of which these are the remains, were bears, hyenas, tigers, wolves, foxes, gluttons, polecats, and some herbivorous animals, such as different kinds of deer. But the carnivorous animals are in so great a proportion, that out of a hundred bones, three in general will belong to hyenas, five to wolves or foxes, two to tigers, three to gluttons and eighty-seven to bears. All these animals, different in their figure and dimensions from those of the present day, attest the past existence of a former world. If it be wished to determine why the bones of so many animals are collected in these places, it may be supposed either that they were the dens of wild animals that brought their prey into them, or rather that an enormous number of ear-

nivorous animals, with others of a different class, were accumulated in the cavities by an irruption of the waters.

More manufacturing and trading towns are situated in the circle of the Rezat than in any other in Bavaria. Ansbach, the metropolis, which was formerly called Onolzbach, is now more generally known by the name of Anspach. The town is surrounded with walls, and watered by the Rezat. There are eighteen public buildings, of which the principal are the castle and chancery. The population amounts to seventeen thousand inhabitants, and the number of catholics does not exceed three hundred. The places of instruction are a gymnasium and several elementary schools. Anspach is not a town of much trade; the manufactures are leather, linen and woollen stuffs.

Erlangen or *Christian Erlangen*^c on the Regnitz, is enclosed by walls, and divided into the old and new town; the streets are broad and regular. It possesses, besides the only protestant university in the kingdom, many seminaries in which different branches of education are taught. The imperial academy of natural history was founded in the year 1666; the other institutions of the same sort are a physical society, another of medicine,^d and a third of agriculture and rural economy. It has excited surprise that so many useful institutions are contained in a town of twelve thousand inhabitants.

The trade and manufactures of Erlangen are of considerable importance, but in that respect it is inferior to Fürth, a well built town on the same river. The Jews form about the fourth part of the population, which is equal to sixteen thousand eight hundred individuals. They maintain at their own expense a separate tribunal, an university, two printing offices, three schools, an hospital and four synagogues; such facts form the best answers that can be made to those who maintain that the Jews can never become good or useful citizens; indeed, in many places where the Jews participate in the rights of citizens, they may bear a comparison with the Christians who despise them. Fürth is one of the most industrious towns in Bavaria; it carries on a great trade in mirrors.

Nuremberg or Nurnberg stands in the middle of a fruitful though sandy plain, and is divided into two parts by the Pegnitz. It is surrounded with an outer and an inner wall, both of them flanked with towers, which renders it not unlike two towns. The streets are irregular, but broad and well paved; although the old castle cannot at present be called a fortress, still it and almost all the other buildings in Nuremberg, call to mind those ancient towns which served as a residence to the princes or barons who flourished in feudal times, and whose power depended on the weakness of their neighbours. The paintings that cover the outer walls of many houses in Nuremberg give it a singular aspect. The townhouse is remarkable for the pictures and curiosities it contains; among other articles, one may observe the glass out of which Luther used to drink. Some of its eight churches are adorned with fine paintings; the painted windows in the cathedral are admired, and those in the church of St. Clara are remarkable for their antiquity, dating back to the year 1278. A well five hundred and thirty-six feet in depth is situated in one of the courts belonging to the castle, an old building in which may be seen a valuable collection of paintings. The town is adorned

^a "40 feet in length."

^b Recherches sur les ossements fossiles, tome IV. p. 295.

^c Erlangen is divided into the old and new towns; the latter was

founded in 1686 by Christian Ernest, Margrave of Bayreuth, and is from that circumstance called *Christian Erlangen*.—P.

^d "A physical and medical society."

with several fountains; it possesses a great many schools, a gymnasium, different literary and scientific societies and seven public libraries. The commerce of Nuremberg must be considerable, since by means of it three hundred and fifty mercantile houses are supported; not fewer than four hundred and eighty-seven different articles are made or manufactured within its walls.^a It has been supposed that it carries on a greater trade in cutlery than any other town in Germany; it contains two exchanges, a bank and a mount of piety. The catholics make up a twentieth part of the population; the total number of inhabitants has been estimated by Hassel at thirty-one thousand six hundred and sixty-five. Nuremberg was the birth place of Albert Durer, the celebrated painter, and of other distinguished men; indeed if the inventions to which it has given origin be considered, it is entitled to the gratitude of the human race. Peter Hele invented watches there; Rudolph, the drawing plates for iron wire; John Lobsinger, air guns; Christopher Denner, the clarinet; Erasmus Ebener, the alloy known by the name of brass; Martin Behaim, the terrestrial sphere, which without doubt contributed to the discovery of America; lastly, John Muschel improved different musical instruments.

The other towns in the same circle might be considered insignificant after Nuremberg. Schwabach on the river of the same name, is noted for its needles and cotton cloths; it contains nine thousand five hundred inhabitants. The small town of Bayersdorf on the Regnitz, carries on a trade in cutlery and hardware goods. Rothenburg is built in the Gothic style; it contains a fine townhouse, a library, valuable from its rare manuscripts, and a population of eight thousand persons. Dinkelsbühl, encompassed with high walls, flanked with towers, is built like the last town, and peopled by seven thousand inhabitants.

Nördlingen is well known in Germany for its bacon and geese; more than thirty thousand of the latter are annually exported. It is built on the Egger, and surrounded with ditches, ramparts and towers. St. Magdalen is the largest church in the town, and its steeple reaches to the height of three hundred and forty-three feet. The number of inhabitants amount to seven thousand six hundred, and their trade consists in the produce of their manufactures, such as linen, worsted stockings, fustians and horse covers.

The circle of the Lower Maine is formed by the former grand dutchy of Wurtzburg, the province of Aschaffenburg, different parts of the territory of Fulda, and several districts ceded by Hesse.

Wurtzburg,^b the capital, contains about twenty thousand inhabitants; once an imperial town, it was afterwards subject to a bishop, one of whose prerogatives was to have a naked sword carried before him. The fortifications have fallen into decay, but the town is still defended by a high wall and a deep ditch. The Maine divides it into two parts; that on the right bank of the river is the old town of Wurtzburg; the other on the left bank is called the quarter of the Maine. A fine bridge of eight arches, and five hundred and forty feet in length, forms a communication between the old and new towns. The fortress of Marienberg in the

quarter of the Maine, rises on a rock about four hundred feet in height, and on the same hill are the ruins of an ancient building, which is supposed to have been a temple consecrated to *Freya*, the Venus of the Scandinavians. The old town, though irregularly built, is adorned by several fine buildings; such are the royal castle and the cathedral, the largest of its thirty-three churches, which is remarkable for many curious monuments, and also for a pulpit of the most finished workmanship. The great hospital of Julius, twelve other hospitals and several charitable institutions, different libraries and scientific collections, numerous schools, an university, which was founded more than four hundred years ago,^c and considerable trade, particularly in wine, render the town one of the most valuable acquisitions which Bavaria has lately obtained.

The vineyards in the neighbourhood of Wurtzburg have been celebrated since the thirteenth century. The Leiste is the most esteemed among the wines of Franconia; the Stein wine is produced on an estate that belongs to the hospital of Julius; it is sold in the country for four shillings the bottle.^d Another sort not less prized is known by the name of the Holy Spirit; it is produced in the vineyards of Harpe, which belong mostly to the chapter of Hauch. The wines of Schalksberg and Cahnus are little inferior to any that have been mentioned.

Karlstadt^e on the Maine, carries on a considerable trade in wines. Schweinfurt on the same river, a town of seven thousand inhabitants, possesses an arsenal, a gymnasium, and several elementary schools. It is abundantly supplied with water from thirty-seven public fountains. The excellent wine of Saleck constitutes the trade of Hammelburg, a small town on the Saale. The five thousand inhabitants of Kitzingen are mostly engaged in conveying goods to the south of Germany. The town is remarkable for a bridge across the Maine, which leads to the suburb of Etwashausen. The number of arches amounts to fifteen, and it is not less than a thousand feet in length. As it does not exceed sixteen feet in breadth, its length appears so much the more considerable.

Aschaffenburg is situated on the banks of the Maine, at the foot of the western declivity of the Spessart. Its importance depends on its schools and scientific collections, not on the number of its inhabitants, which does not exceed six thousand. A large castle in the middle of a park is its finest edifice. It was a place of residence during the summer for the electors of Mayence. It possesses at present a trade in leather and beet sugar; it is besides the depot of the merchandise that descends the Maine, and of the timber obtained from the forests on the Spessart.

The circle of the Upper Danube derives its importance from the number of its towns, and the different branches of industry in which their inhabitants are engaged. More paper-mills are contained in it than in any other department in Bavaria.

Augsburg, the capital, although inferior to Munich, is the second town in the kingdom. Having already made some mention of its antiquity, it may now be more minutely described. It stands on a large and fertile plain between the

^a "487 manufactures de differens products."

^b Würzburg, (Germ.)

^c Instruction is there committed to thirty-one professors and four teachers. The number of students in the winter session of 1825 and 1826, amounted to six hundred and seventy-six, viz. four hundred and ninety-seven Bavarians and a hundred and seventy-nine foreigners, distributed among the different faculties, as follows:

Theology	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	144
Law	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	213
Medicine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	158
Philosophy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	161

^d "When old, it is sold for more than five francs the bottle."

^e Carlstadt.

Lech and the Wertach, which join each other below its ramparts, and carry their united streams to the Danube. The number of inhabitants is estimated at thirty-three thousand; as in other ancient towns, the streets are narrow and irregular; a few only are straight, and among these that of the *May* is the finest in Augsburg. The fountains which embellish it contribute to render it more salubrious. The principal squares are those of the May, Caroline and the new market place. The townhouse is admitted to be the largest and most regularly built of any in Germany; the golden hall, a chamber in the same building, is a hundred feet in length, and nearly fifty in breadth.^a It was in the ancient episcopal palace, now changed into government offices, that the confession of Augsburg was read before Charles V. in 1530. The cathedral is considered a finer building than any of the other twelve churches,^b six of which belong to the Catholics and six to the Lutherans. One church, however, that of St. Ulric, cannot be too highly commended for its bold and lofty arches; the Lutherans and Catholics perform their rites in it alternately. The church of the Franciscans is remarkable for the size of its organ; the other public buildings are the arsenal, the market and the theatre. Augsburg is still the residence of a bishop, but he does not enjoy the same power as formerly; the diocese was once richer than any other in Christendom, and the bishops of Augsburg were entitled princes of the empire. Hartmann^c bequeathed to the bishops, in the thirteenth century, his riches and the county of Wittlingen.^d It became afterwards more important, but was reduced at last like almost all the other chapters in Germany. Augsburg has its gymnasium, different seminaries, a polytechnic school, a public library and a fine collection of paintings, most of them by German masters. The capital belonging to hospitals and charitable institutions, was equal in 1807 to 6,600,000 florins. Although the manufactures of Augsburg were formerly in a more flourishing condition than at present, its trade is still very considerable; indeed its manufactories of every sort, and its many mercantile houses, render it a central point in commercial Europe.

Neuburg on the Danube, is peopled by seven thousand inhabitants; it is encompassed by walls, and commanded by a castle, built on an eminence. The barracks, three churches, a lyceum and several hospitals are the principal public buildings, but the most interesting monument is the tomb of La Tour d'Auvergne, who was killed in the year 1809, on the road between Neuburg and Donauwörth, a small town of two thousand five hundred inhabitants, where Lewis the Severe ordered his wife Mary of Brabant to be beheaded, and which is famous for the victory gained over the French and Bavarians in 1704 by the English and Austrians, under the command of Marlborough. That bloody engagement took place near the village of Blenheim, and about eighty years afterwards^e an immense quantity of bones were dug up by labourers, while they

^a "92 feet long, 48 broad."

^b "The cathedral is the finest of its twelve churches."

^c Hartmann, Count of Dillingen.

^d The town of Dillingen, the county of Wittlingen, and other possessions. (Busching.)—P.

^e "A. D. 1780."

^f Kempten, under the empire, consisted of two contiguous towns, viz. the free imperial town of Kempten (*Reichs-Stadt*), and the abbey town (*Stifts-Stadt*), immediately dependent on the sovereign abbey of Kempten.—P.

^g Lindau stands on an island in the lake, and from that circumstance has been called Swabian Venice. (Busching.)—P.

^h The sovereign abbey of Lindau, consisting of an abess and twelve nuns, all of noble family.—P.

were employed in making a road. Tallard had obtained the command of the French army by intrigue, while Villars might have led it to victory; at all events, its fate was avenged by the French both in 1796 and in 1800.

Memmingen, formerly an imperial town, is watered by the Ach; it contains eight thousand inhabitants. The townhouse, the arsenal and the chancery are the most remarkable buildings. It possesses a lyceum, a public library, a musical school and different seminaries. Heiss, Sichelbein and other artists were born in the town; its trade, which is at present considerable, consists in hops, linen, serge and different kinds of cloth.

Kempten rivals the last town in industry and commerce. It is situated on the banks of the Iller, and surrounded with hills. It was founded before the eighth century. Hildegard, the wife of Charlemagne, gave to the chapter of the town all the wealth which was left her by her mother. A part of the town is dependent on the convent, which still bears the name of the empress,^f and in that quarter many hospitals, charity-schools and other benevolent institutions are situated.

Lindau, formerly a free and imperial town, is situated on the lake of Constance. Its population amounted at one time to six thousand inhabitants; it does not exceed at present three thousand five hundred. The harbour, or rather the Maximilian basin, may contain three hundred vessels. Because many of the houses are built on piles, the town has been called Little Venice.^g The castle, which commands it, was for a long time inhabited by nuns.^h

The different circles that have been described are governed by commissioners, and the police is subject to the authority of other commissioners.ⁱ Each circle is also subdivided into different courts or justices, as they are called in the country, and all of them have their chief towns. As several of these courts are more or less dependent on privileged nobles, they are therefore styled mediate or seigniorial courts,^k their decisions may be revoked by the supreme tribunal at Munich.

The Rhenish possessions of Bavaria constitute the circle of the Rhine; it is mostly formed by the former French department of Mont-Tonnerre, and by some districts in the departments of the Sarre and the Lower Rhine. It is equal in superficial extent to a hundred and forty German, or to nearly one thousand six hundred and eighty English square miles.^l The country is bounded on the north and west by the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, and by some districts belonging to the duchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha and the landgraviate of Hesse Homburg, on the south by France, and on the east by the grand duchies of Baden and Hesse Darmstadt.

The northern extremity of the Vosges occupies a great part of the surface. According to Hassel, the summit of Wandelstein is 2000 feet above the level of the sea, but it is much lower than the Donnersberg or Mont-Tonnerre.^m

ⁱ Each circle is governed by a Commissary-general (*Generalkommissär*), assisted by a council; the commissioners of police are subject to him. (Hassel.)—P.

^k The circles are divided into *Landgerichte* and *Mediatgerichte* or jurisdictions either independent of or dependent on privileged nobles, and these are subdivided into communes or districts (*gemeinden*) both in towns and in the country (*stadt* and *rural-gemeinden*).—(Hassel.)—P.

^l "389 sq. leagues." The English square miles are obtained by multiplying the German square miles by 12, which is much too small for the German geographical square mile.—P.

^m Thunder Mountain. Height 2400 Fr. feet. (Table of European Altitudes.)

The mountainous districts are composed of red sandstone and other rocks of secondary formation ; but between them and the Rhine, which forms the natural boundary of the country, a long belt of limestone^a extends from north to south, on which rest deposits of tertiary formation through which the river flows. Almost all the mountains in the circle are well wooded, but the southern declivities of the branches which project from the principal chain, are covered with vineyards. The largest forests are that of Bien which is about fifteen miles in length, and nearly two in breadth,^b and that of the Harth, which contains more than thirty thousand acres (*arpens.*) The rivers that water the country, flow either towards the north and the east, and enter the Rhine, or towards the south, and unite with the Sarre. The climate is wholesome, but colder on the mountains and western declivities, than on the eastern declivities or in the plains that extend along the Rhine.

The country abounds in clay, well adapted for bricks and coarse earthen ware, in marble, coal, rock salt and different metals ; it yields annually thirty-three thousand quintals of iron, eighty-five thousand of coal, and six hundred and seventy-two of mercury.

The eastern declivity of the mountains was inhabited during the time of Cæsar by the *Nemetes*, and their lands extended to the Rhine. The *Mediomatrici*, occupied the western declivities ; but as they possessed besides, nearly all the territory which now forms the department of the Moselle, they shall be mentioned more fully in the account of France. Little is known concerning the *Nemetes* ; it is certain, however, that a little before the war carried on by the Romans against Ariovistus, they settled on the left bank of the Rhine, which they had compelled the *Mediomatrici* to abandon ; they inhabited before that period the right bank of the same river. Tacitus does not consider them as Gauls ; without doubt, says the historian, the *Vangiones*, the *Triboci* and the *Nemetes* are of German origin.^c It appears from the same author, that they served as auxiliaries in the Roman armies.^d

The circle of the Rhine is not governed in the same manner as the other Bavarian provinces ; with the exception of some modifications that have been made in it, the system, which was established by France under the imperial government, has been retained. It is divided into four departments, which are subdivided into thirty-two districts.^e Speyer or Spire, the capital, is watered by a small river of the same name, at a short distance from the Rhine. It is surrounded with walls, and five gates form the entrances to the town. The principal edifices are the townhouse and the cathedral, the last of which contains the ashes of eight emperors and as many empresses ; the monuments erected to their memory, are now in ruins. It possesses fifteen catholic and two protestant churches ; yet out of its six thousand four hundred inhabitants, there are not more than sixteen hundred catholics. Some authors believe it to have been founded before the Christian era.^f The same writers pretend that *Spira* and *Nimioda* were its ancient names, and

that it was the chief city of the *Nemetes* (*civitas Nemetum.*)^g It cannot be denied that it was one of the cities of the empire at the commencement of the middle ages, and there is reason to believe that it was the metropolis of a bishopric in the year 348. But this bishopric had been suppressed before the reign of Dagobert the First, since that prince restored it and conferred it on his chaplain Athanasius. If the streets and buildings do not appear to be so ancient, it must be recollected that it was destroyed by the French during the war in the Palatinate.

The other towns in the circle are not very important. Frankenthal, the name of which serves to recal the ancient kingdom of Franconia, contains only four thousand inhabitants, but it possesses a greater trade than any other town in the province. Grunstadt, situated in a fruitful district, watered by the Liss, was the birth place of Olbein, the celebrated painter.^h Kaiserslautern, which contains a gymnasium, a normal school, and four thousand six hundred inhabitants, is more memorable from the battles fought by the French and Prussians in the year 1793 and 1794. Pirmassenz, the scene of a destructive combat at the same period, is well built ; it possesses a fine castle, and its population amounts to five thousand individuals. Deux-Ponts or Zwey-Brücken, which contains six thousand inhabitants, is agreeably situated on the Erlbach ; the streets are clean, straight and well paved. It is adorned by a fine castle, but the one that belonged to the ancient dukes of Deux-Ponts, is wholly destroyed. Landau on the Queich, a town fortified by Vauban, although reserved for the confederation, is at present the station of a Bavarian garrison. The fortifications form a regular octagon ; two gates only lead to the town, and the population is the same as that of Deux-Ponts. The streets are regular ; the barracks, powder magazines and storehouses are bomb proof. Germersheim, situated also on the Queich, and not far from the Rhine, may be mentioned on account of its old fortress, where the emperor Rudolph of Hapsburg died, and also on account of a gold washing which has been established in the neighbourhood, on the banks of the river. Several burghs and villages of some importance from their population, shall be enumerated in the tables at the end of the book. The trade of the circle is not without activity, but it might be much improved if the canals of Frankenthal and Deux-Ponts, which have been neglected by government, were finished and kept in good repair.

It was thought unnecessary to enter into minute details concerning the places of education and the scientific institutions in the different towns in the circle ; it may be remarked, however, that the diffusion of knowledge has been more promoted by the Bavarian than by the former French government. The population of all the towns in the circle, and in the other Bavarian provinces, has not been stated, but the reader may be referred to the following tables, in which will be found the most important facts relative to the statistics of the kingdom.

^a "Calcaire ancien."

^b "Length 5 leagues, breadth $\frac{1}{2}$ a league."

^c De Moribus Germanorum, XXVIII.

^d Annals, Book XII. sect. 26.

^e "4 districts, 32 cantons."

VOL. III.—NO. 43.

^f Corneille, Dictionnaire Géographique.—Dumont, Voyage sur les bords du Rhin.

^g Speyer, *Spira*, *Civitas Nemetum*, *Nemiodona*. (Busching.)—P.

^h "Du peintre Olbein."—Hans Holbein was a native of Bale.—P.

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF THE

Kingdom of Bavaria Proper and of the Bavarian possessions on the Rhine, according to the latest authorities.

The Population of Bavaria Proper and the Rhenish province amounted in 1827 to 3,960,000 individuals, or on an average to 2,628 for every German, or 220 for every English square mile.^a

Number of families	875,560
Noble families	1,384
— having seigniorial estates	878
— without landed property	506

	Number of Seigniorial Estates. b	Number of Families for every German Square Mile.
Circle of the Isar	227	377
— the Lower Danube	153	499
— the Regen	179	444
— the Upper Maine	100	566
— the Rezat	64	781
— the Lower Maine	77	622
— the Upper Danube	78	610
— the Rhine	0	809

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Origin.

Germans	3,880,000
Jews	56,500
French	3,500

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	2,710,000
Lutherans	1,100,000
Reformed or Calvinists	78,000
Mennonites and other Dissenters	1,000
Jews	56,000

Distribution of the Population.

Inhabitants in the towns of the first and second class	563,000
— in the small towns and in the country	3,377,000

Towns, &c. according to Hassel.

Number of towns	229
— burghs	399
— parochial villages	2,920
— small villages and hamlets	28,449
— taxed houses, about	652,000 ^c

Mortality in different parts of the Kingdom.

At Nuremberg	1 in 40
At Augsburg	1 in 35
In the Circle of the Isar	1 in 29
In the Circle of the Upper Maine	1 in 38

Mean Number of Capital Punishments.

The proportion in all the Bavarian possessions, is as one to twenty thousand individuals.

^a Reckoning the German square mile at only 12 English. "950 per sq. league" Fr. The population per Eng. sq. mile should be 125 nearly.—P.

^b By a comparison of the number of seigniorial estates with the number of families in the different circles, it will be perceived that in those circles where the number of such estates is the greatest, the population is least considerable, unless, indeed, the natural effect of such estates be counterbalanced by particular circumstances, as in the Circle of the Isar, the only exception to the rule. The relative population in the Circle of the Rhine is greater than in any other, and in that circle there are no privileged proprietors.

Occupations of the Jews.

Out of 10,663 Jewish families, those engaged in commerce amount to	10,242
In different trades	169
In agriculture	252

Number of Towns, &c. according to the Surface.

Number of towns in every 6½ German square miles	1
— burghs in every 3¾ German square miles	1
— villages in every German square mile	2
— hamlets, idem	9
— houses, idem	435

Churches.

Catholic churches	2,773
Lutheran churches	1,036
Reformed churches	138

Places of Education, in 1822.

Universities	3
Lyceums	7
Gymnasiums	18
Colleges	21
Preparatory or special schools	35
Houses of education	16
Institutions for the higher branches of education	7
Boarding schools for girls	2
Normal schools	7
School for foresters	1
Schools of law	2
Veterinary schools	2
Schools of midwifery	2
Polytechnic schools ^d	2
Military schools	2
Primary schools	5,394

Teachers and pupils.

Inspectors of schools	286
Teachers	7,114
Pupils of all classes, about	498,000

Fiefs dependent on the Crown.

Principalities	11
Counties	13

Division of the soil in 1826, in hundredth parts of the surface.

	Cultivated Lands.	Forests.	Waste Lands.
Circle of the Isar	35	31	34
— Lower Danube	50	29	21
— Regen	47	30	23
— Upper Maine	60	29	11
— Rezat	70	22	8
— Lower Maine	58	32	10
— Upper Danube	50	25	25
— Rhine	57	36	7

Division of the Forests in Acres (Arpens.)

	Forests belonging to the State.	To Towns, Burghs, Villages and Foundations. e	To Individuals.	Total number of acres (arpens.)
Circle of the Isar	521,560	101,096	813,553	1,436,209
— Lower Danube	173,533	783	481,253	655,569
— Regen	258,010	126,661	411,733	796,404
— Upper Maine	416,545	100,342	197,529	714,416
— Rezat	225,386	151,243	165,067	541,696
— Lower Maine	233,601	337,524	190,576	761,701
— Upper Danube	217,627	160,699	374,849	753,175
— Rhine	366,067	268,550	70,089	704,706
	2,412,329	1,246,898	2,704,619	6,363,876

^c 484,000 of these houses, and 447,500 buildings connected with them, were insured against fire in 1824, for the sum of 385,739,235 florins.

^d *Realschulen* (Germ.) This term (*Realschule*) was first applied to a school established in Berlin in 1747, by Hecker, pastor of Trinity Church in that city, the object of which was not only to teach the ordinary branches of literature, but to prepare youths for the active pursuits of life and the mechanical and liberal arts.—P.

^e "To communes (*gemeinden*) and foundations." See note (1) p. 704.

Details relative to each Circle, taken from Hassel's Tables for 1822.

A. CIRCLE OF THE ISAR,

DIVIDED INTO TWENTY-SEVEN COURTS OR JUSTICES.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
310	500,600	109,046	1,611
Towns. 15	Burghs. 41	Villages. 3,271	Hamlets. 7,985

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	477,300
Lutherans	20,500
Jews	2,800

Places of Education.

University	1
Lyceum	1
Normal school	1
Seminaries	2
Boarding schools for girls	2

Population of the Principal Towns, that have not been described.

Traunstein	3,330
Landsberg	2,739
Laufen	2,539
Reichenhall	2,395
Rosenheim	2,240
Wasserburg	2,100

B. CIRCLE OF THE LOWER DANUBE,

DIVIDED INTO NINETEEN COURTS OR JUSTICES.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
197	355,200	77,157	1,800
Towns. 12	Burghs. 46	Villages. 2,048	Hamlets. 7,028

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	349,500
Lutherans	1,600
Jews	4,100

Places of Education.

Gymnasiums	2
Different seminaries	28

Population of the Principal Towns, that have not been described.

Deggendorf	2,557
Burghausen	2,042

C. CIRCLE OF THE REGEN,

DIVIDED INTO TWENTY COURTS OR JUSTICES.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Sq. Mile.
194	364,800	79,422	1,874
Towns. 28	Burghs. 66	Villages and Hamlets. 3,160	

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	320,600
Lutherans	37,000
Jews	7,200

Places of Education.

Lyceums	2
Gymnasiums	2
Colleges	3
Polytechnic school (<i>Realschule</i>)	1
Preparatory schools	8
Normal school	1
Different schools	33

Population of the Principal Towns, that have not been described.

Neumarkt	4,075
Sulzbach	3,690
Kelheim	2,509

D. CIRCLE OF THE UPPER MAINE,

DIVIDED INTO THIRTY-FOUR COURTS OR JUSTICES.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Sq. Mile.
186	475,100	103,488	2,548
Towns. 37	Burghs. 72	Villages and Hamlets. 2,271	

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	228,800
Lutherans	201,300
Calvinists	200
Jews	8,000

Places of Education.

Lyceum	1
Gymnasiums	3
Colleges	3
Preparatory Latin schools	7
Normal school	1

Population of the Principal Towns, that have not been described.

Kronach	3,885
Wunsiedel	3,845
Forchheim	3,535
Selb	2,730
Münchberg	2,700
Lichtenfels	2,620
Weiden	2,600

E. CIRCLE OF THE REZAT,

DIVIDED INTO TWENTY-NINE COURTS OR JUSTICES.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Sq. Mile.
143	530,800	115,409	3,702
Towns. 42	Burghs. 55	Villages and Hamlets. 2,004	

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	109,700
Lutherans	410,000
Calvinists	100
Jews	11,000

Places of Education.

University	1
Gymnasiums	2
Colleges	2
Preparatory Latin schools	2
Different seminaries	12
Normal school	1

Population of the Principal Towns, that have not been described.

Weissenburg	5,005
Windsheim	3,565
Roth	3,185
Lauf	3,160
Ettingen	3,065
Altdorf	3,060
Neustadt on the Aisch	3,040
Feuchtwang	2,855
Gunzenhausen	2,565
Herrsbuck	2,520
Iphofen	2,482
Wending	2,330
Wassertrudingen	2,250
Uffenheim	2,100
Herrogenaurach	2,000
Pappenheim	2,000

F. CIRCLE OF THE LOWER MAINE,

DIVIDED INTO FORTY-SEVEN COURTS OR JUSTICES.

Surface in German Square miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Sq. Mile.
155	491,100	105,733	3,154
Towns	Burghs.	Villages and Hamlets.	
44	55	1,188	

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	407,300
Lutherans	75,000
Jews	8,800

Places of Education.

University	1
Lyceum	1
Gymnasiums	3
Colleges	3
Preparatory schools	6
Boarding schools	3
School for foresters	1
Normal school	1

Population of the Principal Towns, that have not been described.

Lohr	3,780
Orb	3,549
Amorbach	3,375
Heidingsfeld	2,995
Miltenberg	2,880
Ochsenfurt	2,468
Hassfurt	2,439
Gerolzhofen	2,380
Melrichstadt	2,290
Neustadt on the Saale	2,221
Arnstein	2,135
Dettelbach	2,132

G. CIRCLE OF THE DANUBE.

DIVIDED INTO THIRTY-TWO COURTS OR JUSTICES.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Sq. Mile.
171	510,100	111,126	2,970
Towns.	Burghs.	Villages and Hamlets.	
23	47	1,778	

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	483,300
Lutherans	25,800
Calvinists	900
Jews	2,100

Places of Education.

Lyceum	1
Gymnasiums	4
Boarding schools	2
Ecclesiastical seminary	1
Preparatory Latin schools	7

Population of the Principal Towns, that have not been described.

Neuburg	6,900
Lauingen	5,460
Kaufbeuren	4,705
Günzburg	3,805
Grundelangen	3,675
Dillingen	3,610
Höchstedt	3,150
Burgau	2,285
Friedberg	2,144
Mindelheim	2,115
Fussen	2,000

II. CIRCLE OF THE RHINE,

DIVIDED INTO TWELVE DEPARTMENTS AND THIRTY-ONE DISTRICTS.^a

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Sq. Mile.
140	403,100 ^b	87,815	2,878

^a "12 commissariats, 31 cantons." See note (*) p. 705.^b According to M. Kolb: Neu. Geog. Ephemer. Weimar, 1825. The population of the circle amounts to 418,917 inhabitants and 89,000 families.

Towns.	Burghs.	Villages and Hamlets.
28	16	665

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	120,000
Lutherans	207,690
Calvinists	60,000
Mennonites	710
Jews	6,700

Places of Education.

Lyceum	1
Gymnasiums	2
Colleges	5
Preparatory Latin schools	5
Normal school	1

Population of the Principal Towns, that have not been described, and of some large Burghs and Villages.

TOWNS.	
Neustadt on the Hardt	4,805
Dürkheim (Id.)	3,790
Deidesheim	3,015
Kirchheim-Poland	2,510
Bergzabern	2,324
Wachenheim	2,200
Annweiler	2,196
Heinburg	2,157
Otterberg	2,000

BURGHs.	
Edenkoben	4,025
Mutterstadt	2,140

VILLAGES.	
Hassloch	3,560
Kandel	3,097
Herxheim	2,868
Kalsburg	2,100
Leinnersheim	2,029

BUDGET

OF THE KINGDOM OF BAVARIA IN 1825, ACCORDING TO THE ACCOUNTS PRESENTED TO THE CHAMBERS.

Revenue.	
Direct taxes	8,900,000 florins.
Indirect taxes	9,100,000
Revenue from the royal fiefs, &c.	5,160,000
Royal duties	3,950,000
Receipts in arrear	1,590,000
Different receipts	2,600,000
	<hr/> 31,300,000

Expenditure.	
Sinking fund	8,354,000 florins.
Charges of the household and the court	2,745,000
chambers	52,600
Administration of the household and foreign affairs	570,000
justice	1,732,000
the interior	1,300,664
finances	1,011,600
Public instruction	735,148
Clergy	1,251,172
Hospitals	118,851
Roads and bridges	1,300,000
Army	7,880,000
	<hr/> 27,051,535
Royal establishments	4,195,936
	<hr/> 31,247,471

National debt.	
In 1820 it amounted to	110,876,084 florins
In 1824 to	110,781,740
Reduction in four years	94,344

In general, to ascertain the population of Bavaria in 1827, it is necessary to add a twelfth to the numbers given by Hassel for 1822, a rule, which may be followed in the detailed account of each circle.

BOOK CXXIV.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Germany.—Eighth Section.—Territories and Free Towns of Bremen, Hamburg, Lubeck and Frankfort on the Maine.

AN account shall be given in the present book, of the territories and towns that have continued free, notwithstanding all the changes introduced into the political divisions of Germany, by the ambition of conquerors, and the intrigues of cabinets. Before we cross the mountains, which separate Bavaria from Bohemia, before we describe the provinces of the Austrian empire, it is necessary to examine the remains of that federative power, which possessed for several centuries, so much influence in the affairs of Germany.

Industry and commerce are so favourable to civilization by the wealth they diffuse, and by the spirit of independence they produce, that wherever they exist, wherever they flourish, freedom triumphs sooner or later over every obstacle. In the middle ages, the principal towns in Germany, subject to the empire, were governed by bishops, dukes and counts, who often endeavoured to destroy their independence. Worms and Cologne proved their attachment to the emperor Henry the Fourth, by embracing his cause against the authority of their bishops.^a Their conduct determined the crown to increase the number of freemen by granting to the working classes in those cities, the right, which at the time was considered a privilege, of being exempted from the custom then prevailing, by which the bishops and lords, who possessed the temporal authority, inherited the moveable property of the lower orders, or at least as much of it as they pleased. Other towns obtained successively the same advantages; not long afterwards, they purchased the right of choosing their own magistrates, and also of sending deputies to support their interests in the Germanic diets.^b

These immunities or privileges, which distinguished the imperial towns from the other cities, were at first only conferred on the persons who inhabited within their walls. But the peasants, being naturally anxious for some security against the oppression of their lords, bought the right of settling under the walls, between the ditches and palisades; they were therefore called *pfahlbürger* or burgesses of the palisades, and their houses, crowded round the walls, were in course of time denominated suburbs.^{c,d} The towns extended gradually the limits of their jurisdiction to a considerable distance from their ramparts. As many as settled in their territory, enjoyed the privileges of citizens, under the name of *ausbürger*, or outer burgesses; hence the ori-

gin of free towns, possessing territories equally free, and forming small independent states. So many advantages made the nobles still more jealous of the imperial cities. If it be difficult to obtain freedom, it is still more so to preserve it. Although the towns rivalled each other in commerce and industry, they found it necessary to unite and to form a sort of federative state, that they might be better able to resist the power of the bishops and lords, who denied their rights to be valid, because they had been acquired by purchase. Compelled by the usurpations and oppressive authority of the independent nobles in Germany, more than sixty towns formed a confederation on the Rhine in the year 1255.

The origin of the Hanseatic league, may be attributed to similar causes, although its object was to promote the commerce of some imperial towns. The old German word *hanse*, which signifies an alliance, did not merely indicate the intention of facilitating commercial transactions between the different towns, but of resisting the princes on the coasts of the Baltic, and maintaining a free navigation on that sea. The league dates from the year 1164, and Bremen was the first town that planned and executed the project. The wealth acquired by the alliance was so great, that many trading towns in different countries entered into the league; among the number, might be mentioned Antwerp, Amsterdam and several other ports in Holland, Calais, Rouen, Bordeaux and other towns in France, and lastly, Cadiz, Lisbon, Naples and London. But this gigantic confederation was gradually reduced to a few maritime towns on the Baltic. The Hanseatic union, founded for commercial purposes, became a great naval power; it had its fleets and armies, which were formidable to the kings of Denmark. It blockaded Copenhagen in the fourteenth century, and forced Waldemar the Third to give up the province of Schonen to the confederation. Forty vessels, manned with good seamen and twelve hundred soldiers,^e sailed on an expedition against Eric, king of Denmark, in 1428. The league assisted Brunswick in 1615, at that time invested by its duke, who was compelled to raise the siege.^f The grand master of the Teutonic order, Sweden and Denmark, were at different times, protectors of the league; but it lost at last its energy and its power; the causes, which had led to its formation, ceased gradually to exist; its commerce still remained, but its armies were useless. The number of Hanseatic towns at the commencement of the eighteenth century, was reduced to six, namely, Bremen,

^a Schmidt, tome III. page 239.

^b Ibid., tome VI. p. 31.

^c *Pfahlburg* (Germ.,) whence the French *faubourg*.

^d Schmidt, tome IV. VI. Pfeffel, page 402. Ducange, Glossar.

^e Forty vessels, on board of which were 12,000 soldiers. "Montés par 12,000 soldats." M.B. "Garnis de douze mille hommes de guerre." Moreri.

The Hanseatic fleet employed against Eric, king of Denmark, in 1428, consisted of 250 ships, containing about 12,000 regular troops, besides the seamen. Rees' Cyc. art. Hanse.—P.

^f Heiss, History of the Empire, book VI.

Lubeck, Hamburg, Rostock, Dantzic and Cologne. They retained however only an empty title; they had no alliance to maintain. At present, Bremen, Hamburg and Lubeck are only considered as free towns, possessing separate governments.

As the assemblies of the ancient Hanseatic league were held in Bremen, it ought perhaps on that account to be first described. It is situated on the banks of the Weser and the Wümme, at thirty leagues from the sea. It must have been a place of some importance about the end of the eighth century, when Charlemagne made it the capital of an archiepiscopal see; it contains at present five thousand three hundred and sixty houses, and thirty-eight thousand inhabitants, at least two thirds of whom are Calvinists. The cathedral is reserved for those who adhere to the Augsburg confession, and the Calvinists have four parish churches. The principal seminary is a gymnasium for the children of Lutherans and Calvinists; there are besides other schools, a library and a museum of natural history. The public buildings are, the observatory of Dr. Olbers, who was born in the town, the exchange, the chamber of commerce, and the townhouse, an edifice remarkable not only for its curious architecture, but also for its cellars, in which are contained an immense quantity of the finest Rhenish wines. Bremen is divided into the old and new town; the first is gloomy and ill built; the second, which is situated on the left bank of the Weser, contains some regular streets and modern houses; the old fortifications of the town are now changed into public walks.

The manufactures are linen, camlet, cloth, hats, worsted stockings, tobacco, oil and glass. The art of refining sugar is well understood, and the beer is reckoned to be better than any other in Germany. But the wealth of Bremen depends not so much on its manufactures as on its commerce. The many advantages of its situation render it the mart of all the merchandise that descends the Weser; indeed it was considered, after Hamburg, one of the most important acquisitions, which the French made under the imperial government; it then became the capital of the department of the Mouths of the Weser. It carries on a great trade in the herring, salmon and whale fisheries: eleven of its vessels were sent to the herring fishery in 1817. The linens and cottons prepared in its bleachfields, are purchased in different parts of Germany, to the amount of five millions of rixdollars annually. It gives in exchange for these and other articles, French and Spanish wines, and different kinds of colonial produce. The number of vessels that enter its port every year exceeds a thousand. Banks and maritime insurance offices have been established to facilitate and encourage its commerce; its revenues amount to four hundred thousand florins.

The territory belonging to it contains ten thousand inhabitants, and the extent of surface is little more than fifty English square miles;^a in that small space are situated the burgh of Vegesack, and thirty-five villages or hamlets. The same burgh and Elsfleth in the dutchy of Oldenburg serve as ports for Bremen. But as large vessels cannot even enter these small ports, which are at some leagues from the sea, all the goods are conveyed to the town in boats.

Bremen is governed by a council composed of four mayors, two syndics and twenty-four counsellors, seven-

teen of whom are lawyers, and the remaining seven, merchants. Calvinists only are admitted into the council; indeed the exclusive system has been carried so far, that Lutherans cannot hold civil employments.^b Thus, although the magistrates may be upright men, the laws are oppressive, and many inhabitants are deprived of what may be considered their just rights. The government of the town and territory is vested in the council, and the revenue is committed to its management; it presides over the administration of justice, and whenever matters of importance render it necessary, calls together the leading and influential citizens, who, although they meet at no stated periods, form a sort of legislative assembly.

It may be remarked in proof of the patriotism which prevails in this small republic, that all the citizens capable of bearing arms are divided into different classes. The men from twenty-six to thirty-five years of age form three battalions. The officers of government are only exempted, if their duties are incompatible with the military service. The men from twenty to twenty-five years of age, make up another battalion, the only one which is equipped at the expense of the state. The town has no other troops than this sort of national guard; it is, however, obliged to furnish four hundred and eighty-five men to the Germanic confederation.

Hamburg was considered one of the most commercial towns of Europe, when it was united to the French empire in 1810, and made the capital of the department of the Mouths of the Elbe. It contained at that time a population of a hundred and seven thousand inhabitants. The lands in the neighbourhood, covered with country houses, plantations and cultivated fields, might have been compared to an extensive and magnificent garden, which the course of the Elbe, and many picturesque views, served to embellish. When France had to resist a powerful league in 1813, Hamburg, which owed its wealth and resources to its commerce, was suddenly changed into an imposing fortress. So great was the extent of the military works, that the lofty trees which shaded the public walks, the country houses that proclaimed the wealth of the inhabitants, as well as the humble cottage of the peasant, and the gardens, hedges and inclosures, were all destroyed to a considerable distance from the walls. A considerable part of the suburbs was levelled with the ground, and the losses which the inhabitants then sustained, were estimated, according to a very moderate calculation, at £3,000,000. But the various articles which were not taken into account, the merchandise that was spoiled, the ships that were damaged, the buildings that were destroyed, made the whole equal to at least £4,000,000. The wants of the French army obliged the general who commanded it, to dispose of more than 7,500,000 marcs^c taken from the funds of the Hamburg bank. By a treaty concluded in 1816, the French government agreed to pay Hamburg the sum of £500,000.^d Peace, by affording encouragement to commerce, has restored the city to its ancient prosperity, and now since it has recovered its independence, vessels from every nation may enter its harbour. It did not contain more than sixty thousand inhabitants in 1814; their number at present is at least a hundred and ten thousand. Of these the Catholics amount to two thousand, the Calvinists to four thousand, the Mennonites to five hundred, and the

^a "Superficial extent, 10 leagues" Fr.—77 Eng. sq. miles. (Morse.)

^b Stein's Geography, (in Germ.)

^c The marc of Hamburg is 1s. 6d. sterling.

^d "10,000,000 francs."

Jews to six thousand ; the other inhabitants adhere to the Augsburg confession.

Although the town, in proportion to its size, may be considered one of the most wealthy in Europe, the public buildings are very ordinary ; two, however, are worthy of particular notice, namely, the exchange and the church of St. Michael ; the steeple of the last of which rises four hundred feet above the ground ; but even these edifices are merely remarkable on account of their positions in the neighbourhood of narrow and dirty streets, brick houses, and buildings which recal the period of Charlemagne, who is believed to have been the founder of Hamburg. The only public walk within the town, is formed by a range of trees, planted near a large basin, called the *Binez-Alster*. Dense crowds frequent the public walk in the summer evenings, and the number of vessels that cover the basin, give it the appearance of a floating city. After London and Amsterdam, Hamburg is the most commercial town in Europe ; the inhabitants are affluent ; numerous equipages are seen on its streets ; the utmost activity prevails in the harbour from morning until two o'clock in the afternoon, and at that hour merchants of every description repair to the exchange. The interior of the houses corresponds with the wealth of the inhabitants, which is displayed in the ornaments of dress, and in the luxury and magnificence of the table. In Hamburg little deference is paid to rank or antiquity of family ; a man is estimated by the importance and extent of his mercantile transactions. The spirit of commerce seems to pervade every individual ; in the theatre and in the drawing-room, in balls and every other place of amusement, trade, the course of exchange, and mercantile speculations are the subject of conversation. Thus, there are few cities where the arts are so little cultivated or so little appreciated ; in the account of the most insignificant towns in Germany, mention has been made of scientific collections, museums, and libraries, but if strangers look for similar collections at all worthy of such a place as Hamburg, they will be disappointed. The books in the public library are not valuable or numerous, the museum of natural history belonging to the patriotic society contains nothing in any way remarkable, and it might be difficult to enumerate more than a very few individuals who devote part of their time to literature or science. These remarks, however, are less applicable to the places of education ; the number is perhaps sufficient for the wants, certainly for the tastes and pursuits of the inhabitants. The principal schools are a gymnasium, a commercial seminary, a drawing and naval academy ; in addition to these might be mentioned a pharmaceutical seminary and different gratuitous schools.^a

Although no mendicants are seen in the streets, yet it is said that there are no less than twelve thousand paupers in the town ; so great a number need hardly excite surprise, if it be recollected that even the necessaries of life are much dearer than in other parts of Germany. The expenses of the work-houses and hospitals are defrayed by the town. Asylums have been erected for lunatics, infirmaries for the sick, and establishments for the restoration of suspended animation and for the reception of those who are attacked with contagious fevers. Vaccination has also met with great encouragement. Not only merchandise, houses and

other kinds of property, but lives are insured. The life insurance company had in its coffers some years ago, a reserve of 1,200,000 marcs banco, or £200,000,^b to enable it to pay to the heirs of the insured, the capitals or incomes stipulated in their contracts.

The people in Hamburg are divided into three distinct classes, the *real burgesses*, the *petty burgesses*, and the foreign inhabitants.^c The real burgesses enjoy all the rights of citizens ; they only are eligible to the different offices in the state, and are permitted the free exercise of every sort of industry, and they are even exempt from paying duty on different goods that arrive in Hamburg vessels. The petty burgesses can only exercise certain kinds of industry, and they pay a yearly tax of one *thaler* for the protection which is granted to them. The foreign inhabitants are also liable to an annual contribution, but as soon as they are admitted, they must pay fifty *thalers*, if they engage in commerce, and forty, if they are artisans. Strangers cannot acquire property either within the town or territory of Hamburg, unless it be in the name of a burgess.

The Jews do not enjoy the rights of citizens, but they may possess houses in certain parts of the town. Although the right of citizenship is not hereditary, yet the sons of burgesses are entitled to some privileges, and they do not pay so great a sum as others for their admission. It was not before the year 1814, that the Christians who did not embrace the Augsburg confession, were allowed to become burgesses, or to hold offices in the state ; they are still excluded from the council.

The form of government is, as Stein calls it, *aristo-democratic* ; the sovereignty is vested in the council and in the burgesses ; the former consists of thirty-six members, amongst whom are included three mayors and eleven magistrates.^d The burgesses are represented by deputies, legally elected, and by hereditary burgesses. The last are the most wealthy and influential of the inhabitants.

Although Hamburg is a fortified town, the military establishment is not great ; the contingent to the confederation has been limited to thirteen hundred men,^e and a numerous national guard serves to defend the town and territory. Magistrates, clergymen, schoolmasters, physicians and surgeons are exempt from the military service ; all the other men in Hamburg, from the age of twenty to forty-six, must enter the national guard, except under peculiar circumstances.

The revenues collected in the town and territory, vary from twelve to fifteen millions of florins. Of all the imposts established by the French government, the stamps and excise are only continued ; these indirect contributions, though very moderate, yield on an average a monthly revenue of sixty thousand marcs ; government may thus, without burdening the people, pay the interest of the national debt, which amounted in 1810, to fifty-two millions of marcs.

Many branches of industry are carried on in Hamburg ; there were a few years ago forty sugar refineries, ten cotton printing establishments, which furnished employment to more than fifteen hundred workmen, twenty-five wire mills, many leather and soap works, more than a hundred velvet and silk looms, and several manufactories of gold and silver

^a "Hamburg possesses a gymnasium, several gratuitous schools of drawing, navigation and different trades, a commercial academy, and a pharmaceutical society." M. B.—A gymnasium, a Latin school, a commercial academy, a drawing school, and several parochial schools. (Hasscl.)—P.

^b "1,070,000 marcs banco, or 1 900,000 francs."

^c Stein's Geography, (in Germ.)

^d The council consists of 4 burgomasters, 24 councillors, 4 syndics and 4 secretaries or clerks. Ed. Encyc.

^e "Contingent about 1300 men"—1298 (Hasscl.)

lace, as well as of fine and coarse linen. The dried meat, known by the name of Hamburg beef, which forms a great article of exportation, is cured within its walls. More than twenty copper and brass founderies are situated in its territory or in the immediate vicinity. But the produce of its manufacturing industry, however great, becomes insignificant when compared with its foreign commerce.

It possesses more than two hundred ships, which carry its merchandise to the ports of neighbouring nations, and even to Portugal. It often sends considerable fleets to the whale fishery, and the number of vessels that enter or leave its port every year, amounts to more than twelve hundred. It carries on a very great trade in colonial produce; the reader may form some notion of its importance from the documents contained in the tables at the end of this book. It is one of the greatest marts for sugar and coffee of any town in Europe; the inhabitants themselves consume an immense quantity; it has been estimated at no less than 10,000,000 pounds annually, so that the proportion for every individual, amounts to more than ninety pounds.

The town is better fortified on the side of the land than towards the sea. A basin formed by a branch of the Elbe, serves as a place of anchorage for fresh water boats, and a road twenty feet in depth for larger vessels; the goods and merchandise are transported into the different store-houses, along the canals, which traverse the old town. Although a dike has been built along the river, Hamburg has been more than once inundated; in the year 1771, the waters broke through their barrier, and covered a great part of the neighbourhood and almost all the town; in 1790, the waters of the Elbe rose more than twenty feet in the course of a single night.

Hamburg and its territory form a surface of a hundred and two square miles;^a in the territory are situated a small town, two burghs, thirteen villages and fifty hamlets, the population of which is equal to 20,000 souls.

The territory of Lubeck is enclosed in the dutchy of Holstein; it contains two towns, and seventy-nine villages and hamlets. The extent of surface does not exceed ninety square miles,^b and the population amounts to forty-three thousand individuals.

Lubeck, the capital, contains nearly twenty-six thousand inhabitants. It is situated at the confluence of three rivers, the Trave, the Wackenitz and the Steckenitz, which, at the distance of three leagues, throw themselves into a gulf, that bears the name of the town. Few cities are more advantageously situated than Lubeck, for the Baltic trade. Built in the twelfth century by the emperor Conrad the Third,^c or as others affirm, by Godeschalk, king of the Heruli or Obotriti, in the year 1066, it became a century afterwards, the seat of a bishopric, which before that time had been established at Oldenburg. It was several times destroyed by the Danes, and as often rebuilt by its inhabitants. Wearing by the assaults to which it was exposed from its barbarous neighbours, it put itself, at the beginning of the thirteenth century, under the protection of Frederick the Second, who declared it a free and imperial city. It entered at a later period into the number of Hanseatic towns, and maintained for a long time a considerable influence in the affairs of the

league. In 1810, it was united to the French empire, and became the metropolis of a district^d in the department of the Mouths of the Elbe; its privileges as a free town were restored three years afterwards.

The government is vested in a supreme council composed of four mayors^e and sixteen counsellors, who are chosen from the most influential inhabitants. The spirit of independence, the result of commerce, may have prompted the people to embrace the Augsburg confession at the commencement of the reformation; but it is rather commercial rivalry than concern about religion, which has contributed to the persecution of the Jews in Lubeck, and the same intolerance, far from being diminished by the advances made in knowledge, appears to have gained ground in later times. According to a decree of the senate in 1816, all those who professed Judaism, were obliged to quit the town within a very short period; they had the choice of settling in the village of Moising about two leagues distant, or of leaving the territory.

Lubeck is surrounded with ramparts; the streets, though steep, are broad, straight, clean and well built. The edifices most worthy of notice are the cathedral, which contains several articles of antiquity, the church of St. Mary, noted for its curious clock, and the townhouse in which may be seen the celebrated Hanscatic hall, the council room, adorned with fine paintings, and the hall of the treasury; the arsenal and the exchange are nowise remarkable. Many useful institutions have been founded in the town; the most important are several elementary schools, a gymnasium, different boarding schools, two commercial seminaries, a school of surgery, a drawing academy for artisans, and another for the higher classes.^f Establishments have been founded for the suppression of mendicity, and the relief of the indigent; there are besides a house of correction, and an orphan hospital.

The revenues of the state were estimated a few years ago, at nearly a million of florins, and more than half that sum at least, was derived from the town.^g A tax which still subsists, was imposed on every citizen in 1816, to form a fund for the extinction of the public debt. The military force consists of a national guard divided into fifteen companies, and a contingent of six hundred men^h to the Germanic confederation.

The manufactures of Lubeck consist of tobacco, sugar, leather, soap, silk and cotton stuffs, coarse and fine linen, sail cloth, woollens, gold and silver lace, iron and brass wire, and lastly, ship-building. The commerce consists principally in colonial produce, in the exportation of grain, and in the importation of different products from Sweden, Russia, France, Holland, and England.

Large vessels arrive at Travemunde, a small fortified town, situated at the mouth of the Trave in the Baltic Sea. It is chiefly supported by the trade of Lubeck, and many strangers frequent it for sea-bathing. Its lighthouse commands an extensive view, which stretches on one side to a great distance over the sea, and on the other, beyond the territory of Lubeck.

The ancient Hanseatic towns of Bremen, Hamburg and Lubeck, seemed to have acquired the right of resuming

^a "17 sq. leagues" Fr.—133 Eng. sq. miles. (Morse.)

^b "Superficial extent, 15 sq. leagues" Fr.

^c Built A. D. 1144, by Adolphus II. Count of Holstein-Schaumburg during the reign of Conrad III. Conv. Lex.—P.

^d "Arrondissement."

^e Burgomasters.

^f "Lubeck possesses a gymnasium, several boarding schools, a commer-

cial institute, a drawing school for artisans, a school of industry, and a school of midwifery." M.B.—A gymnasium, a high school, a normal school, a school of surgery, a school of industry, a school of navigation, a commercial institute, and several elementary and charity schools. (Hassel.)—P.

^g "— formed the revenues of the town."

^h 406 men. (Hassel.)

their independence, at the time when the political divisions of Germany were determined by congress. As they had lost their independence merely by being incorporated in the French empire, it was thought equitable by the European diplomatists, that they should be restored to their ancient privileges after the fall of the conqueror. Besides, their situation at the extremity of Germany was likely to remove the fear of other states imitating their example. But Frankfort is different from the rest, and more interesting than any of them, inasmuch as it forms a small republic, almost in the centre of the Germanic confederation. It became independent at a time, too, when rulers sanctioned reluctantly any institutions in which liberty was admitted as a right, and not as a concession, revocable according to circumstances. It is true that Frankfort dates its freedom from as remote a period as the other towns that have been last described, but it had not been considered a conquest by Napoleon, nor had it been united to France; on the contrary, it had continued since 1806, the capital of a grand duchy, governed by the Prince Primate, when it was declared a free town in 1815. It might have become the most valuable possession of one of the states of the confederation, had it not excited the covetousness of the neighbouring principalities, such as Nassau, Hesse Darmstadt and electoral Hesse, in the midst of which its territory is enclosed. It was for these reasons, not from any consideration of equity or justice, that it gained an independence, to which its present commercial importance must be principally ascribed.

The extent of the territory is equal to five German or sixty English square miles;^a it contains, besides the capital, two burghs and five villages. According to the mean term of the different numbers, assigned by German geographers, the population cannot be estimated at less than sixty thousand.^b The town alone contains more than forty-five thousand inhabitants; the Catholics amount to five or six thousand, the Calvinists to two thousand, and the Jews to five thousand; the rest adhere to the Augsburg confession.

Frankfort, notwithstanding its monuments, palaces and many well-built houses, is not considered a fine town. The streets are for the most part gloomy, narrow and crooked. The cathedral, or the church of St. Bartholomew, a curious and ancient edifice, in which several emperors have been crowned, is supposed to have been built by Pepin or perhaps by Lewis the Pious, king of Germany, who died at Frankfort in the year 876. The golden bull of the emperor Charles the Fourth, is preserved in the Roemer or townhouse; it is written on forty-three sheets of old parchment, and was exhibited for a long time among the curiosities of Paris. Among the other buildings are the *Saalhof* or palace of Lewis the Debonnaire, which has been disfigured by modern additions, the palace of the Teutonic order, and the one that belonged to the prince of Tour and Taxis; besides these, may be mentioned the theatre, and the bridge over the Maine, the last of which commands a magnificent view, and is more than four hundred feet in length.

The name of *Frankfurt* or *Frankensfurt*^c appears to strengthen the tradition that the Franks assembled there in the fifth century, and passed from it into Gaul. It bore the title of a city, when Charlemagne enlarged it, after having

defeated the Saxons under its walls. The suburb on the left bank of the Maine, by which it is separated from Frankfort, is still known by the name of *Sachsenhausen*, whence it may be inferred that it was in early times inhabited by that people.

Frankfort distinguished itself by its zeal in the cause of the reformation; such was the violence of the different parties, that religious opinions occasioned insurrections and revolts, until the greater part of the inhabitants had embraced the doctrines of Luther;^d it acted too an important part in the league of Smalcalden.

It is to a more extensive commerce, that the great number of modern buildings must be chiefly attributed, which if they go on increasing in the same proportion, will soon render Frankfort little inferior to the finest towns in Germany. The new quay and the quarter of *Wollgraben* have been much embellished; they are every day becoming larger, and are likely ere long to form the most important part of the town.

Frankfort differs from Hamburg, in as much as many persons among the wealthy classes cultivate the arts and sciences. It would be foreign to our purpose to enumerate the galleries of paintings, and the valuable collections of engravings, antiquities, and objects of natural history, belonging to different individuals, but the public institutions are creditable to the republic. There are three gymnasiums, a school of medicine, two of drawing, one of architecture, one of painting and engraving, a mathematical seminary and several schools of art. The mount of piety was rather a calamity than a benefit to the people; the town has established in its stead, a fund destined for the assistance of petty merchants and artisans in carrying on their commerce and industry. The public library contains more than a hundred thousand volumes, besides several rare books and a parchment bible printed by Faust in the year 1462. A valuable collection of medals is attached to the same library.

According to the constitution of 1816, the sovereignty is vested in all the citizens, who are born in Frankfort or within its territory. The senate cannot confer the rights of citizens on strangers, until they have resided ten years in the town, nor then only on such as possess an independent fortune. The three branches of government are the senate, the legislative body and the deputies elected by the burghesses.^e The legislative body consists of twenty senators, as many members of the permanent deputation, and forty five burghesses, nominated by the citizens. No person can be elected before the age of thirty years, and if any refuse the office of deputy, they may be deprived of their rights and privileges as citizens.

The inhabitants of Frankfort are divided into three great Christian communities, which under the superintendance of the senate, provide separately for the maintenance of their clergy, churches and schools. But it cannot be remarked without exciting surprise, that in the nineteenth century both at Hamburg and at Frankfort, wise and enlightened rulers entertain such prejudices against the Jews, as serve to recal the ignorance and superstition of the middle ages. If it be owing to commercial jealousy that the leading men of Frankfort have refused the Jews all the rights and privileges of citizens, the measure is not less impolitic than unjust. The Jews are the only inhabitants of a separate quarter;

^a "14 geographical sq. leagues Fr."—110 Eng. sq. miles. (Morse.)

^b Hassel makes the population amount to fifty-two thousand, and Stern to seventy thousand souls.

VOL. III.—NO. 43.

^c Furt signifies a ford or passage.

^d A. D. 1530.

^e Standing committee of the citizens. (Hassel.)—Permanent deputation. (M. B.)

they are permitted to learn and to exercise certain trades ; but the reader may have some difficulty in believing that according to a decision of the legislative body in 1817, not more than fifteen Jewish marriages are allowed to take place in the course of a year, within the town and territory.^a

The revenue of Frankfort amounts to eighty thousand florins, and the public debt to three hundred thousand. The military force consists of a national guard and a corps of four hundred and seventy-nine men,—the contingent to the confederation.

Silk, linen, cotton and woollen stuffs may be mentioned among the manufactures ; the other articles are tobacco, playing cards, printing types, white wax, and porcelain which is little inferior to that of Dresden. But the principal sources of its wealth are its trade with Germany, of which it may be considered the emporium ; the continual commercial intercourse which it holds with the surrounding countries ; the advantages it derives from the navigation of the Rhine and the Maine ; and its two great fairs, the one at Easter, the other in September, which bring together more than sixteen hundred merchants from different parts of Europe.

The people boast that Charles the Bald was born in the town, and that the diets of the confederation are held there ; but in the opinion of some,^b it possesses better claims to

celebrity ; it gave birth to Goethe, and the first German gazette was published within its walls.

TABLES.

Commerce of Bremen in 1825.

Nine hundred and fourteen merchant vessels entered the port of Bremen.

Nations.	Number of Vessels.
United States	54
South America	11
West Indies	25
English	94
French	36
Portuguese	6
Spanish	5
Russian	44
Swedish and Norwegian	55
Hamburg	69
Lubeck	13
Mecklenburg	11
Prussian	28
Dutch	10
Hanoverian	53
Oldenburg	64
Bremish vessels and others belonging to different states and principalities in the confederation	336

Five whale ships sailed from Bremen to Greenland in the same year.

Table of the Grain Exported from Hamburg, from the Year 1815 to 1825, inclusive.

Years.	By Sea.			Into the Interior.			Oats. Quarters.	Peas. Quarters.	Beans. Quarters.	Malt. Quarters.	Buckwheat. Quarters.	Linseed. Quarters.	Rape. Quarters.	Vetches. Quarters.
	Wheat. Quarters.	Rye. Quarters.	Barley. Quarters.	Wheat. Quarters.	Rye. Quarters.	Barley. Quarters.								
1816	30,484	42,772	9,392	11,028	33,639	4,659	20,915	954	1,873	1,455	195	552	12,433	
1817	46,651	25,677	4,962	12,712	32,549	3,852	30,683	1,153	1,630	1,592	654	911	3,505	
1818	153,897	14,954	48,715	13,676	48,864	8,600	33,415	2,858	3,774	3,388	302		5,752	110
1819	37,794	2,208	60,452	14,384	35,908	10,712	11,613	1,076	2,267	2,235	98		5,505	207
1820	68,468	871	4,634	17,063	11,270	4,641	28,575	618	1,083	1,748	844	115	3,210	1,094
1821	20,001	414	5,485	17,082	8,865	4,269	13,625	508	725	1,963	4,991		6,492	358
1822	8,700	1,998	3,074	12,885	9,893	7,123	26,927	637	1,279	2,274	378	5	15,474	46
1823	36,291	8,346	6,050	15,042	12,260	4,248	25,866	525	600	1,897	1,969	221	19,163	172
1824	15,014	4,393	36,315	15,943	9,996	11,678	37,820	974	2,644	2,339	2,776	154	20,636	4,963
1825	65,329	2,863	112,217	27,403	18,968	14,686	17,348	4,777	2,074	2,480	1,624	38	9,624	3,564
Total.	482,629	104,499	291,326	157,218	222,212	74,468	246,487	14,110	17,949	21,371	13,831	1,176	101,794	10,514

Sugars imported from the year 1821 to 1825, inclusive.^c

Years.	lbs.
1821,	91,849,490
1822,	64,692,640
1823,	74,887,000
1824,	75,577,080
1825,	79,799,380

Coffee.

Years.	Imported. d	Exported or consumed.
1821,	21,591,160	22,000,000 pounds.
1822,	28,357,940	26,000,000
1823,	26,535,100	25,000,000
1824,	38,536,720	35,000,000
1825,	34,051,240	34,000,000

Variations in the price of Coffee from the year 1821 to 1825, inclusive.^e

Years.	Schillings Banco.
1821,	from 13 $\frac{7}{8}$ to 14 the pound.
1822,	from 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 12
1823,	from 11 to 11 $\frac{1}{4}$
1824,	from 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 8 $\frac{1}{4}$
1825,	from 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 6 $\frac{1}{4}$

^a Stein's Geography, (in Germ.)

^b "In our opinion." M. B.

^c The sugar which arrives at Hamburg is chiefly imported from Brazil and Havanna ; the same article is also imported from the United States, England, France and Holland.

The greater part of the sugar that enters Hamburg, is refined there, and notwithstanding the competition which it has to maintain with England, it exports annually more than 65,000,000 pounds of refined sugar.

^d The greater part of the coffee imported into Hamburg, comes directly from Havanna, Saint Domingo and Brazil ; the rest is brought from the United States.

^e It may be seen from the above table, that the price of coffee decreased every year from 1821 to 1825.

Years.	Indigo imported. ^f
1825,	{ Cases, 4,341 or 975,000 pounds. { Bags, ^g 286 or 18,000

Years.	Cotton imported. ^h
1825,	Bales 16,600 or 6,640,000 pounds.

Ships of different Nations that entered Hamburg.

Years.	Total
1824,	Total 1819.
	Vessels from North America - - - 41
	— from South America - - - 130
	— from different parts of the West Indies - - - 72
	— from England ⁱ - - - 645
1825,	Total 1863.
	Vessels from North America - - - 39
	— from South America - - - 125
	— from the West Indies - - - 79
	— from England - - - 757

Commerce of the Port of Lubeck.

Lubeck possesses about	75 trading vessels.
Number that enter its port annually, about	800

^f Indigo is by no means an important article in the trade of Hamburg ; indeed Hamburg and several other states are wholly dependent for their supply on the discretion of England. Indigo in cases comes from the East Indies, and indigo in bags from the West Indies.

^g Ceroons.

^h Although a great quantity of cotton is consumed in Germany, very little is imported into Hamburg ; it receives it from the United States, Colombia and different ports in America, from Egypt, India and the Levant, and also from different mercantile houses in Italy.

ⁱ Most of the English vessels carry ballast to Hamburg, and return with cargoes to England, a proof that many articles from Hamburg, are destined for the English markets.

BOOK CXXV

EUROPE.

Europe continued—Germany.—Ninth Section.—Description of Bohemia.

To complete the description of Germany, some account may be given of the different possessions of the Austrian monarchy, situated in that country. As Hungary and its dependencies have already been described, it is unnecessary to mention them farther; care must also be taken not to confound provinces which, from the manners, language and origin of the inhabitants, should be considered separately, for the geographer observes in the Austrian empire, within a much smaller compass, the same confused assemblage of heterogeneous parts, as in the vast empire of Russia.

Bohemia, which is now to be described, is a country, both in its physical and political geography, wholly distinct from the territories that surround it. It is equal in superficial extent to about nine hundred and fifty-three German or eleven thousand four hundred and thirty-six English square miles.^a

Bounded by Bavaria, Saxony and Prussian Silesia,^b it is encompassed by chains of mountains, that form a natural basin, once filled by a Caspian sea, in the depths of which were deposited the calcareous rocks that shall be afterwards mentioned. The fact that all the mountains which form the outline of the basin, have a gradual declivity toward the centre of the country, serves at first view to strengthen the belief concerning the ancient existence of such a sea. The greatest declivities are situated in the most northern part of the basin; thus the Elbe, which traverses that portion of the country, is enlarged by all the streams that descend from the mountains, and throw themselves, either into its channel, or into that of the Moldau, which unites with it. The outlet through which the Elbe leaves Bohemia, in its passage to the North sea, appears to be the same as the one by which the ancient Caspian discharged its waters into the ocean. Part of the sands that now cover the Prussian provinces of Magdeburg and Brandenburg, and the countries of Mecklenburg and Hanover, may probably be attributed to the eruption of the same sea. These hypotheses, founded on facts, are intimately connected with the most interesting department of physical geography.

Four principal chains enclose the basin: that of the Böhmer-Wald or Bohemian forest stretches from south-east to north-west, and joins that of the Erz-Gebirge, which extends from south-west to north-east, till it meets that of the Riesen-Gebirge; the latter follows a contrary direction,^c and unites with that of the Mährisches-Gebirge or Moravian mountains, which passing from north-east to south-west, terminates at the extremity of the Böhmer-Wald. These

chains, as some geographers have remarked, form an irregular four-sided figure. Bohemia, by being thus enclosed, is rendered an isolated country in the middle of Europe, and this circumstance, it may be readily inferred, has had not a little influence on the civilization and political constitution of its inhabitants. The lowest mountains are those which extending from north-east to south-west and south, separate Bohemia from Moravia and Lower Austria. The name of a small chain, the Teufel-Gebirge or Devil's mountains, at the southern extremity of the Böhmer-Wald, near the sources of the Moldau, seems to have some connection with an ancient idolatrous worship.

The Böhmer-Wald is a primitive chain, composed of granite, gneiss, micaceous schistus and sienite, and lastly of argillaceous schistus or slate and various other rocks belonging to the same epoch. The same substances are observed in the south, near the town of Krumau, on the banks of the Moldau, and also in the Erz-Gebirge, which has been already mentioned in the account of Saxony. The central mountains of Bohemia, or those which extend along the right bank of the Elbe, and join the Riesen-Gebirge, are less remarkable for their height than their rounded sides and summits, proofs that the rocks which compose them are of igneous origin. Even to the lowest declivities which terminate at some leagues to the north of Bunzlau, these mountains exhibit sandstone, basalt and other rocks that appear to have been modified by the action of subterranean fire. They are surrounded by calcareous deposits, abounding in fossil shells; thus, in the midst of the sea, which occupied the basin, volcanoes emitted torrents of lava. The same rocks which are observed in the Böhmer-Wald, are also exhibited on the side of the Riesen-Gebirge towards Bohemia; but the lowest declivities contain sandstone and limestone in parallel strata. Sandstone of a very soft texture, and which disintegrates easily, abounds in the Moravian mountains, particularly towards the north; it assumes the most singular forms, and at a distance deceives the stranger, who imagines he sees towers and villages, where no habitations are to be found. If the traveller descends these mountains, the sides of which are covered with forests, he may observe throughout the whole basin of Bohemia, calcareous rocks, that were deposited at the time when it was filled with water. The limestone is in many places covered with other deposits; rocks consisting chiefly of amphibole,^d and which hold an intermediate place between the primitive and secondary formations, are situated in the western part of the basin, in the neighbourhood of Plan. Granite and argillaceous schistus are not less common near

^a "2,649 geographical sq. leagues Fr."—20,922 Eng. sq. miles. (Morse.)

^b Also by Moravia and Austria on the south-east and south.

^c From north-west to south-east.

^d "Amphibolite," primitive trap.

Tem; alluvial deposits containing fossil wood and iron ore, which yields sixty-two parts of metal in a hundred, may be observed in the vicinity of Pograd, to the south of Eger. These alluvial deposits rest on micaceous schistus, and similar arrangements are remarked near Prague, between Marienbaden and Ogerloch. The Commerberg, a volcanic cone, not far from Eger, is covered with lava and scoriae, and other heights of the same kind extend at different distances to Carlsbad.^a Traces of volcanoes are observable near Tœplitz, and also a sort of red porphyry, from which the celebrated mineral springs take their rise. Horizontal layers of marly limestone rest on the porphyry, but in some places, its displacement has given them a very considerable inclination. Lastly, the Mittel-Gebirge or central chain of the country, which extends along the course of the Elbe, appears, according to a German geologist,^b to have been the centre of the volcanic phenomena, that have left so many traces on the southern declivities of the Erz-Gebirge; basalt and other rocks of an igneous origin are seen there in every direction.

Although the volcanoes in Bohemia belong to that class which burned before the period, when the earth was inhabited by man, yet the country is still subject to shocks, occasioned by subterranean fires. Several took place in the month of January, 1824, in the chain of the Erz-Gebirge and in the districts of Eger and Elnbogen. Their direction was from north to south, south-west and south-east; they were accompanied in some places with a noise resembling thunder; in others many springs were dried up.^c

A country in which the rocks are so various, and the volcanic remains so numerous, abounds generally with mineral springs; at least Bohemia forms no exception to the rule. Such as are most resorted to, are situated in the northern districts; it may suffice to give the reader some notion of their number and celebrity, to mention the springs of Sedlitz, those of Satzka in the district of Kaurzim, and those of Strobnitz in that of Bechin, the alkaline springs of Bilin, Carlsbad and Tœplitz, the ferruginous springs of Bechin near Trautnau, the baths of Kleinkuchel in the district of Beraun, and those of Tetschen in that of Leitmeritz, and lastly, the ferruginous springs of Eger.

The two principal feeders of the Elbe are the Moldau and the Eger; the first traverses Bohemia from its southern extremity to Melnick; the length of its course is more than a hundred and thirty-five miles.^d From the Teufel-Gebirge to Prague, a distance of about ninety miles,^e it has a fall of two hundred and sixty-nine feet. The Eger, which rises in the Fichtel-Gebirge near its junction with the Bœhmer-Wald, and enters the Elbe at Theresienstadt, has a less rapid course, for its fall does not exceed a hundred and fifty-eight feet in a distance of seventy-nine miles.^f ^g

Several extensive lakes are situated in the country; the largest are that of Teschmitz in the district of Klattau, that of Plokenstein in the mountains of the same name, and that of Kummer in the district of Saatz. But the number of ponds is much greater; in 1786, they were reckoned at more than twenty thousand, and according to the calculations that were then made in order to regulate the contributions, their surface was not less than a hundred and thirty-two thousand seven hundred acres;^h their num-

^a Gœthe, *Naturwissenschaft*.

^b Leonhard, *Zeitschrift für Mineralogie*.

^c See the observations published by M. Hallaschka, *Archiv. für die gesammte Naturlehre*, v. I. p. 320.

^d "60 leagues."

^e "40 leagues."

ber, however, has since been reduced by draining. That of Ezeperka near Pardubitz is one of the most extensive; it contains several considerable islands covered with trees. Many marshes, formed by the annual inundations of rivers, or by the waters which descend from the mountains into the low vallies, are situated in different parts of the kingdom; but as none of them are large, it is unnecessary to describe them.

The climate of Bohemia is modified by the nature of the country, its lofty mountains, extensive plains, and deep vallies. It is temperate in the central districts and on the south-western frontiers, but the mountains covered with forests have an influence on the temperature to a considerable distance from their base. The variation of Reaumur's thermometer at Prague, gives the annual mean term of +7. 7°. It has been proved by registers kept at the observatory in the same town, that the greatest heat is from +23° to +24° of Reaumur, and the greatest cold, about -16°. The thermometrical variations at Eger, in the remotest part of the western frontier, indicate a mean term of +7. 4°, while at Krumau near the southern extremity, it is not greater than +6. 9°.

The most prevalent winds in Bohemia blow from south-east and south-west.ⁱ The east and north-east winds are almost always accompanied with rain, but the north, north-west, and south-west winds, are sure signs of dry weather. The quantity of rain that falls yearly, amounts to eighteen or nineteen inches; the evaporation that takes place in the shade, to fourteen. The average number of rainy days, observed in a series of eighteen years, was annually equal to ninety; the proportion that subsisted between days of calm and cloudless weather, and those in which the weather was rainy, or the sky more or less covered with clouds, was as one to five.^k

No accurate information can be obtained concerning the earliest people that inhabited Bohemia; it is known however that they were subdued, and in a great measure destroyed by the Boii, who under the command of Sigovesus, settled in the country about six centuries before the Christian era. Strabo, Pliny, and other writers, make mention of the same people, from whom the present name of Bohemia is derived.

The Boii experienced for a long period all the vicissitudes of war; their history is confined to migrations, victories and defeats—the results of battles with their neighbours. Ancient writers mention them as possessing at one time the country beyond the Danube, or in other words, the basin of Bohemia, and at another time, the lands between the Danube and the Drave, and lastly, as settled in Thraee and Illyria. Some degree of confusion, therefore, naturally arises as to the countries which they occupied; hence Pelloutier supposes that they all issued from Gaul or Italy. Mentelle appears to be the only author, who has thrown any light on the migrations of the Boii; according to that writer, they accompanied Bellovesus, who marched at the head of several barbarous tribes, in his expedition into Italy. These Boii were then settled on the northern declivities of the Apennines in the present territory of Bologna, and their name seems to indicate that they were only a colony belonging to the nation which occupied Bohemia.

^f "35 leagues."

^g J. M. Lichtenstern, *Umriss einer Geographisch-statistischen Schilderung des Königreichs Böhmen*.

^h "Jochs."

ⁱ The south-east is the most prevalent, and next the south-west. M. B.

^k See Lichtenstern's Essay, cited above.

After the fruitless attempt of Bellovesus, the Boii were repulsed by the Romans, and forced to retreat to the Danube, near the frontiers of Illyria; subdued and nearly annihilated by the Getæ, the country to which they had migrated, remained desert, whence Strabo calls it the desert of the Boii.^a But the great body of the people, who inhabited the basin of Bohemia, were not long secure from the attacks of their neighbours. About two hundred and eighty years before the birth of our Saviour, the Cimbri attempted to subdue them, but were defeated. It was not until thirty or forty years after the vulgar era, that the Marcomanni^b expelled them, and took possession of their territory. The Boii found a new country in the plains watered by the Danube, that form at present a part of Bavaria. It is on that account that Tacitus says, that although the inhabitants are changed, the name of Bohemia still remains, and serves to perpetuate the remembrance of its ancient occupants.^c Although the Boii were driven from their territory by the Marcomanni, they held no mean reputation in Germany; they joined the Helvetii, and invaded Gaul, while the Ædui resisted Cæsar;^d after the defeat of the Helvetii, the Roman general did not compel the Boii to seek for shelter in the Hercynian forest, but in consideration of their valour and courage, and at the request of the Ædui, he made over to them a part of the territory of the latter. Thus, it appears from these details, that the Boii have several times changed their country; but it must not be inferred that their different possessions were inhabited by five distinct people of the same name; on the contrary, it was the same people, who at different epochs settled in five different countries.

According to Tacitus, the Marcomanni were the most powerful people of any in the territories between the Danube and the Hercynian forest; the fact that they conquered Bohemia, may confirm the opinion of the historian. They were governed by kings, chosen from the most illustrious families of their nation, but after the reign of Augustus, the Romans placed foreign rulers over them. Rome, however, did not assist these rulers with her arms, but supplied them with gold and silver.^e Maroboduus is of all the native princes, the one most frequently mentioned in the annals of Tacitus. Strabo informs us that after having passed his youth at Rome under the protection of Augustus, he was called to govern his countrymen. The commencement of his reign was prosperous; he led the Marcomanni to the conquest of Bohemia, and made himself master of the country inhabited by the Boii. He subdued several neighbouring states, and enriched himself with their spoils. He possessed great influence over a portion of Germany, and formed a league, consisting of the Hermunduri, Quadi, Semnones, Longobardi and other nations, against Hermann or Arminius, who had become formidable after having defeated the legions of Varus. But in this contest Maroboduus was unsuccessful; in vain he implored the assistance of the Romans; they saw with secret joy, the enemies who had resisted their yoke, weakened by divisions amongst themselves. Abandoned by his allies, without authority over his people, Maroboduus had no other resource than to implore the protection of Germanicus,

who granted him an asylum in Italy, where he passed the rest of his days.

The descendants of the Marcomanni, at the time when the Roman power began to decline, were compelled to give up their country to different nations, whose names were hardly known to the Romans. These nations migrated from Poland and the north of Hungary, and were known by the general denomination of Slavi. The time when they first invaded Bohemia is uncertain; indeed little is known of their history before the sixth century. They were called *Tchekhes*^f or *Czechs* by the western Slavi, a name, which in their language signifies the *First*, probably because the country they inhabited, was nearest to Germany. Their government was at first republican, but through fear lest they should be expelled from Bohemia by the Avars and the Huns, they chose a sovereign, who, if tradition may be credited, was Samo, a Franconian merchant, a man of wisdom and courage; he governed them for a number of years, and freed them from the yoke of the Avars. A regency was appointed at his death, and it continued until *Krock* was elected; that prince was succeeded by his daughter Libussa, surnamed the magician, who reigned with Przemysl^g her husband, between the years 722 and 745. The sovereignty was hereditary for several generations, but the early part of the Bohemian history is involved in obscurity. Little is known concerning it, before the middle of the ninth century; until that period they continued in idolatry, and had to oppose at the same time, the attacks of the Germans, and the sermons of the monks, who were continually sent from Rome. Fourteen princes and the grand duke Borziwoy^h were baptized in the year 894, and Prague was erected into a bishopric in 972, during the reign of Boleslaus II.

The dignity of grand duke was elective until the middle of the eleventh century. Brzetislawⁱ was the first, who enacted a law in the year 1053, making the succession hereditary, but the law did not continue in force long after the death of the prince. Otho the First conquered Bohemia, and added it to the empire in 1086. Henry the Fifth conferred on duke Brzetislaw the Second, the title of king, in 1086, and from that period the monarchy was elective.

The country was much improved by the German colonists that settled there during the ninth century; for Bohemia, isolated from other nations, did not emerge from barbarism before the introduction of Christianity, which by opening communications with Rome, prepared the way for the civilization of the Slavi. About the beginning of the thirteenth century, Ottocar encouraged German workmen and artists of every kind; under the same prince, industry was diffused in the towns, and commerce freed from its shackles. Order and tranquillity were maintained, and written laws were kept in the principal cities. His successor, Ottocar the Second, who was called to the throne of Austria, extended his power not only over Bohemia, but over a part of Silesia, Poland and Prussia. Possessing the same views, he continued the work of his father, protected the arts and sciences, and encouraged the introduction of the German language, as the great means of enlightening

^a Strabo, book VII. chap. II. section 5.

^b *Marcomani*, Tacitus.

^c Manet adhuc Boihemi nomen, significatque loci veterem memoriam, quamvis mutatis cultoribus. Tacitus, De Moribus Germanorum, sect. 28.

^d The Ædui at that time were the allies or rather subjects of the Romans. An attempt was however made by the Helvetii to attach them to their cause, through the agency of Dumnorix.—P.

^e Tacitus, De Moribus Germanorum.

^f Germ. *Tschechen*.

^g Premislaus.

^h Borziwoj (Busching,) Borzivoje or Borivory (Moreri,) Borivorius, Borzivori.

ⁱ Wratislaus.

his subjects. The manners and language of the people had undergone great changes about the commencement of the fourteenth century; at that time the laws were written in German. Prague, which was one of the most important cities in Germany, became the seat of the arts and sciences.

The emperor Charles the Fourth had been elected king of Bohemia, but the states of the kingdom declared the monarchy hereditary in his family. It was to the same prince that the capital was indebted for its university. Wenceslaus, his son and successor, reformed the laws, and substituted the national language in the different courts. John Huss and Jerome of Prague, flourished in the same reign; but the inhabitants were too ignorant to appreciate their wise and enlightened views concerning religious reform, their virtues, talents and noble disinterestedness. These apostles of the reformation appeared in the world at too early a period; they were not understood, their characters were calumniated. Intriguing persons made use of their own expressions to excite a civil war, which although it may have rendered Ziska, the brave and disinterested chief, illustrious, served only to protract the existence of abuses, which good men wished to see abolished. The monarchy became again elective after the death of Wenceslaus.

Ferdinand, archduke of Austria, obtained the sovereignty in 1526; his reign forms an epoch, not only because the hereditary succession was established in his family, and the prerogatives of the Bohemian states were restricted in the election of their kings, but because in his time, great advances were shown to have been made in knowledge. The prince endeavoured in vain to check the progress of civilization; it was in vain that he protected the Jesuits, and banished all those who were thought favourable to the reformation; neither was it attended with any advantage that censors prohibited books from being sold or published in his dominions; the impulse which had been given to the age could not be checked. The art of printing diffused among the wealthy classes, the writings of the ancients, and the most admired compositions in every language. If many read the works of Erasmus, it was partly Ferdinand's fault, because he permitted a translation of them to be dedicated to himself; so far at least, he weakened unknowingly the effects of his system.

Ferdinand's successor, Maximilian the Second, followed a different line of policy: wise and tolerant, he granted in 1567, the benefits of religious liberty to all his subjects; but those who opposed freedom of conscience, failed not to excite obstinate fanatics to resist the protestants;—violent controversies, reiterated complaints and exorbitant demands were the fruits of his liberal system. Matthias, who reigned next, thought fit to impose new restrictions on the protestants; in place of controversies, insurrections and revolts ensued. The thirty years' war added to the calamities of Bohemia; its population was diminished, its finances were exhausted. The effects of such evils might have continued for a long period, had not Maria Theresa appeared and removed them. It is to that empress that Bohemia owes the abolition of slavery, and the freedom of industry; to the same celebrated woman the country is indebted for many wise laws, a better administration of justice, an improved system of education, and different institutions which, although not to be compared with those that have recently insured the prosperity of several European states, are not on that account the less beneficial to a people, whose rulers adopt slowly the improvements of enlightened governments.

According to the federative act of 1815, Bohemia forms a part of the Germanic confederation. As an integral portion of the Austrian monarchy, the succession to the throne passes in a direct line to the different members of the reigning family. According to the fundamental law of the kingdom, its political organization remains on the same footing as in past ages. The king, at his coronation, takes an oath not to alienate the kingdom, to respect the constitution, protect the states, and preserve the privileges conferred on them by the emperors Ferdinand the Second, Ferdinand the Third and their successors, to maintain justice, and support the catholic religion with all his power.

The states are divided into four classes; the clergy, the higher nobles or lords, the petty nobility or knights, and, lastly, the royal towns. Their deputies form a general assembly, as often as they are called together by the king, who appoints a commissioner to preside over them. Their functions are very limited; they may deliberate on the means of executing what is proposed by the crown, but they cannot petition, much less can any proposition emanate from them, without the authority of the government or of the commissioner who represents the government; for, according to Lichtenstern, the king of Bohemia is, as he has always been, absolute sovereign of the country. In these assemblies, the clergy, who by a law of Ferdinand, are superior to the other states, take an oath of allegiance to the crown. They are represented by the archbishops and bishops, the grand prior of the order of Malta, and the other prelates in the kingdom. The princes, dukes, counts and barons are the members of the higher nobility, and the eight most important offices in the state must be filled by individuals belonging to that body.

Although the number of royal towns is not less than forty-eight, four only are entitled to elect deputies. These privileged towns are Prague, Budweis, Pilsen and Kuttenberg. Other towns are directly subject to the government; three of them, Saatz, Kommotau and Kaaden, are represented. The protected cities, as they are called, form a third class; although they may be situated in seigniories, they are freed from seigniorial burdens and imposts. Most of the towns having mines in their territory, belong to the last class.

Although these distinctions exist, and others by which the peasants are divided into four classes, namely, the proprietors of land, the tenants of houses,^a farmers or tenants of land, and, lastly, the day labourers or workmen, still in the administration of justice, the law acknowledges no difference in individuals, and the police watches with equal vigilance over them all.

The unjust laws that have been passed against the Jews, show not only the striking difference between the Austrian government and the more enlightened governments of Europe, but serve to keep up in the minds of the Bohemians, prejudices as inveterate against the same people as those that existed in the dark ages. The hatred and contempt in which the lower orders of Christians in different nations hold the Jews, may be explained by those who know how difficult it is to eradicate false opinions, strengthened by religious belief. But it is not so easy to explain why those who are called to the government of the state, participate in the same errors. The degraded state of the Jews in Bohemia must be imputed to the government under

^a "Proprietors of houses."

which they live; if they are the worthless and despicable set of people they are supposed to be, the necessity of reclaiming them seems to be more urgent. But the Jews cannot be reformed, nor can they be made useful members of the community, if they are suffered to remain in ignorance, if they are rendered indifferent as to character, and if the law is made the echo of the popular prejudices against them.

Some necessary consequences of the Austrian policy in this respect, may be briefly mentioned. All agree that the Jews in Bohemia have made no advances in civilization for more than half a century. They observe strictly the fundamental principles of a religion that separates them from other nations. They refuse to drink out of the glass that a Christian has used; they abstain from wine on their journeys, if none can be got which has been put into casks or bottles by their brethren; the flesh of every animal slain by a Christian is considered unclean.

It ought, on the other hand, to be recollected, that the Christians in Bohemia have committed flagrant acts of injustice against the Jews; it has been determined more than once to banish them the kingdom, and the sentence has been as often averted only by pecuniary services or presents to men in power. A law was enacted in 1817, for the purpose of preventing their increase, by which no woman can marry before the age of eighteen, and no man before that of twenty-two. If any enter into wedlock at an earlier period, such marriages are null, and the rabbis that celebrate them are banished. Can it be supposed, after the statement of these facts, that the Jews in Bohemia enjoy all the privileges of other citizens, that their property and wealth are equally secure? Government has shown its regard for them by putting them without the pale of ordinary legislation. If two persons are prevented from marrying because the one is only seventeen and the other only twenty-one years of age, what else is it than to encourage immorality and adultery? It is by such means that profligacy and seduction may perhaps become common among a people who, whatever their faults may be, are an example to Christians for conjugal fidelity.

The author from whom these details have partly been taken,^a commends the oppressive measures of the Austrian government against the Jews, a proof that great acquirements are not incompatible with unfounded prejudice. If he may be believed, the Jews cannot be enlightened by education, they are altogether destitute of generous sentiments. It was rightly maintained thirty years ago,^b continues the same author, that the number of Jews in the kingdom was a great evil; they have always been the objects of popular hatred, but their gradual increase may render vain both the vigilance of the police and the *wise laws* that have been past against them. The facts on which M. Lichtenstern founds his opinion shall be afterwards examined; certainly much weight cannot be attached to them, if they be confined to the pretended crime of usury, and the commercial superiority which distinguishes the Jews, and excites the nation against them.

Before the edict of Joseph the Second was passed,^c it might have been inferred from the rigour with which as many were punished as were suspected of being protes-

stants, that the whole nation was devoted to the church of Rome. But no sooner was liberty of conscience proclaimed, than whole towns became suddenly Lutheran. Although protestants of almost every denomination have since that time been protected by government, still they are not very numerous; the proportion between them and the catholics is nearly as one to thirty-three. Thus, notwithstanding the edict of Joseph the Second, the cloisters are as thickly peopled as formerly; the number of convents is not less than seventy-six,^d but only five of them are inhabited by women.

The archbishop of Prague is styled a prince of the kingdom, and receives from Rome the title of legate of the holy see; he as well as the other bishops are nominated by the king; the pope merely confirms their appointment. No bull can be published in the kingdom without the consent of government. The highest spiritual courts which the protestants acknowledge, are the consistories of Prague and Vienna.^e The Jewish worship is under the direction of a council, the members of which are the great Rabbi of Prague, and two assistants.

The present population of Bohemia is not accurately known; according to the last census, that of 1818, it amounted to 3,275,866 inhabitants; in that number there were 1,520,934 males, and 1,754,932 females. It appears from the most authentic accounts, that the country did not contain more than 2,887,769 inhabitants in 1791, so that the increase in a period of twenty-seven years, was equal to 388,097 individuals. The population in 1827 may thus be nearly ascertained by a very simple calculation; in short if the third part of 388,097 be added to the census of 1818, then the result gives nearly the number of inhabitants in 1827. The population of 1827, thus calculated, amounts to 3,405,231 individuals, but that number is rather under than above the truth, for the years that have elapsed since the peace, have been favourable to population.^f

The inhabitants consist chiefly of three distinct people: the Tchekhes or Slavonians, the Germans and the Jews. The first form two thirds of the population in the kingdom. The circle of Elnbogen is wholly, and other circles are partly peopled by Germans; their total number does not exceed eight hundred and fifty thousand; as to the Jews, they may be equal to fifty thousand.

Most of the Germans who settled in the country about the ninth century, migrated from Saxony, and were employed in working the mines; the rest were almost all artisans, who came from different countries on the banks of the Rhine, at that time too populous, and settled in the towns. They were so numerous in Prague, at the commencement of the fourteenth century, and possessed so great a preponderance from their wealth, that the most important offices were committed to them. The university of Prague, which was founded in the same century, tended to increase their number; for the desire of knowledge attracted many students from Germany, and not a few settled in the country. Lastly, when the partisans of John Huss, who were all of Slavonic origin, were persecuted and obliged to quit Bohemia, the most of their property was confiscated and divided among German nobles, who, like the nobility under Lewis the Fourteenth, enriched themselves with the spoils

^a Lichtenstern.

^b By the counsellor Rieger.

^c Edict granting toleration to the Protestants, Oct. 13, 1781.

^d "76 convents, chapters or fraternities."

^e "The consistory of Prague and Vienna." The Protestants in the

German Austrian states and in Galicia are subject to the consistory of Vienna. (Hassel).—P.

^f The time elapsed from 1818 to 1827 is equal to nine years; the increase in twenty-seven years is known; if the third part of it therefore be added to the census for 1818, it gives the population in 1827.

of the protestants, and had no scruples about receiving ill-gotten wealth. If to these causes, so favourable to the settlement of the Germans in Bohemia, be added the protection they acquired when the country came under the government of Austria, for since that period, Germans have filled the highest offices in the state, it may be easily explained, why their influence is so great, although their number is comparatively inconsiderable, and also why their language is so generally diffused. The lower orders among the Tchekhes still retain their language, which together with the German is spoken by the middling classes.

The Tchekhe or Bohemian language is one of those Slavonic dialects which have been styled Bohemo-Polish, by M. A. Balbi.^a It differs from the other dialects, such as the Polish, Croatian and Ragusan, not merely in its grammatical forms, but by its use of the German characters, for in the others, the Roman letters are used. The Bohemians sprung from the Tchekhes, may be easily known by their pronunciation. The German Bohemians retain the Bavarian, Saxon, Silesian or Austrian pronunciation, according as they are descended from the one or the other of those nations, or according as they inhabit the frontiers adjacent to them.

The people in Bohemia are strong and laborious, active and well made. According to calculations published by Rieger and Lichtenstern, three individuals die annually out of a hundred; the proportion between the deaths and births, is as a thousand to a thousand three hundred and forty-four; out of ten thousand infants, a hundred and ninety-nine are still-born; the number of births is to the population as one to twenty-three. The total number of deaths amount to nearly ninety thousand, and of these seven hundred and seventy are violent or occasioned by accidents. But the mortality is not so great in some remote quarters in the districts of Beraun, Bitschow, Bunzlau, Chrudim, Czaslau, Klattau and Prachin; the deaths there do not make up a fortieth or a forty-fifth part of the population. Numerous examples of longevity might be mentioned; there are many individuals between ninety and a hundred years of age. It is stated that in 1801, out of five thousand nine hundred and thirty-five persons, seven hundred and fifty had passed their hundredth year, and twenty-nine were upwards of a hundred and ten. The proportion of natural children at the same period, was nearly eight to a hundred, or seventy-six to a thousand. The mean duration of marriages is about twenty-two years and two months, and the mean number of children from every marriage, about four. One marriage takes place yearly out of every hundred and thirty-four inhabitants, and the total number of married men in 1817, amounted to 569,793. It may be worth while to compare some of these facts, which relate only to the Christian population, with others relative to the Jews; among them the number of deaths is hardly one in sixty-two, but the number of births does not exceed one in forty-three.

The Germans and Tchekhes differ as much in their character as in their language; they resemble each other only in their strict observance of religious ceremonies, in their devotedness to their sovereign, and in their hatred against the seigniorial nobility. The Slavonians may be distinguished from the Germans by the care which they take of their property, and by their constant desire of add-

ing to it; they are less susceptible of attachment, less faithful in their affections, and more addicted to society, dissipation and amusement. They boast of their prudence, but it consists principally in not trusting their neighbours, particularly the Germans, whom they still consider enemies. In the military service, the soldiers of both nations rival each other in zeal and courage. The mountaineers are distinguished by a greater aptitude for the arts, and by a generosity and a dignity of character, which are rarely observed among the people in the plains.

The stranger, who travels through Bohemia, must perceive a great difference in the dress of the inhabitants; it does not, as in other countries, depend merely on rank or fortune; it serves to distinguish the Slavonian from the German, and the German from the Jew. The Slavonic dress may be known on the mountains and in the plains by its resemblance to the Polish costume. Although some Germans have adopted it, the observer does not confound them with the other inhabitants, the character of their physiognomy is so widely different. These remarks are only applicable to the lower orders; the middling as well as upper classes of society, dress like the French, for the fashions of that country are soon adopted by the gay and the wealthy. The Jews have retained the costume which is used by the lower orders, but they may be easily known, as they are the most filthy class of people in the country.

The food of the inhabitants is very different in different districts, and the cause depends more on the nature of the soil, than on the wealth and poverty of the people. Barley and oat meal, milk and potatoes, are generally used in the mountains, particularly by the labourers; beer is reserved for holy-days. But in the vallies and the plains, where nature is more profuse, the husbandmen have better and more substantial nourishment. The use of animal food is not so rare, and beer or wine is the ordinary drink. The Jews are more sober and abstemious than the other inhabitants; their thin and emaciated forms seem almost to prove that they deprive themselves of the necessary quantity of subsistence. Although in a wretched and degraded state, they never take wine, spirits, or any strong drink to excess; it is the Christian only that gets drunk on festivals and holy-days.

It might be concluded from the consideration in which landed proprietors are held in most parts of Bohemia, that agriculture is well understood, and that the husbandman derives from his fields, whatever they are capable of producing. The truth is, however, that there are few countries where agriculture is not better understood. The cause must be principally attributed to the inveterate prejudices and slothful habits of the peasantry; those districts in which, from the quality of the soil, one might expect to find the most abundant harvests, yield but scanty crops. But in the mountains, on the other hand, poor lands and inclement seasons, though great obstacles to fruitful harvests, have rendered the people more active and intelligent. It results from their efforts that some of the higher districts produce more than is sufficient for the local consumption, and indeed the district of Leitmeritz in the central chain, has been called the *Paradise of Bohemia*. If in the lower part of the country, which is naturally the most productive, a better system of agriculture was adopted, if government excited the husbandmen to labour, by encouraging the circulation of their products, by opening outlets for commerce, and by improving the breed of cattle, which are every

^a Atlas Ethnographique.

where deficient both in number and quality, the country might assume a new aspect, acquire a greater political importance, and become one of the brightest ornaments in the crown of Austria. The breeding of sheep is neglected not only in the chain of the Riesen Gebirge, which contains good pasturage, but throughout the whole kingdom. No reason can be assigned why as valuable sheep might not be reared in Bohemia as in Saxony or Silesia. Sheep are certainly more valuable than goats which are every year increasing in the country. All agree that the Bohemian horses are of an excellent quality; many are kept in different places by government for the purpose of improving the breed,^a and a strong, active and hardy race has thus been naturalized.

The climate of Bohemia does not appear favourable to the culture of the vine; the quantity of wine produced annually is estimated at only 2,600 *eimers* or 540,000 gallons.^b It is however more than six hundred years since the vine was first introduced into Bohemia. Plants were imported by Charles the Fourth^c from Burgundy and the banks of the Rhine; wine, it has been affirmed, was then so abundant as to render it unnecessary to import any from foreign countries.^d

The culture of fruit trees is found to be profitable; their number has increased considerably within the last twenty years, but at that time, however, it amounted to nearly eleven millions, consisting principally of apple, pear, plum, and cherry trees;^e their annual produce forms an important branch of commerce.

The next most productive plants are hops and flax; the first is cultivated in all the more fertile soils; there are two kinds of it, the common and the green hop, the last of which is propagated spontaneously.

All the different trees that are known in Germany, grow in the forests of Bohemia; they yield annually a quantity of timber much more than sufficient for the wants of the people; the greater portion is therefore exported.

The rearing of the industrious insects that furnish honey and wax, is common in most parts of the country; the number of hives belonging to the peasantry cannot be estimated at less than sixty thousand.

The mountains and the forests abound in different sorts of game, some of which multiply in the plains. The rivers, lakes and ponds are stored with various kinds of fish; more than two thousand quintals are sold or exported every year from the seigniorship of Pardubitz in the district of Chrudim. The country is mostly supplied with trouts from the lordship of Bidschow. In some of the ponds, carps weighing from twenty to thirty pounds are not unfrequently taken. Many fresh water pearls are collected in the Moldau, the Elster and other rivers. Salmon are frequently caught in the Elbe, and also the fish which the Germans call the welsfish (*Silurus Glanis*, Linnæus,) that weighs from ninety to a hundred pounds. The same fish attains a greater size in the Danube; next to the sturgeon, it is the largest of any that are found in fresh water.

The head of the silurus is broad and flat; the mouth, which is very large, is furnished with a great number of

small teeth; the back is round and of a greenish black, the belly of a bright green, and black spots are scattered over the body. The fins are yellow, tipped with blue, and dotted with the same colour. The silurus has a voracious appetite; it seeks during the night, the spawn along the banks of the rivers, or the carcasses of birds and quadrupeds which the waters have thrown on the shores. A naturalist affirms that the remains of children have been found in their stomach.^f As it is slow in its motions, and as its fins are short, it seldom overtakes its prey by swimming; it is probably on that account that it remains always during the day under stones or the roots of trees, or in holes. Concealed by the ooze, its dark colour renders it invisible to the other fish; its whiskers^g appear above the mud, and in their movements and size, have some resemblance to worms; the small fish are attracted by the bait, but as it keeps its mouth open, they are not aware of the danger, until it is too late to escape. The silurus grows slowly, and its life is consequently of long duration; it is taken by the hook and the spear; the flesh of the animal is white, soft and fat, but difficult of digestion.

It is difficult to examine any mineralogical collections without being convinced of the fact that Bohemia abounds in minerals. It is in the chain of the Erz-Gebirge that the most extensive works are carried on, while in the southwestern part of the country, the mines so celebrated in ancient times, are now wholly exhausted. The only tin mines in Bohemia and in the whole Austrian empire are situated on the declivities of the Erz-Gebirge; their produce does not amount annually to more than nine thousand quintals. Attempts have lately been made to work some gold mines at the base of the Riesen-Gebirge. More than eight centuries ago, the district of Kaurzin was so rich in that metal, that about the year 998, the single mine of Tobalka, yielded ten thousand^h marks of gold. It is admitted however, that the experiments, which have been hitherto made, have not corresponded with the expectations of the miners; still the gold washings on the banks of the Eule, the Sazawa, the Wottawa, the Lesnitz and other rivers, which flow through alluvial lands, are continued with some success. The silver mines in the district of Tabor, on the side of the Moravian mountains, are not productive. Several copper mines are situated in other districts, but they are not so productive as the lead mines, although the produce of the latter does not exceed seven or eight thousand quintals. The silver mines yield annually about two thousand four hundred marks. The iron mines are without doubt the most important of any in the kingdom; they are worked in almost all the mountains, and the quantity of forged iron thus obtained, is not less than two hundred thousand quintals. Zinc, arsenic and mercury are obtained in different parts of the country; coals are abundant, and the salt springs are sufficiently productive to supply not only Bohemia but lower Austria.

It is sufficient to mention among the numerous mineral springs in the country, those of Tœplitz, Carlsbad and Sedlitz, which are so celebrated that it may be necessary to enter into some details concerning them. The waters of Tœplitz are saline, ferruginous and alkaline; their tempera-

^a The most important establishments of this kind (*haras*, studs,) are those at Blatto, Alt-Bunzlau, Chlumetz, Josephstadt, Klattau, Königgrätz, Nemoschutz, Nimburg, Pardubitz, Pilsen, Pisek, Podiebrad, Prague, Tabor, Theresienstadt and Kladrub.

^b "About 20,000 hectolitres."

^c In the 14th century.

^d J. M. Lichtenstern, Umriss einer Geographisch-statistischen Schilderung des Königreichs Böhmen.

^e Principally in the districts of Bidschow, Königgrätz, Bunzlau, Saatz, Leitmeritz, Prachin and Rakonitz.

^f M. Bosc, Membre de l'Académie des Sciences.

^g The filaments of its beard.

^h "About 100,000."

ture is 117° of Fahrenheit. A German naturalist^a has endeavoured to explain the formation of the seven springs at Carlsbad. As their temperature is very high, he supposes that in the granite in the vicinity, chemical and galvanic effects are taking place, which by the action of non-mineral water, account for the formation of these warm springs. According to the same author, the river Teipel supplies this natural laboratory; he founds his opinion on a well known fact, namely, that the springs are not so abundant in dry as in rainy weather, and also on the fact that gas bubbles often escape from the waters of the river. Other naturalists attribute the heat of the springs to central fires in the earth. It seems to be generally admitted that we are not in possession of sufficient facts to enable us to explain these phenomena. It may be remarked that according to the analysis of a distinguished chemist,^b the waters of Carlsbad contain a great quantity of sulphate and carbonate of soda. It has been observed too by an eminent physician,^c that they may be used with success in hysterical and hypochondriacal diseases. The purgative waters of Sedlitz which are exported to every country in Europe, are used perhaps with greater success than the last in the same complaints. They are so well known that it is needless to describe their properties, or to state that they are clear and limpid, and of a salt and bitter taste. It appears from their chemical analysis that they contain sulphate and carbonate of lime and magnesia, as well as carbonic acid gas.^d

It has been already observed that various rare minerals are met with in Bohemia. Some of the precious stones that are used in the arts, are also found in the country. Of these, the garnet, the ruby, the sapphire, the amethyst, the hyacinth, and the topaz, are employed by the lapidary; jaspers, carnelians and calcedonies are used for different purposes. Different kinds of stone well adapted for building, together with marble and serpentine, are common in many parts of the country. Good millstones are obtained in other places, and also a sort of schistus that is converted into excellent whetstones, and kaolin that is used in the manufacture of porcelain.

Industry has made rapid advances in Bohemia within the last twenty years; more than six hundred thousand pieces of linen are annually obtained from its manufactories, and they are sold for more than nine millions of florins. The produce of the tan-works may be estimated at nearly two millions two hundred thousand florins; the value of the hats made in the country, at nine hundred thousand; and that of all the different manufactured articles at more than twenty-three millions, while the total value of the raw materials is not equal to a fourth part of the same sum; thus in that single class of products there is a profit of about sixteen millions of florins, which is divided among the workmen, the manufacturers and the merchants. It may be worth while to mention an important manufactory of lace and blond, which has been established at Hirschenstand in the circle of Elbogen for more than forty years. It furnishes employment to about eight thousand individuals, and the annual produce of their industry is estimated at two hundred and eighty thousand florins. The greater part of this manufacture is disposed of in the Austrian territories; the rest of it is exported to Saxony. From that kingdom, the fine thread is

obtained, while Austria furnishes the common thread and the silk.

It is only necessary to make one or two remarks on the commerce of Bohemia, to account for the jealousy and hatred which subsist against the Jews. The inhabitants reproach them, because they never follow any trade or occupation in which manual labour is required. But there is little doubt, if they were to do so, that they would be as much detested by the working classes, as they are at present by the mercantile class of the community. The Jews themselves seem to be aware of that circumstance, and besides, as most of them have numerous families, how could they be able to maintain their children during a long apprenticeship? They are all brokers or money agents, a profession much more easy than any other, and one which does not require a previous training or apprenticeship; the example of the father suffices for the son. It has been said, that in whatever part of Bohemia the Jews are numerous, the manufacturers are sooner or later ruined. If the statement be correct, it proves merely the want of foresight, or improvidence of the manufacturers. It is probable, that in Bohemia, as in every other country, many manufacturers begin business without a sufficient capital to carry it on. If the tradesman cannot fulfil his engagements with the Jew, but is obliged to give instead of money, his manufactures at a loss, he is very likely to be soon ruined; but ought his misfortunes to be attributed to the Jew? The one sells his money at as dear a rate as he can, and the other is as eager to sell his manufactures or merchandise at the highest price. The great law of commerce is equally applicable to them both.

Bohemia exports not only the products of its manufacturing industry, but those of its agriculture, such as grain pulse and fruits, as well as the surplus timber that its forests yield, are exchanged for colonial produce, sufficient to supply the wants of the people. The countries with which it maintains direct commercial intercourse, are Prussia, Saxony, the grand duchy of Baden and Bavaria. The produce of its fisheries, after supplying the consumption of the country, is chiefly exported to Austria. Nothing perhaps tends more to keep up the commerce of the country, than the annual fairs in different towns; the most important are held at Prague and Pilsen.

Goods are transported on the Elbe, the Moldau and the Eger, in boats that carry from three hundred to twelve hundred quintals. The navigation against the current, is often effected by the assistance of sails, while the north and north-east winds prevail in the countries that are watered by the Elbe. If a projected canal which is to open a communication between the Danube and the Moldau, were finished, Bohemia might derive great advantage from it, and as much perhaps if the principal roads were completed, which it is at present proposed to extend. It is certain that in 1817 their total length was not more than eight hundred and fifty English miles.^e

From the details into which we have entered, the reader may form a correct idea of Bohemia; the principal towns in the same country are yet to be described.

Prague, the capital, is situated almost in the centre of the kingdom. Four quarters extend along the banks of the

^a Gæthe, *Naturwissenschaft*, v. VI. p. 211.

^b Berzelius.

^c M. Alibert, *Précis historique sur les eaux minérales les plus usitées en médecine*.

^d F. Hoffmann, *De acidularum et thermarum usu et abusu*. See also the analysis of them by Neumann.

^e "350 leagues."

Moldau, which traverses the city; on one side are built the Old and the New Town, and on the other, Kleine-Seite or the Little Quarter,^a and Hradschin or the Upper Town. The population amounts to eighty-four thousand inhabitants, and the number of houses to three thousand four hundred. The situation of Praguc has been much admired, as well on account of the Moldau, which is about five hundred and sixty yards in breadth, as of the beauty of the neighbouring country, and the distant views of the mountains of Schwein and Petrin, that partly bound the horizon. The town occupies a great extent of ground; it cannot be less than twelve miles in circumference.^b Each quarter has its curiosities; in the Old Town, the stranger may observe a bridge over the Moldau, about eighteen hundred feet in length, supported by sixteen arches, adorned with twenty-eight statues of saints, and built by the Emperor Charles the Fourth in the year 1338. The public buildings in the same quarter, are the Carolin or ancient university, founded in 1371, the townhouse remarkable for an astronomical clock, the work of the celebrated Tycho-Brahe, the church of Thein, in which is contained the mausoleum of the same great astronomer, the fine church of the Holy Cross, the museum of natural history, and the observatory. The streets in the New Town are broad and well built; on an eminence are observed the ruins of the Wischerad, an ancient castle that belonged to the kings of Bohemia; another townhouse is situated in the same quarter; the Hussites threw thirteen members of the municipal council out of its windows. The Kleine-Seite or Little Quarter is still better built than the last; it may be remarked for its fine houses, the church of Saint Nicholas, and the palace of Wallenstein. But in point of situation, the Hradschin or Upper Town is finer than any other quarter; it is adorned by the royal castle, the building of which was continued at intervals for several centuries, and was at last completed by Maria Theresa; the Dome or cathedral, a model of Gothic architecture, rises near the same edifice. Prague possesses a great number of public buildings, many charitable and useful institutions, and several scientific collections and libraries; the library belonging to the university, contains a hundred and thirty thousand volumes, and a manuscript of Pliny.

It is believed that Prague stands on the site of Marobudum, an ancient town of the Marcomanni, so called from their king Marobod or Maroboduus. Ruined by the invasion of the barbarians, it was rebuilt by the Slavonians about the year 611; it had become an important town in 723; its population was very great during the fifteenth century, and not less than forty-four thousand students are said to have attended its university. But the persecution raised against John Huss,^c who was born in the town, and the revolt of the Hussites were fatal to the university; it is not attended at present by more than a few hundred students. Among the different articles manufactured at Prague, are hats, linen and cotton goods, silk and woollen stuffs, Russian leather, nitric acid and glass.

It is unnecessary to describe minutely the other towns in Bohemia; none of them are sufficiently important to require a detailed account. Jung-Bunzlau, a small town, built in 973, on the left bank of the Iser, by Boleslaus^d the Second, contains three thousand six hundred inhabitants, wealthy from their industry and commerce. The small

manufacturing town of Reichstadt is the appanage of Napoleon's son. Leitmeritz, a well built town, does not contain more than three thousand five hundred individuals, and the fortress of Theresienstadt in the neighbourhood, commands a small place of a thousand inhabitants. Lippa is noted for its cloth and woollen manufactures, and more glass is made at Kamnitz than in any other town in the kingdom. The famous village of Warnsdorf, the largest of any in Bohemia, and from its industry more important than many towns in the same country, contains eight hundred houses and some fine public buildings. The two thousand three hundred inhabitants of Tœplitz are enriched by the produce of its mineral springs. Saatz (Bohemian, *Zatecz*;) on the right bank of the Eger, is peopled by three thousand eight hundred persons; it was founded in the year 718 by a wealthy Bohemian noble, the count of Schwach. Carlsbad, celebrated for its pins, needles and cutlery, and still more so on account of its mineral waters, contains two thousand five hundred inhabitants. It is surrounded by forests and high mountains; according to report, the springs which now constitute its wealth, were discovered while the emperor Charles the Fourth was enjoying the chase; one of the dogs had fallen into a boiling pool, and its cries awakened the attention of the royal party; from that circumstance the value of the water, and its salutary effects, were soon afterwards made known. Eger, a town of eight thousand five hundred inhabitants, carries on a trade in cotton, linen, and hemp. Pilsen, which is as populous, is enriched by its cloth manufactories and its four annual fairs. Pisek is supposed to be the best built town in the kingdom. Budweis contains a gymnasium, an arsenal and six thousand inhabitants. Tabor stands on a height, and was formerly fortified; it was celebrated during the wars of the Hussites. Kœniggrätz, an agreeable town of six thousand inhabitants, was at one time more populous; it was fortified by Maria Theresa, and is at present the metropolis of a bishopric, and has several schools and scientific collections. Such are the principal towns in Bohemia; the others are too insignificant to require notice.

There are many institutions in Bohemia, of which the object is to diffuse instruction and knowledge. The number of elementary, preparatory and scientific schools may be sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants; the Jews too have as many schools as they require; nothing more is wanted than that these institutions should be put under a better management, that the methods of conveying instruction should be facilitated and improved. Several individuals have shown their zeal for the arts, by forming themselves into a society at Prague, and by collecting at their own expense different objects of arts that are deemed useful in improving the taste of the young; an academy too is connected with the society, to which students recommended by the members are admitted. Another society has been founded in the same town for the purpose of encouraging and diffusing a taste for the study both of vocal and instrumental music. Seven hundred and eighty poor students, who desire to devote themselves to the sciences or the career of instruction, are gratuitously educated at the university; a fund of one million three hundred and thirty thousand florins is reserved for that purpose. Prague possesses besides the only scientific society in the ancient provinces of the Austrian empire; it holds a considerable rank

^a Lesser Town. Ed. Encyc. *Kleine Stadt* (Little Town.) Busching.

^b "Circumference four hours" (*stunden*.)

^c History of Bohemia, by Æneas Sylvius.

^d "Boleslaw."

among the different institutions of the same kind in Europe.

The numerous charitable institutions in almost all the towns may be mentioned to the honour both of the Bohemian government and the wealthy classes in that country. There are few places of any consequence without hospitals for orphans, the infirm and the poor. The expenses connected with these places of charity have been estimated at 2,180,000 florins, and the number of persons admitted into them at more than 3,300. Many beneficent societies have been formed, which administer at all times food to the indigent, firewood and clothing during winter, and pecuniary advances to work people and different individuals to whom such advances may be useful. Other societies have been established in the capital for the relief of widows, and respectable persons in decayed circumstances, such as merchants, lawyers and physicians. Different houses have been built in the same place for affording accommodation to the indigent sick and women in childbed. Funds have been raised for the relief of workmen, who have met with any severe bodily injury, and whose families, but for these funds, must have been left destitute. The most of these institutions are conducted on an excellent plan, and those who contribute to them are aware that their money is much better laid out than if it were given in private or indiscriminate

charity; it may be said indeed that those whom fortune has enabled to mitigate the calamities of others, are not less distinguished by their judgment than by their zeal in the cause of philanthropy.

The revenues of the kingdom amount to more than twenty-five millions of florins; the military force to more than fifty thousand men, exclusively of the *landwehr* or militia. The conscription has been long established in the country. A German geographer* remarks correctly that there are few countries which can be more easily defended in the event of a foreign invasion. It may be observed without entering into military details unconnected with our subject, that it is naturally defended by its mountains, that an hostile army could not advance without great difficulty, and that the more numerous the army, the more easily could it be harassed by troops scattered in different parts of the country. The rivers, forests, mountains and ravines are obstacles which diminish greatly the chances of a successful invasion. But if the advantages which Bohemia derives from its position, are of importance to the inhabitants, they are less so to the Austrian empire. The tactics adopted by the European states, since Napoleon taught them both to defend themselves and to attack others, might be employed with success in a war against that monarchy.

* Lichtenstern.

BOOK CXXVI.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Germany.—Tenth section.—Description of Moravia and Austrian Silesia.

MORAVIA, or Mæhren, as it is called in Germany, derives its name from the Morawa, a river thus denominated by the ancient Slavonians, but which the Germans call the March. This province is entitled a county or margraviate, and is politically united with Austrian Silesia. Both these countries shall be separately described in the account of their physical geography. The extent of the first is about eighty-six miles from north to south, and a hundred and twenty-eight from east to west.^a It is bounded on the west by Bohemia, on the south and the east by the archduchy of Austria and Hungary, and on the north by Silesia. More than half the country is covered with mountains, which in many places, particularly in the south, enclose agreeable and fruitful vallies. The soil is elevated from five to nine hundred feet above the level of the sea, and it inclines principally towards the south. The March is the largest river in the country; it rises in the Sudetes, flows from north to south, and receives most of the streams that descend from the mountains. It joins the Danube at some leagues from Presburg.

Strata of transition limestone are situated in the central districts; a great variety of rocks, not uninteresting from their position, are observed in the mountains on the east, the north, and the west. Among these there are several coal deposits, less important, it is true, than the coal mines in Bohemia, but which are worked however with profit in the neighbourhood of Rossitz and Blawon, where they occupy the lower part of a basin formed by gneiss. To the south of the coal, the geologist may discover fresh water deposits, characterised by the frequent occurrence of the fossil wood called lignite.^b

The *Alt Vater* rises in the chain of mountains^c that separates Moravia from Silesia; from its height probably it has been called the *Old Father*^d of the Gesenke-Gebirge, the summits of which join those of the Sudetes, which extend to a great distance towards the kingdom of Saxony. From the same lofty mountain may be seen the long and narrow province of Austrian Silesia, extending from south-east to north-west. The length of it in that direction is about an hundred miles, and the mean breadth not more than twenty.^e The *Bischofskappe*, one of the mountains in the above mentioned chain, is about three thousand feet in height; from another, the *Hungersberg*, a lofty cataract descends.

The country on the northern side of the Gesenke-Gebirge is higher than any other part of the two Silesias. Valuable mines of gold and silver were at one time worked there; the most productive were situated on the Hackelberg. According to a tradition, the Mongöls destroyed in 1421 not only the men who were employed in working these mines, but most of the miners in Silesia. Repeated attempts have since been made to open them, but they do not appear to have been attended with much success.

The Austrian province of Silesia has been often visited by geologists; it contains, indeed, sufficient to indemnify them for their labour. On the sides of the Sudetes, the Gesenke-Gebirge, and a part of the Carpathians, may be observed several small detached basins, formed of sandstone, slaty clay, coal, argillaceous iron and porphyry; also metalliferous limestone, containing lead, iron and zinc, the limestone called *muschelkalk*, a formation consisting partly of clay, salt and gypsum,^f argillaceous strata in which different metals are found, and extensive alluvial deposits.^g The coal formations occupy a space of about thirty-two leagues. Granite appears on all the higher points, but gneiss and micaceous schistus are more common in the lower parts of the mountains. Blue clay abounds in the alluvial lands, and it is to that substance that the smooth and level appearance of the Silesian plains must be chiefly attributed.^h

The Quadi, perhaps the most ancient inhabitants of Moravia, were the neighbours and allies of the Marcomanni, who, as we have already stated, made themselves masters of Bohemia. The Quadi were the same people that Strabo calls the *Coldui*;ⁱ their history is very obscure until the time of Caracalla, by whom Gaiobomar, their king, was put to death. Tacitus makes mention of them in his annals; he informs us that the Suevi were placed by the Romans between the March and the *Cusus* or *Waag*, and that Vannius or Wann, one of the Quadi by origin, was appointed king over them.^k The above passage proves the great antiquity of the name of the river, which the Slavonians call at present the Morawa. The Quadi united with the Marcomanni, and were sometimes formidable to the Roman power. Domitian marched against them to punish them for having assisted the Daci; the Quadi proposed peace, but the emperor rejected their conditions with disdain; after having been defeated, however, he was compelled to make it on disadvantageous and humiliating terms. The Quadi endeavoured several times to extend their terri-

^a "36 leagues from north to south, and 54 from east to west."

^b See the Memoir by M. Riepl, (*Annales de l'Institut Polytechnique impérial et royal de Vienne.*)

^c The Gesenke-Gebirge.

^d The signification of the German name (*Alt Vater.*)

^e "Length 40 leagues, mean breadth 8 or 9 leagues."

^f New red sandstone?

^g See the Memoir by M. Manès, (*Annales des Mines.* 1825.)

^h Oeynhausien, Versuch einer geognostischen beschreibung von Ober-Schlesien.

ⁱ Strabo, Book VII. chap. 2. § 3.

^k Tacitus, Book II. § 63. inter Marum et Cusum.

tory beyond the frontiers of Pannonia.^a Marcus Aurelius, in order to check their invasions, was obliged to station an army of twenty thousand men amongst them. Their history exhibits a series of defeats and revolts until the time of the emperor Numerian, who gained a decisive victory over them. According to Mentelle, they possessed four important cities: *Eburodunum* (Bria,) *Eborum* (Obruntz,) *Celementia* (Kalmins,) and *Mediostanium* (Znaïm.)

Beyond the Marcomanni and the Quadi, says Tacitus,^b were other less powerful tribes. In the number of these tribes, he includes the Buriï, who inhabited the country which forms at present Austrian Silesia. They resembled the Suevi in their manners and language. Ptolemy calls them the Luti.^c

The descendants of these nations founded in the seventh century, the kingdom of Moravia, which extended to Belgrade; the Slavonians directed their conquests to that country, two hundred years afterwards, and Moravia was joined to the kingdom of Bohemia. It then became a margraviate; but since the reign of Matthias, king of Bohemia and Hungary in the fifteenth century, Moravia has not been governed by separate margraves.

The Slavonians, three times more numerous than the Germans, inhabit chiefly the central districts, and the Germans, the mountains. The former are divided into several branches; the *Hannacks*, the *Straniacks*, the *Slowacks* or *Charwats*, the *Horacks* or *Podhoracks*, the *Podzulacks* and the *Wallacks*. The Hannacks derive their name from the small river Hanna, and they differ from the other inhabitants in their language, customs and dress; their principal wealth consists in their cattle and flocks. The Straniacks inhabit the districts near the confines of Hungary. The remaining tribes may be easily distinguished from each other, but the Wallacks are the most remarkable of any; they were not originally natives of Wallachia, as one might suppose from their name, which appears to be derived from the Waag or Waha, for they were formerly settled on its banks, before they migrated to the western declivities of the Little Carpathians. The Wallacks speak a Bohemian dialect, and wear the Hungarian costume. Before the eighteenth century, while immense forests of beech and maple trees covered the mountains which they inhabit, they carried on a lucrative trade in wood and tinder.^d Now that the woods have been cleared, they are obliged to devote themselves to agriculture; still however they collect the last substance, but in place of exporting as formerly a hundred wagon loads every year to Leipsiek, not more than five or six are at present sent there. The Wallacks are distinguished from their neighbours by their cleanliness. They are brave in war, tolerant in their religion, and strictly honest in the ordinary transactions in life.^e

The Slavonic language, spoken by these different tribes, is a corrupt branch of the Tchekhe or Bohemian. Although it abounds in consonants, it is rich and harmonious, and adapts itself easily in vocal music, to the different intonations of the voice. The literature of the same language is more ancient than the Polish.^f Its principal monuments are a hymn composed about the year 990 by bishop Adalbert, the Bohemo-Latin psalter of Wittemberg, written in the twelfth or thirteenth century, the poetic chronicle of Dale-

mil, which dates from the year 1310, and the translation of the Bible. It was much cultivated by the scholars and learned men in Bohemia, but many of their works were burnt or destroyed during the religious and political wars in the fifteenth and seventeenth centuries. The study of the language has been encouraged for the last twenty years by the Austrian government, and in the course of the same period many original Slavonic works have been printed. Two Slavonic newspapers and three or four literary journals are at present published. A work is now appearing in numbers at Vienna, which is to consist of three hundred ancient Slavonic songs, which have been collected in the different circles of the monarchy.

The different dialects of the Bohemo-Polish, spoken by the different Slavonic tribes, may still be distinguished, not only in Bohemia, but in Moravia and Silesia, although many German words have been introduced into them. The Hannack is harsh in its pronunciation; the Slowack is divided into two sub-dialects, the Moravian Slowack, which is spoken by the Slowacks and the Wallacks, and the Silesian Slowack, differing principally from the former by a mixture of Polish and German vocables; both are said to excel the other dialects in harmony and softness.^g

The German nation is also subdivided into four branches, which are distinguished by the following names: the *Hochländer* or Silesians, who inhabit the Gesenke-Gebirge; the *Kuhhändler*, who occupy the eastern part of the country; and the *Paganers* and the *Schönhangstlers* on the eastern declivity of the Moravian mountains.

The other people that migrated at a later period to Moravia, are the Germans who settled in it during the thirty years' war, the Croatians, who are easily known from the other inhabitants, in the seigniorship of Dürnholm, the French in the seigniorship of Gœding, and the Jews in the different trading towns.

When Joseph the Second established liberty of conscience within his dominions, many appeared suddenly throughout Moravia, who had preserved in obscurity the doctrines of John Huss, or the principles of Luther and Calvin. The Moravian brethren, who had acted three centuries before that period, an important part in Moravia and Bohemia, but who since the reign of Ferdinand, had continued, like the other protestants, under a system of persecution, then appeared in great numbers. The Wallacks exhibited in their mountains, the curious spectacle of a people declaring against catholicism, without being resolved to substitute any other worship in its place. Not many years after the decree of Joseph the Second, more than twenty thousand individuals followed publicly the rites of the different protestant churches. Austrian Silesia may be considered in some respects a dependence on the diocese of Breslau, but it contains a great number of Lutherans. The protestant worship is under the direction of the general consistory of Vienna, and the catholics acknowledge as their spiritual chiefs, the bishop of Brünn, and the archbishop of Olmütz.

The climate of Moravia, notwithstanding its elevation above the level of the sea, is milder than in many other countries under the same parallel. The vine is cultivated with sufficient advantage beyond the forty-ninth degree.

^a " — into Pannonia."

^b De Moribus Germanorum, sec. 43.

^c Book II. Chapter XI

^d *Amadou*, touchwood, agaric.

^e Fichtner, Mittheilungen der Mährisch-Schlesisch. Gesellschaft.

^f What is here said of the literature of the language, refers more particularly to the language of Bohemia Proper.—P.

^g M. A. Balbi, Atlas Ethnographique.

The greatest height of Reaumur's thermometer is about 28°, but in some winters it has descended so low as 22° below zero. The mean temperature of Olmütz is about 7.3°. But the mountains are exposed to a much more rigorous climate than the central districts; thus the harvests are five or six weeks earlier in Moravia than in the mountainous country of Silesia. At Brünn, for instance, the cherries are fully ripe in June, while they do not begin to redden in Silesia before the first days of August. The north-east wind is the most prevalent in the two provinces.

The country abounds in game and fish; bees, poultry, and the different domestic animals are very common. Cattle form the principal wealth of the Silesians, who, although a sober and industrious people, are not affluent. The corn harvest in the two provinces are more than sufficient for the wants of the population; there is no scarcity of potatoes, different kinds of vegetables, anise, hops, hemp and flax. The vine and many fruit trees are cultivated with success, but of the latter the walnut is the most common.

The mineral productions of the country are very various; gold and silver, it has been remarked, were formerly abundant, but iron and coal are the most profitable at present. Alum, marble and different kinds of rocks are found in many places, and worked with advantage. It ought to be observed, however, that the water in most of the springs in the country is neither wholesome nor agreeable to the taste. With regard to the different branches of industry, Moravia is one of the most important provinces in the Austrian empire. It is unfortunate for its commerce that the March is only navigable for vessels of a very small tonnage; the inhabitants are consequently obliged to transport almost all their merchandise by land. If communications were opened or facilitated, the greatest benefit might result from them; in its present state, however, the revenue of the country amounts to 7,200,000 florins.

The two provinces of Moravia and Silesia have been considered as forming only one since the year 1783; they are divided into eight circles. The rights and interests of the country are protected by the states, the deputies of which are divided into four classes, the clergy, nobility, knights and deputies from seven royal towns. The emperor convokes a general assembly of the states every year, under the presidency of the governor, and after the close of the session, a permanent deputation continues its sittings, until the members are again assembled.

Brünn, the capital of the province, is situated at the base of a hill, between the rivers Schwarzawa and Zwitawa. It is worthy of its rank from its population, which exceeds thirty-eight thousand inhabitants. The ancient fortifications have been partly demolished, and the rest are in ruins; the citadel only remains, and serves at present as a state prison. The ancient convent of the Augustines is now the place where the states assemble; in their hall may be seen the plough, with which Joseph the Second, after the example of the Chinese monarchs, turned up a field in the neighbourhood of Rausnitz. The *Kraut Markt* or cabbage market has been considered the finest square in Brünn; it is adorned with a magnificent fountain. The two most remarkable of the nine churches are those of St. James and the Augustines in *Alt Brünn* or the old town. The

first of a light but bold Gothic architecture, is covered with copper, and contains a great many statues; in the second is observed a silver altar, surmounted with a picture of the virgin, worthy of Cranach's best days. A manuscript of the fourteenth century is preserved in the church of St. James; it contains an account of the siege of Troy, taken from two ancient Greek manuscripts at Athens, written by eye witnesses of the siege.^a The glacis has been transformed into public walks. The Spielberg, a hill of eight hundred feet in height, rises near the town; part of it, called the Frandzensberg, was formerly a Calvary. A marble obelisk sixty feet in height, consecrated to the glory of the Austrian armies, was erected in 1818 in the midst of a wood near the arid rocks, which crown the Spielberg. These walks command an extensive view, and the spectator observes at twelve miles distance to the south-east, the field of battle, and the village of Austerlitz. Brünn contains several hospitals, schools and seminaries, an agricultural society, another of natural history,^b and a valuable museum, which has been placed in the episcopal palace. The commerce of the town consists principally in the sale of its hats, silks and woollen stuffs.

The burgh of Buchlowitz, about four leagues to the east of Austerlitz, contains a population of thirteen hundred souls; it is known from its sulphureous mineral waters. The village of Luhatschowitz is situated in the mountains, at a greater distance from the capital; its baths are much frequented; the fountains of Vincent and Armand are surrounded with handsome buildings in the form of temples; many afflicted with rheumatism and cutaneous diseases repair to them every year. The burgh of Tolleschowitz derives its wealth from its vineyards, which yield excellent wine. Some ruins that may be observed in the neighbourhood, are supposed to have been once inhabited by saint Cyrilus, the first bishop of Moravia. The ruins of the first church which was built by the same bishop may still be seen at Hradisch. That town is the capital of a district, and is situated in a fruitful plain, but exposed to the frequent inundations of the March. It stands on an island in the middle of the river, and contains fifteen hundred inhabitants. Its position has rendered it necessary to erect and keep up thirty-nine bridges, one of which is more than three hundred yards in length. Hradisch was an important fortress in the fifteenth century; Matthias, king of Bohemia and Hungary, besieged it several times without success. Four sabres are deposited in the townhouse, which were given to the city by king Wladislaw to commemorate the bravery of the citizens. The market place is adorned with a fine statue of the virgin.

The village of Strany on the mountain of Jaworzina, is peopled by the Wallacks, that have been already mentioned; they differ from the other inhabitants in their manners, language and dress; during festivals and holy days, the people join in a national or characteristic dance,^c in which they wield their sabres with great dexterity. From the top of the heights in the neighbourhood of Strany, which form the frontiers of Moravia, a good eye can distinguish at thirty leagues distance the tower of St. Stephen.^d

The commercial town of Nicsburg rises in the midst of a plain, near the southern extremity of the province; it

^a The manuscript in the church of St. James is entitled: *Liber historiae Trojanæ, per magistrum Guidonem de columnis de Nessana, de Græco translatus in Latinum.* Guido died in 1287; the copy of his MS. was not written by himself, but by a German of the name of Grunhagen, as is proved by the last sentence in the work: *Explicit historia seu chronica*

Trojanorum, scripta per Johannem Grunhagen, Anno Domini 1348, &c. See Archiv. für Geschichte, 1825.

^b "A society of agriculture and natural history."

^c Called the robber's dance.

^d Rudolph Von Jenny, *Handbuch für reisende in dem Oesterreichischen Kaiserstaate.*

contains seven thousand inhabitants, nearly half of whom are Jews. Znaïm, a town of the same population, including its three suburbs, is situated on the left bank of the Taya, in a fruitful country, covered with rich vineyards. The principal edifices are the court of justice, and the church of St. Nicholas, remarkable for its fine Gothic architecture. The chapter of Pœltemberg is separated from the town by a deep valley; it belongs to the knights of the cross. Znaïm possesses two convents and a gymnasium. The burgesses wear a blue dress, and their wives are distinguished by their high bonnets trimmed with gold lace. The burgh of Eisgrub is also built on the banks of the Taya; at no great distance from it, is a rural castle, belonging to the prince of Lichtenstein; the building is not very large, but the park which surrounds it is watered by the river, and laid out with much taste.

Iglau on the banks of the Iglau, lies in the midst of the Moravian mountains; its population amounts to thirteen thousand inhabitants; it has three parish churches, a convent of Minorites, founded by Ottocar the Second, a gymnasium and an hospital. Some fine paintings and several ancient tombs are contained in the church of St. James. The church that belonged to the jesuits, has been admired for its paintings in fresco. A cemetery shaded with lofty trees is the most frequented public walk in the town.

Trebitsch is encompassed with walls, and situated in a deep valley on the banks of the Iglawa; most strangers admire the picturesque arrangement of its houses, the large castle that commands it, its ancient parish church, and the convent of the capuchins. The view from the summit of the Mistkogel, a high mountain with a rounded summit, is as fine as it is extensive; one may observe from it a succession of rich and fruitful plains, extending to Nicolsburg; also the deep and gloomy valley of the Iglau, the ruins of Tempelstein, an ancient castle in which the well is said to be five hundred yards^a in depth, and on the left bank of the Rokitna, the small town of Kromau, commanded by heights covered with trees, so arranged as to exhibit the appearance of a vast and verdant amphitheatre. Coal is not uncommon in these mountains, and the working of it forms the chief occupation of the fourteen hundred inhabitants in Kromau.

A rugged and hilly road leads across the Moravian mountains to Ingrowitz, a small town on the banks of the Swartza; although it does not contain more than eleven hundred inhabitants, it possesses a considerable trade in linen, and serves as a place of residence to the superintendent of the reformed communities in Moravia. Mount Prositschka rises at no great distance from the town; it was there that the ancient Slavonians went to worship their gods; its summit is often obscured with clouds before rain, and on that account it has been called the *Weather-glass* by the country people.^b When the sky is serene, the view from it extends to Kœniggrætz in Bohemia.

Olmütz was the ancient capital of Moravia; its fortifications, which are still in good repair, and its citadel, which was the prison-house of Lafayette, render it an important place in time of war. The population, together with that of the five suburbs, amounts to thirteen thousand inhabitants.^c The town is well built, provincial courts are held

in it, and it is the residence of the archbishop. The lyceum and the other schools are numerous attended, and the charitable institutions are managed with great care. The public fountains, remarkable for their elegance, reflect much credit on Donner, the sculptor. The townhouse is the finest edifice; the lyceum possesses a library of fifty thousand volumes, a valuable collection of natural history, and another of philosophical instruments. The people show the place where the emperor of Austria had an interview with Napoleon a short time before the battle of Austerlitz. Several manufactories have been established in Olmütz, and it carries on an extensive trade in cattle with Poland and Russia. Some antiquarians think it probable that the town is the same as the one which Ptolemy designates by the name of *Eburum*.

The March, which waters Olmütz, descends towards the south, and traverses the plain in which Kremsier, the residence of the archbishop in the summer season, and one of the finest towns in the province, is situated. Nothing can exceed the magnificence of the castle appropriated by the prince of the church; galleries of paintings, scientific collections, libraries, gardens embellished with fountains and cascades, correspond with the architecture of the edifice. The population of the town is not more than four thousand souls. Prerau on the Betschwa, though still less populous, is one of the most ancient towns in the country; within its walls may be observed a very large building, which belonged formerly to the templars. Weiskirchen, peopled by five thousand inhabitants, is situated at a short distance from the Betschwa; it is visited by the strangers that resort to the baths at Tœplitz about a mile and a half distant, a place that must not be confounded with Tœplitz in Bohemia. A precipice four hundred and fifty feet in height, rises near the thermal springs, and a pool of mineral water extends below it.

Such are the principal towns in Moravia; we shall now proceed to enumerate the most important places in Austrian Silesia. Jægerndorf rises in a fruitful valley, at the foot of the Buzberg, on the northern side of the mountains that separate the two provinces. It is encompassed with walls, and depends on a duchy belonging to the prince of Lichtenstein. The mountain that commands it, on the summit of which, a large church has been erected, is often visited by botanists. The town contains four thousand seven hundred inhabitants. Troppau is a strong place with a population of ten thousand souls; it is well built, and the streets are broad and straight; the public buildings are the ancient townhouse, a theatre, several churches, and the ducal castle of Lichtenstein. It contains different manufactories, but its trade consists principally in soap. Teschen, a town of six thousand inhabitants, is situated on the declivity of the Carpathians, in a country covered with forests and pasturage. Weichsel or Vistula, a village to the south-east of the last place, stands in a valley, remarkable for a cataract, which descends from the height of two hundred feet; the springs that supply it, are the sources of the fine river that traverses Poland. Lastly, Bilitz on the frontiers of Galicia, is noted for its cloth manufactories; it contains five thousand inhabitants, and not fewer than the half of them^c are employed in making cloth.

^a "Aunes," ell's.

^b " ——— it serves as a barometer to the country people."

^c "3300"

BOOK CXXVII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Germany.—Eleventh Section.—Archduchy of Austria.

THE country about to be described, is mostly enclosed by the different possessions of the Austrian empire, an empire, extending over a number of nations, foreign to each other, governed by the same sovereign, but according to different laws. The inhabitants in some possessions lately added to Austria, attach no meaning to the word patriotism; passive obedience is considered their only duty; in others, that obedience may be attributed to fear rather than to ignorance; the hope of independence still cheers them, and their most earnest desire is to throw off the yoke. The former having submitted to a despotic government for ages, know no other blessing than repose, and have no other wish than to increase their wealth, and by that means, their temporal enjoyments; the latter, jealous of their independence, are apt to suppose they have preserved it, because their countries are entitled duchies or kingdoms. All, in short, are more effectually separated from each other by their manners, customs and language, than by the chains of mountains which divide them.

The archduchy of Austria is bounded on the west by Bavaria, on the north by Bohemia and Moravia, on the east and the south-east by Hungary, and on the south by the duchy of Stiria. The superficial extent of the country is about seven hundred and eight German square miles.^a It is divided by the Ens into two nearly equal parts; the one situated on the left of the river is styled *the government above the Ens*, and the other on the right, *the government below the Ens*.^b

The mountains in the south of Bohemia and the Noric Alps form a large and fruitful valley, which the majestic Danube traverses from west to east. Branches of these mountains extend to the banks of the river; they enclose a great many vallies and small plains, and render the country one of the most agreeable and romantic in Europe. The heights of the Mannhartsberg, and the chain of the Greiner-Wald are not very lofty; but those which extend to the south of the Danube, rise to a great height, and some are covered with eternal snow.^c

^a According to Max. Fred. Thielen, it is equal to 708 $\frac{6}{10}$ German, or nearly 8503 English square miles.*

* "1970 geographical sq. leagues Fr."

^b Germ. *Land ob der Ens* and *Land unter der Ens*.

^c The height of the principal summits in the Noric Alps, has been already mentioned, in the general table of European altitudes; but there are several lofty mountains on the frontiers of the archduchy, which may be specified.

On the west or above the Ens.

The Hochhorn	10,667 feet.†
The Dachstein	9,285

It may be remarked, that the mountains which extend from Vienna to the calcareous chain of the Alps, particularly those of Thomasberg and Meyersdorf, contain several deposits of coal, which are accompanied with argillaceous, calcareous and quartzose sandstones, and with slaty clay and marl, containing marine shells and the impressions of plants. Coal is likewise found at the foot of the Alps, in the valley of the Ens.^d On the east of the same river, formations of different characters and periods, contain mines of iron, lead, silver and coal. The lofty district of Monasberg is covered in several places with alluvial deposits. The number and height of the mountains on the west of the Ens, render the neighbourhood of Salzburg, and the country of Berchtesgaden, more interesting to the geologist. They form part of the Noric Alps, and are composed of granite, sandstone and limestone. Quartz, garnets and other precious stones, amianthus, marble, rock-salt, feldspar and serpentine, as well as most of the metals, are found at different elevations. The calcareous mountains seem to be loftier than the granite mountains, and the illusion is partly occasioned by their steep and rapid declivities. But without having recourse to the barometer, it is not difficult to discover that the granite mountains appear lower, merely because they are seen from a greater distance; indeed at the approach of winter, they are always first covered with snow.

The calcareous mountains are much more interesting to the botanist, on account of their abundant and varied vegetation. The cause of so many plants may be attributed to their geological structure, and particularly to the comparative lowness of their elevation. Lichens and almost all the cryptogamic plants are nowhere observed, while the schistous and granite mountains are covered with them; in the first, springs and streams are very rare; in the others they are very abundant, and the noise of the cataract is often heard amidst precipices, steep rocks and narrow vallies. The land rises gradually from north to south in the country of Salzburg, and if the level of the lowest plains be compared with that of the highest summits, (for instance, the Wisbachshorn,) the difference will be found to be great-

The Hoher Kreuzberg	8,726
The Gradstein	8,598
The Grosser Priel	8,580
The Kopper Kehr Stein	7,734

On the east or below the Ens.

The Cetscher	6,062 feet.
The Wechselberg	5,574
The Huthwisch	2,716

† The measurements here given are those of the original.

^d See the Memoir by M. Riepl, (*Annales de l'Institut Polytechnique de Vienne*, Tome II.)

er than ten thousand feet.^a A belt of land extends from east to west, to the north of Salzburg, through the whole length of the archduchy; it is composed of tertiary sandstone^b and plastic clay, and reposes on a belt of alpine limestone, to which succeed strata of argillaceous schistus, that are supported in their turn by micaceous schistus and the other rocks of the Alpine chain.

Extensive marshy lauds and several well known mineral springs appear on the east and the west of the Ens. Different lakes and ponds are situated in the part of the archduchy above the same river. The two most important are the Atter, which is 7288 *jochs* or Austrian acres in superficial extent, and the Traun, which although not more than 3,777, is better known than the other, from its picturesque situation and the beauty of the neighbouring districts.

The greatest rivers tributary to the Danube, are the March on the north, and on the south the Ens or the ancient *Anisus*, of which the course may be about a hundred and twenty-eight miles,^c and the Traun which issues from a small lake in the Noric Alps near Aussee, traverses the lakes of Hallstædt and Traun, and falls near Lambach in the form of a cascade over rocks sixty feet in height. The latter river has a course of about seventy miles,^d and a canal about three hundred yards^e in length is carried round the falls, so that its navigation is not interrupted.

Having thus described the position, and given a short account of the archduchy, it may be proper to mention its ancient inhabitants. The lands between the Danube and the Alps, were, according to Ptolemy, inhabited by the *Ambilici* and the *Ambidrani*, who were tribes of the *Norici*. The country was known to the Romans by the name of *Noricum*. The districts round Vienna were included in Upper Pannonia, and the left bank of the Danube was peopled by the *Norici* and *Quadi*. The history of the *Norici* is very uncertain, but there is reason to believe that they were governed by kings, before they submitted to the Romans. *Noricum* became a Roman province under the reign of Augustus; it was considered of sufficient importance to be divided into two parts; the one nearest the Danube, was called *Noricum Ripense*, and the other, near and beyond the Alps, was styled *Noricum Mediterraneum*. The principal towns situated on the banks of the river, were *Boiodorum*, (at present Ilzstadt,) *Laureacum* (Lorch,) *Aredate* and *Claudinium*, the sites of which are unknown, *Ovilabis* (Wels,) and *Juvavum* (Salzburg.) While the Romans were powerful, the *Quadi*, *Marcomanni* and other neighbouring nations respected the *Norici*, but they were finally conquered by the *Goths*; *Alaric* devastated their country, which was afterwards laid waste by the *Suevi* and the *Heruli*.

About the sixth century, the *Avars* or *Avari*, a people originally from the vallies of the Ural, invaded and took possession of a part of the archduchy; it is not improbable that they founded there a kingdom, to which the more western nations gave the name of *Æsterreich* or the eastern kingdom. *Charlemagne* made himself master of it, and divided it into several counties. The frequent incursions of the *Madjars* or *Hungarians* induced *Henry the Fowler* to erect it into a margraviate in the year 928, of which the investiture was bestowed on his nephew *Leopold*. *Frederick Barbarossa* changed it into a duchy. It was again conquered in

the thirteenth century by *Ottocar the Second*, king of *Bohemia*; but that prince having refused to render homage to *Rudolph of Hapsburg*, then elected emperor, a war ensued in which *Ottocar* was slain. The duchy thus passed to the descendants of *Rudolph*, who have since acquired the rank and importance that are attached to the house of *Austria*. Such was the origin of the family which courtly genealogists have traced to the time of *Noah's ark*, or at all events to the days of the *Trojan horse*.

The inhabitants have been so mixed by the invasions of which *Austria* has been the theatre, that it is difficult to discover the shades by which they were formerly distinguished. Some *Slavonians*, however, are found on the frontiers of *Moravia*, in the country below the *Ens*. The descendants of the *Norici* exhibit proofs of their ancient origin in the country above the *Ens*. Their language differs from that of the other inhabitants. The people in the district of *Salzach* show in their customs and character, the remains of a distinct race; the most of them are honest and industrious.

The *Austrian German*, less pure than that which is spoken in the centre of *Germany*, forms one of the *Danubian dialects*. A *Bavarian dialect* is spoken in the country of *Salzburg*, and many different varieties may be observed in the rest of the archduchy. All of them abound in diminutives, but none of them are so soft as the *Bavarian*.

The southern part of the country above the *Ens*, is higher, and therefore colder than any other district in *Austria*; the grape arrives seldom at maturity. The climate is milder in the valley of the *Danube*, and the air is every where pure and wholesome. The rain that falls annually varies from twenty-four to thirty inches, and the most frequent winds are the west, the north-west and the east. The climate below the *Ens* is temperate but variable; *Reaumur's thermometer* never descends lower than -19° , and does not ascend higher than $+29^{\circ}$. There are about twice as many fair as rainy days throughout the year.

Although *Austria* is not exposed to the ravages of epidemic diseases, the mortality is, however, more considerable than in the other possessions of the *Austrian empire*. The number of deaths compared to the population is in the ratio of one to thirty-four. The *cretins*, those beings both morally and physically degraded, are very numerous in the mountains near *Salzburg*.

It has been already said that the *Austrians* are laborious, and that the desire of increasing their wealth is observable among all classes of society. For these reasons, agriculture and industry are carried to a degree of perfection, which appears to be incompatible with the general but incorrect notions concerning the indolence of the people. The country, it must be admitted, consumes more grain than it produces, but the insufficiency of the harvests in the governments above and below the *Ens*, ought to be attributed rather to the quality of the soil, than to the ignorance of the husbandmen. Fruit trees are common on the left bank of the *Ens*, and dried fruit forms a branch of exportation; but the orchards on the right bank of the river are more abundant and more valuable; it is believed too that the finest vegetables in the empire are produced in the neighbourhood of *Vienna*.

If the climate be ill adapted to the growth of the vine in the districts above the *Ens*, the culture of the same plant in the rest of the country forms the most important source of

^a F. Ant. Von Braune, Salzburg und Berchtesgaden.

^b Mollasse.

^c "Course 54 leagues."

^d "30 leagues."

^e "700 feet."

agricultural wealth. The best wines are those of Mauerbach, Kloster-Neuburg, Feldberg, Giuzing, Rötz and Bismberg. Hemp, flax, and saffron are cultivated with advantage in the country below the Ens, but as the lands do not yield rich pastures, many cattle are not reared, indeed the number is insufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants. The forests have been long neglected; firewood is consequently found to be too expensive for the poorer classes. The meadows in the country above the Ens are so abundant that more fodder is raised in the government than in any other part of the Austrian empire; and although the coldness of the climate compels the inhabitants to consume a great quantity of wood, a considerable time may elapse before it be necessary to introduce coal, or before the forests which cover the mountains are exhausted.

Lower Austria is amply supplied with some domestic animals,^a and although there may be a deficiency in cattle, it is admitted that the breed of sheep has been improved, that the horses are strong and well made. The excellence of the pastures in Upper Austria has led the inhabitants to imitate the Swiss, in the care they bestow on their cattle and dairy. The forests in that country afford shelter to wolves, bears, chamois and different sorts of game. But as most of the woods have been cut in Lower Austria, game has become less common in that government.

The mines in the archduchy are worked with much intelligence; an author affirms, that if it were not the interest of government to be sparing of fuel, Upper Austria might supply all the hereditary states in Germany with salt.^b The salt mines of Hallein produce nine hundred thousand quintals. The district of Salzach, in mineral wealth perhaps more important than any other, furnishes every year three hundred marks of gold, seven hundred and twenty of silver, three hundred and eighty quintals of copper, four hundred and ninety of lead, fourteen thousand four hundred and sixty of iron, ten of arsenic, and fifty-three of vitriol. Lower Austria derives from its mines thirty-four thousand quintals of iron, and two thousand five hundred of alum; the mines of lead containing silver seem to be nearly exhausted, but the coal mines are much more profitable than ever they were at any former period; their annual produce is about two hundred and thirty thousand quintals.

On the left of the Ens, iron is more extensively manufactured than any of the other metals; it furnishes the means of subsistence to more than fifty thousand families in the district of Traun. There are also numerous manufactories of woollen stuffs, linen and muslin. But the people in Lower Austria are still more extensively engaged in manufactures; in that respect it surpasses all the other possessions of the Austrian empire. Cotton mills,^c linen, cloth, ribbon and paper manufactories, founderies, iron, leather and glass works are to be seen in many parts of the country.^d A geographer estimates their produce at eighty-five millions of Austrian florins.^e

It may be naturally inferred from so great a variety of manufactures, that the commerce throughout the country must be considerable; almost the whole, however, is concentrated at Vienna. The metropolis, from its being the residence of the court, from its position, and from its exten-

sive credit, has long possessed the principal commerce of Austria. Lintz, Salzburg, Steyer, Neustadt, Krems and some other towns serve as intermediate stations to Vienna. The value of the goods exported cannot be valued at less than fifteen millions of florins; the imports amount to the same sum, and the amount of the transit trade may be estimated at five millions. It would be needless to inquire, after the example of some authors, whether the commercial balance, as it has been termed, is in favour of Austria; because it is evident there must be always a balance between the exports and imports of a state, since in every case an equivalent value must be given for the articles imported. Goods are conveyed by water on the Ens, the March and the Traun, but most of all by the Danube; many vessels loaded with cargoes from a hundred and fifty to two hundred tons may be seen on the last river. Merchandise is transported by land along eleven principal roads, three of which in Upper Austria form a total length of three hundred, and eight in Lower Austria of more than six hundred miles.^f

The archduchy exhibits in a religious point of view, as well as in many others, that contrast between privileges and restrictions which characterizes countries, where prejudice and caprice are substituted for justice and right. It is not intended to throw any censure on the government, but merely on the mass of the inhabitants. They showed themselves under Joseph the Second, incapable of deriving any advantage from the institutions and privileges which that monarch was disposed to grant them. It is not however the less singular to observe in the same province, religious liberty established on one side, and intolerance on the other. As in the other states of the empire, the catholic religion is the prevailing form of worship, and the one that has the most partisans in Lower Austria; however, the Greeks, Protestants and Jews enjoy equal protection, and have their churches and synagogues; while in Upper Austria, which contains twenty-four thousand Lutherans, who are allowed the free exercise of their religion, the Jews are not tolerated.

It is known, however, that the differences which exist between the liberties and the privileges of the provinces, depend on the conditions that were stipulated at the time of their union with the crown. The country below the Ens, was originally the grand duchy of Austria; the country situated on the other bank of the river, was annexed at a later period. To the grand duchy were attached important privileges during the long continuance of the German empire; it is from these privileges, and as king of Bohemia, that the Austrian emperor possesses the right of presiding over the Germanic confederation. But according to certain treaties, that have existed for nearly four hundred years, the power of the sovereign is modified by the states, which the emperor by his coronation oath binds himself to maintain. These states are organized in the same manner as those of Bohemia; they consist of the high clergy, the nobility and the deputies from some privileged towns; they are divided into a general assembly and a permanent commission, and can only be convoked by the sovereign. Assemblies of the same sort are held in Upper Austria, and the duchy of Salzburg has its separate states.

^a "Poultry."

^b Hassel's Geography, (in Germ.)

^c Lower Austria is the principal seat of the cotton manufacture in the empire. (Hassel.)

^d "Cotton mills and cotton manufactories, tanneries, forges and

founderies, glass-works, paper-mills, and manufactories of hats, cloth, ribbons and mirrors, are the principal manufacturing establishments."

^e Lichtenstern's Geography, (in Germ.)

^f "Total length in Upper Austria, 81 Germ. miles; in Lower Austria, twice that sum."

Upper Austria is divided into five circles, and Lower Austria into four. In the first, a supreme court^a sits at Lintz, and takes cognizance only of the causes of the nobles and privileged classes; three hundred and fifty-five inferior tribunals decide the causes to which plebeians are parties. Six hundred and twelve tribunals have been established for the latter purpose in Lower Austria, while the nobles are only amenable to the supreme court at Vienna, and the common people can appeal to it against the decisions of the other tribunals. Two councils of censors are held, the one at Lintz, and the other at Vienna; it is the duty of the members to examine not only all the works published in the country, but such as are imported from foreign states.

The revenues of Upper Austria amount to about £750,000, and those of Lower Austria to nearly £2,500,000.^b All classes, from the noble to the peasant, are removed beyond the reach of poverty; they may be said to be affluent, when compared with the people in other countries. The advocates of absolute power have attached great weight to that fact, which proves merely that under one despotic government, the nobles do not abuse their privileges, and the people are protected by the impartial administration of the laws; in other words, that frugal and industrious men amass wealth, wherever the right of property is respected. But is man like the lower animals? has he no other enjoyment than that of satisfying his physical wants? has he no other desire than that of living in obscurity or repose? If the Austrians are now happy under a paternal sceptre, the time may perhaps come, when they will envy the destinies of some states in Germany.

Vienna and that part of the Danube which separates the town from the suburbs, are situated in the centre of a fine and fruitful plain. Some travellers commend whatever they see in foreign countries; others, particularly the French, blame whatever does not recal the customs and neighbourhood of Paris; it is necessary to avoid both errors, in endeavouring to describe the large basin round Vienna. Towards the north, the eye follows the different branches of the river, whose broad and rapid course, together with the vessels that cover it, embellishes and vivifies the rich picture. Islands covered with trees, add to the beauty of the landscape in the same direction. The surface of the water opposite Vienna is about four hundred and eighty feet above the level of the sea. The limits of the basin on the east, are formed by heights covered with houses, which unite with those that bound it on the south. The basin becomes broader on the west, and extends to the Mauhartsberg, the sides of which are covered with forests; on the north the eye wanders over a plain, the extent of which it cannot measure; the heights on the south are crowned with villages and country houses, surrounded by verdant woods. The lofty summits behind these heights, have from their distance a bluish tint, of which the different shades are insensibly lost in the azure of the sky.

Vienna, in German *Wien*, was founded in 1142 by Henry the First, duke of Austria; it is at present the largest city in Germany. It was so called from a small river which traverses it, and throws itself into the Danube.

^a "Tribunal de première instance."

^b "Upper Austria 5,200,000 florins—Lower Austria 19,800,000 florins." (Hassel, 1822.)

^c "7 post leagues Fr."—about 17 Eng. miles, which corresponds with its extent in German geographical miles.—P.

^d Circumference of Paris, 17 miles. (Morse.) Circumference of the wall of Paris, 17 miles; of the compact part of the city, 14 miles. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

The elevation of its surface is about four hundred and sixty feet above the level of the sea; its circumference, including the different suburbs, is not less than three and a half German, or twelve English miles.^c Thus, in superficial extent, it is nearly equal to Paris,^d although the two towns are very different in point of population, for Vienna does not contain more than two hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants. The town, properly so called, stands nearly in the centre of the ground which all the buildings occupy; it is encompassed with ditches and ramparts, and communicates by twelve gates with thirty-four suburbs, which are very extensive, but are partly occupied by cultivated fields and gardens. Encroachments however are every day making on the fields; indeed, more than six hundred new houses have been built in the suburbs since the year 1826. Vienna no longer resembles the town which the French have several times entered victorious; were those who had seen it ten years ago to return at present, they might be ready to suppose it a different place. It is long since the bastions and the ramparts have been adorned with fine walks, and since the *Burg-Bastey* and the *Bastey of Rothenthurm*^e have been embellished with excellent buildings;^f on the glacis, opposite the *Burg*, may be seen two gardens laid out with much taste, one of which belongs to the court, and the other to the public; in the last is a temple, in which has been placed an admirable statue of Theseus, the work of Canova.

The irregularity of the buildings in the interior of the city indicates its antiquity. None of its eighteen squares are very large; its hundred and ten streets, though narrow and crooked, are clean and well paved. The houses are large, high and substantially built; the mean number of inhabitants to each house exceeds forty persons, but some of them contain many more. One house, for example,^g is inhabited by four hundred tenants, and it yields a rent of sixty thousand florins, or nearly £7000. The ancient burgess hospital,^h now private property, is let to two hundred families at a rent of a hundred and twenty thousand florins. Most of the squares are adorned with fountains or other monuments. The Hof is the largest and most regular; it is decorated with bronze statues, cast by Fiseher. A colossal equestrian statue of the emperor Joseph the Second, also in bronze, decorates the square of Joseph. A fountain, adorned with leaden figures representing the four principal rivers in the archduchy, has been erected in the Neumarkt. But the Graben square, which is situated near the centre of the town, is more frequented than any other; in an enclosure, are observed two fountains and marble figures representing the trinity, perhaps the best work of Strudel. The principal shops are situated in that square and in the Kohlmarkt, a large and well built street that leads to it.

Among the principal edifices in Vienna, may be mentioned the Burg, an imperial palace, in which are several collections, consisting of minerals, objects of art, curiosities and medals; they are considered more valuable than most other collections of the same kind in Europe.ⁱ The emperor inhabits that part of the Burg which has been called

^e The Bastion of the palace and the Bastion of Rosenthurm.

^f "Coffee-houses."—See Russel's Tour in Germany, p. 377.

^g The Trattner House.

^h Bürger-Spital—converted into dwelling houses by Joseph II.

ⁱ Among the antiquities are a great many bronze figures, statues, and jewels of different kinds, five hundred Etruscan vases, four hundred ancient lamps, and thirty-two thousand gold and silver medals.

the Schweitzerhof. This palace, like the Tuileries, unworthy of a sovereign, is surrounded with many public buildings; on one side is situated the ancient imperial chancery, adorned with many statues, forming four groups of a colossal size; on the other, the imperial library, containing three hundred thousand volumes, six thousand specimens of early printing, and twelve thousand manuscripts^a at a greater distance are the riding-school, a very elegant building, two assembly rooms^b and the theatre of the palace. The other buildings that may be mentioned, are the palace of the duke of Saxe-Teschen, the mint, the chancery of the court, the war-office, the Bohemian and Hungarian chanceries, the townhouse, the palace of the archbishop, the bank, the custom-house, the university, the chamber of the states, and the two arsenals. In the town's arsenal in the Hof, is preserved the head of the grand vizier Kara Mustapha, who commanded the Turkish army at the blockade of Vienna in 1683, and was strangled at Belgrade in the following year. In the great arsenal are to be seen part of the dress worn by Gustavus Adolphus at the battle of Lutzen, and the balloon, which, in consequence of the observations made from it, enabled the French to gain the battle of Fleurus.

The number of houses, in the town and suburbs, is equal to seven thousand and fifty; besides which there are a hundred and twenty-three palaces, belonging to different nobles, twenty-nine catholic churches, one reformed, and one Lutheran church, two Greek churches, two synagogues and seventeen convents, fourteen of which are for men, and three for women.

The three principal churches are those of St. Peter and the Augustines, and the metropolitan church of St. Stephen; the first is built after the model of the famous one at Rome, and the cupola is covered with copper; the second was finished in the year 1330, and it contains the mausoleum of the grand dutchess Christina, a monument that cost 20,000 ducats, and in which it is easy to discover the genius and taste of Canova; the hearts of the deceased members of the imperial family are preserved in a chapel adjoining the same building. The church of St. Stephen, a fine Gothic edifice of the fourteenth century, is three hundred and forty feet in length, two hundred and twenty in breadth, and eighty in height. The tower rises about four hundred and thirty feet above the ground; it supports a bell, weighing more than eighteen tons,^c and made of the cannon taken from the Turks, after they had raised the siege of Vienna. The same building is adorned with thirty-eight marble altars; it contains the tombs of the emperor Frederick the Fourth and of several cardinals, and also those of prince Eugene and the celebrated Schpisshammer, a physician, poet, orator, historian and philosopher.

The town communicates by thirty-nine bridges with Leopoldstadt and the suburbs on the left bank of the Danube. Leopoldstadt, situated on an island, is exposed to the inundations of the river. A fine walk, in which are planted different rows of trees, that terminate in a grove, serves as a

place of meeting for more than thirty thousand persons on the anniversary of St. Bridget, the tutelar saint of the parish. The quarter of Jägerzeile on the same island, is inhabited by the higher classes; it is embellished by many fine palaces and a theatre, and most of all by the Prater, a magnificent walk, in which may be observed coffee-houses, various places of amusement, panoramas, riding-schools, and schools of natation. At no great distance from it, is situated the Belvedere, built by prince Eugene, but now the property of the emperor, and remarkable for its gallery of valuable paintings.^d The large military hospital^e and the chapel belonging to it, are situated near the entrance to the suburb of Landstrasse. The church of St. Charles, more regular than any other in Vienna, adorns the suburb of Wieden; it was built by the emperor Charles the Sixth, to fulfil a vow he had made, while the plague desolated the city in the year 1713. The suburbs of Vienna, although irregular, are finer than the town; they seem almost to be formed of palaces and gardens, but the streets, it must be admitted, are ill paved, as the stones used for the purpose are too small, and on that account are disagreeable to walkers.

It is unnecessary to enumerate all the places of public or private instruction in Vienna; it may be sufficient to mention the most important. Whatever has any connexion with the useful arts, the different kinds of industry, and commerce, is taught in the polytechnic school. The medical and surgical academy is remarkable for its organization and for the beauty of its edifice. Twelve hundred students attend the university, and the lectures are delivered by seventy-nine professors. The university library consists of a hundred thousand volumes; there are chairs of anatomy, chemistry, physics and the different branches of natural history. The oriental school was established in order to form interpreters, for the purpose of facilitating the relations between Austria and the Porte. Besides these schools, others have been instituted for the children of the nobility. The fine arts are taught in the imperial academy, and other seminaries are occupied with the application of these arts to different products of industry. To these may be added, the academy of engineers and the musical school,^f a normal school, a theological seminary, five colleges, and a protestant university that is ill attended, because the wealthier protestants prefer to educate their children at home; lastly, there are sixty schools for the lower orders, and most of them are conducted on an excellent plan; in the school of Neubaugasse, reading, writing, arithmetic and drawing are taught gratuitously; the girls are instructed in needlework, and kept separate from the boys; corporal punishment has been abolished. Other charity schools for the children of artisans are open on Sundays from nine to eleven o'clock in the forenoon. The daughters of the wealthier classes are educated in convents, but an imperial seminary has been founded for the daughters of officers. The principal schools have their collections or museums, by which the arts and sciences that are taught, are illustrated.

ninety-five of the Flemish school; and in the upper story, three hundred and fifty-one of the ancient and modern German schools. In one of the rooms is observed a fine Mosaic painting, representing the last supper by Leonardo da Vinci.

^e "Hôtel des Invalides" - *Invalidenhaus* (Germ.)

^f It is stated in the *Wiener-Zeit* (1825,) that a hundred and seventy-five pupils of both sexes attend the musical school. It contains a library consisting of historical and theoretical works relative to music, a great many manuscripts on the same subject, and a very extensive collection of ancient and modern musical instruments.

^a In the same library are eight hundred volumes of engravings, and two hundred and seventeen volumes of portraits. Among the manuscripts are several Mexican hieroglyphics, which some future Champollion may perhaps decipher; a manuscript of Dioscorides, with plants on vellum, painted in the fifth century; the original of the senatus consultum by which the Baccharalia were regulated, A.R. 567; and lastly, Tasso's manuscript of Jerusalem Delivered.

^b Ridottos.

^c "367 quintals."

^d In the right wing of the gallery, are three hundred and twenty-five pictures by the great Italian masters; in the left wing, a hundred and

The charitable institutions are not less numerous; the most important may be enumerated. The hospital or infirmary^a in the suburb of Alster,^b is remarkable for its large dimensions and the great cleanliness with which it is kept. It contains seven courts planted with trees, a hundred and eleven wards furnished with two thousand beds, and receives annually from fifteen to seventeen hundred patients. The foundling hospital, the imperial orphan hospital, and the deaf and dumb institution, are worthy of the capital.

Mendicants dare not appear in the streets of Vienna; a work-house has been built for all the beggars in the province, and another for vagrants, who are not accused of any crime; but the latter are not allowed, as in France, to have any communication with criminals.

There are in Vienna, as in every other great town, many places of amusement, many ways in which the idle may pass their time. Five theatres are open the greater part of the year, and in the fine season, the public walks and gardens are crowded. The number of coffee-houses amounts to seventy, and the taverns and ordinaries to three hundred.

The capital is more important as a manufacturing town than any other in the Austrian empire; more than sixty thousand individuals find employment in different branches of industry. The manufactures consist of silks and other stuffs,^c gold and silver lace, ribbons, hardware goods, needles, mathematical instruments and different kinds of paper.^d The carriages of Vienna are prized in most parts of Germany; there are besides several porcelain works, and one of them employs a hundred and fifty painters and fifteen hundred workmen. The cannon foundery and the manufactory of arms are supported by government. The average number of muskets that issue every year from the imperial manufactory, is said to be equal to thirty thousand. The other articles made in the same town are steel ornaments, jewellery, watches, excellent musical instruments, and different chemical products.

The capital is also the central point of Austrian commerce, and of the circulation required to maintain it. The produce of its industry which brings annually a revenue of two millions four hundred thousand florins, gives rise to an exportation sufficient to furnish cargoes to six thousand boats, and merchandise for nearly two millions of wagons.^e The canal of Neustadt finished in 1803, serves as a means of communication between the Danube and the metropolis; boats ascend by means of locks to the basin in front of the townhouse. Three fairs are held in the town, and the number of mercantile houses of every kind amounts to nearly a thousand.

Fortifications and walls are still kept up round the central part of the town, but Vienna is not a place that can offer much resistance in the event of a siege; the garrison does not exceed ten or twelve thousand men. Although important from its population, it has given birth to few distinguished men; but among them may be mentioned some that have acquired a name in German literature, such as Schroeckh, Collin, Alxinger, Mastalier and the historian Inchofer, known by his ecclesiastical annals of Hungary, and by a Latin work, published under a fictitious name,^f entitled *Monarchia Solipsorum*, a satire against the Jesuits, the translation of which was for some time popular in France.^g

The luxuries and delicacies of the table are carried to a greater excess at Vienna than at Paris, but they may be had at less expense in the Austrian than in the French capital. Nobles from every part of the empire settle there, and contribute by their wealth to increase its commerce and industry. The indolence and ennui of the rich render many places of amusement necessary, but none are so much frequented as the theatres. If the pieces acted on the stage, are not admired by the other Germans, the fault must be imputed to the dramatic censors appointed by government. Much has not been done in literature, still less in science; music forms the only exception: it has been cultivated with great success. There are few catholic towns, where the people are so punctilious in observing religious forms and ceremonies; no class of the community, no rank or order, are free from credulity, superstition and bigotry. But although the inhabitants are ignorant, they are not corrupt; the men are honest, and the domestic virtues are cherished in many families.

More liberty, and greater encouragement given to knowledge, by impressing a salutary impulse on the capital, might produce a great and beneficial change in the whole population of Austria. The vigilance of the police borders on oppression; some of them hold the office of dramatic censors, and they exercise it in a very capricious manner; indeed it seems to be full time that the office should be abolished, and the police reformed. The emperor said a few years ago, when returning from the theatre after a first representation, that he was well pleased at having seen the play, as he was convinced the censors would condemn it. The truth of the remark was afterwards confirmed.

The stranger observes, not without interest, the bastions that protected the town against the attacks of the Turks. But during the wars of Napoleon, Vienna was twice taken by the French. The example of so many other capitals that yielded to a victorious chief, may console the Austrians, if any confound success in battle with national honour. The same town was taken in 1241 by Frederick the Second, duke of Austria, and by the emperor Rudolph the First in 1277. It was vainly besieged by the Hungarians in 1477, but obliged to surrender eight years afterwards to Matthias, king of Hungary and Bohemia.

Vienna resisted the Ottoman troops in 1529 and 1683. The recollection of the last siege has been handed down to the present inhabitants. No event was ever more likely to have been fatal to Germany, and perhaps to Europe. Kara Mustapha, son-in-law and grand vizier of Mahomet the Fourth, excited by the ambition of subjecting the west to the humiliating yoke of his master, traversed Hungary and entered the plains of Austria with an army of more than two hundred thousand men, and a train of artillery consisting of three hundred cannon, a very formidable *materiel* at that period. Charles the Fifth, duke of Lorraine, compelled to give way to such an overwhelming force, retreated in haste to Vienna. Fear pervaded the inhabitants, and the emperor fled secretly and ingloriously from the capital. It is in such moments that kings feel the misfortune of not being beloved by their people. Leopold having suddenly taken the resolution of flying with his family, passed through the fugitive crowd that encumbered the road to Lintz. But he soon discovered that he was only one among a multitude of sufferers; he and his family were obliged to pass the

^a The general hospital.

^b *Alstergasse*. (Busching.)

^c "Silks and cottons."

^d "Paper hangings."

^e This is undoubtedly a mistake.—P.

^f In Holland, in the year 1648.

^g The translation was published in France, in the year 1792.

night in a wood, and the darkness was dispelled by the flames which preceded the Ottoman hordes, and with which Hungary had already been desolated. Terror was at its height in Vienna; all must have been lost but for one man, and that man was John Sobieski. Kara Mustapha had encompassed the town; the count of Starenberg burnt the suburbs, armed the students, and resisted with a feeble garrison of sixteen thousand men; but after twenty-three days siege, the garrison weakened, without provisions, obliged to fight and to extinguish the fires occasioned by bombs, were reduced to despair. The enemy had taken the counter-scarp, when Sobieski appeared with seventy-four thousand men; he examined the position of the vizier, gave the signal of battle, and the formidable army of Mustapha was cut to pieces. Never was so great an alarm followed by so brilliant a triumph; the booty was immense, Vienna was saved; and Christendom freed from the danger that menaced it, by the coolness and intrepidity of a hero.

The ancient town, called *Castra Fabiana* or *Faviana*, and afterwards *Vindobona*, rose into notice under the first emperors; the tenth Germanic legion was stationed there in the time of Ptolemy; Marcus Aurelius died in the same place; Gallienus gave it up to the Marcomanni after having married the daughter of their king; Aurelius united it again to the empire.^a While some alterations were making about two years ago in the botanical garden, several antiquities were discovered, such as coins, vases, bricks and other relics, from which it appears that the site of the garden was formerly within the enclosure Vindobona. When the chapel of the Capuchins was enlarged, a chapel that serves as a place of interment for the emperors, there were discovered much about the same time a Roman tomb, fragments of funeral vases, and other articles, which render it probable that the road from Vindobona to Rome passed near the present convent.

We have already mentioned the beauty of the neighbouring country; the castles and country houses on the heights are so numerous that it would be no easy matter to describe those only which belong to the imperial family. Schœnbrunn was built by Maria Theresa. It is remarkable for the extent of the buildings, the beauty of the gardens, and the profusion of rare and valuable plants in the conservatories. Laxenburg, a Gothic castle belonging to the emperor, is encompassed with ditches and other works that give it the appearance of a small fortress. The interior is decorated in the same style as the exterior, and contains many curiosities of the middle ages. It forms a singular contrast with its modern gardens, and even with the regularity of the burgh at the base of its walls.

The village of Maria-Hitzing near Schœnbrunn has been considered the finest and most picturesque in Austria. It possesses a theatre, and is visited on account of its baths. Penzing is known from its ribbon manufactories, and Medling from its mineral waters. Several country houses are situated near these villages.

We will now quit that part of the country where the houses of the wealthy rival each other in elegance, and where their grounds, laid out with great taste, give to the basin of Vienna the appearance of an immense garden. The towns now to be mentioned are situated in the plains of Lower Austria. Kloster-Neuburg, on the banks of the

Danube, deserves to be noticed, not on account of its population, which does not exceed three thousand two hundred inhabitants, but on account of a magnificent convent belonging to the Augustines. The town is decorated with a fine church, in which the ducal crown of Austria is deposited; it has besides a seminary, a valuable library containing more than four hundred manuscripts, and a collection of natural history and medals.

Baden, at some leagues to the south of the capital, is situated on the northern declivity of Mount Calvary;^b it is commanded on the east by verdant hills, while a fruitful plain extends to the west. The population does not exceed three thousand persons, but its baths, the efficacy of which in rheumatic affections has been acknowledged, are so much frequented, that more than five thousand strangers resort to them in some seasons. Walks have been made in the neighbourhood, and the parks and pleasure grounds of the different proprietors are open to strangers.

Neustadt or Wienerisch-Neustadt has been considered, after the capital, the finest town in the archduchy; the number of its inhabitants, according to M. Thielen, is equal to eight thousand three hundred.^c It is adorned with three large squares; the houses are well built, and the streets are straight and regular. It possesses several seminaries, and a military school attended by five hundred pupils. The canal, which has been already mentioned, passes from the town to Vienna, and serves to supply the latter with wood, coal and stones for building.

The summit of the Schneeberg is about five leagues to the west of Neustadt. That mountain is visited by a greater number of strangers than any other in Lower Austria. It is covered with mists nine months in the year, and none need ascend it, unless the weather be serene and cloudless. After having mounted a short distance on the most frequented road, the spectator observes below him, a narrow and deep valley, part of which is occupied by a lake. Having past the region of trees, he arrives at a sort of platform, on which a house has been built for the accommodation of travellers that may wish to remain during the night. Lichens are the only plants that grow above the inn; the remaining part of the journey is not without danger; it is necessary to climb naked rocks, and to avoid frightful precipices. The height of the summit is such as to command a most extensive horizon. The eye wanders over as fine a panorama as can well be imagined; the wooded heights of the Wiener-Wald and the Mannhartsberg appear on the north; Vienna seems like a village, and the Danube like a small stream in a verdant plain. It is not difficult to count all the towns, and although the distance is so great as to make them resemble so many points on a geographical map, there is no summit from which a stranger can at once form a more correct notion of the wealth and importance of the archduchy. The view towards the south is bounded by the chain of the Alps, extending more than a hundred and twenty miles in length;^d on the west are seen the mountains in Upper Austria, the Salzburg Alps and even those of Tyrol, while the vast Hungarian plain extends on the south-east to the neighbourhood of Raab and Ofen. Only those towns have been hitherto mentioned, which may be observed in ascending the canal of Neustadt; the description of Lower Austria may therefore be completed

^a See the excellent work of Baron Hormayer: *Wien, seine Geschichte und seine Denkwürdigkeiten.*

^b Calvarienberg.

^c M. F. Thielen, *Alphabetisch-topographisches Postreise-Handbuch für den Oesterreichischen Kaiserstadt, &c. Vienna, 1827.*

^d "60 leagues."

by giving an account of the towns that are seen from the Schneeberg.

Bruck, situated in a valley on the right of the Danube, and on the banks of the Leytha, may be mentioned on account of its custom-house, and a large square adorned by a fountain. Haimburg contains three thousand inhabitants, and carries on a greater trade in tobacco than any other town in Austria. Krems and Stein are seen towards the west, on the left bank of the Danube; the one is peopled by three thousand six hundred inhabitants, and the other by fifteen hundred. They are separated from each other by an alley of trees, and two rows of houses, which accounts for a popular saying: *Krems and Stein are three towns*. Krems carries on a considerable trade in proportion to the number of its inhabitants; they are employed in different branches of industry. But the commerce of Stein lasts only a part of the year, or while the river is favourable for navigation. A castle now in ruins rises above Durrenstein, in which Richard *Cœur de Lion* was unjustly confined. Mœlk, although only a burgh, is remarkable for a large convent, belonging to the Benedictines, and for its gymnasium, library and collections of natural history and antiquities. *Saint Pollen*, a place of four thousand inhabitants, and the chief town of a bishopric, is situated between the Danube and the Wiener-Wald in a fruitful plain covered with cultivated fields, gardens and rich meadows. Other places, though less important, may be briefly enumerated. The people of Awischofen are employed in making glass. Alosdorf carries on a trade in saffron, and Mistelbach in different kinds of grain; the latter is peopled by three thousand inhabitants. Aleiben is noted for its royal sheep-folds, which are said to be the largest in Austria. Maria-Taferl, a village built on a height, is no less celebrated for its religious processions; more than a hundred thousand pilgrims visit it every year. Riesenberg was the birth-place of the famous composer Haydn, and Wagram or Teusch-Wagram stands in the plain, where the French were victorious in 1809.

Lintz, the capital of Upper Austria, is so called from *Lentia*, its name in the time of the Romans; it contains a population of twenty thousand souls. The town is neither so populous nor so well built as the suburbs. The ornaments in the great square are not perhaps accordant with correct taste; a pillar erected by Charles the Fourth to the holy trinity rises in the centre, and on the right and left are two fountains, the one decorated with a figure of Neptune, and the other with a statue of Jupiter. The public buildings are nowise remarkable, but the town possesses different places of education, several charitable institutions and important manufactories. Although the mountains of Bohemia protect it from the north winds, Reaumur's thermometer descends frequently to fourteen or fifteen degrees below zero. The west winds which are very common, are disagreeable and unwholesome.

Steyer on the Ens, a town of nine thousand inhabitants, rises in a valley, watered by a small river of the same name. The Burg, an old castle belonging to the prince of Lamberg, is the only edifice worthy of notice, and its fountains are considered its greatest ornaments. The utmost activity prevails in it; almost all the inhabitants are engaged in

trade or in some department of industry. It is there that iron appears to be of greater utility than gold; many thousand hands convert the metal that is brought from the mines of Mount Erzberg into every variety of form. Numerous hammers are moved by the Ens, which serves likewise to transport the merchandise of the town. Steyer exports files to Germany, Switzerland, Italy and the Levant, razors for less than a florin the dozen to the East, penknives for fifteen or twenty florins the thousand to Moravia, Silesia and Galicia, and shoemakers' instruments^a to Germany, Switzerland and France. A great many jewsharps are sent to Steyer from forty manufactories in the neighbourhood of Mount Priel; these as well as many other articles are exported to different countries in Europe.

The town of Ens is situated near the confluence of that river with the Danube; it contains three thousand inhabitants, and if it be true that it formed only one town with Loreh, the ancient *Laureacum*, it must be considered one of the oldest towns in Austria. The principal ornament of the town is a tower in the great square, built by the emperor Maximilian I.

Gmunden on the lake of Traun, contains a population of three thousand souls; the town is pleasantly situated and neatly built, and the government offices of the mines^b are its finest buildings. The beauty of its position depends principally on the lake, which is nearly eight miles in length and more than one in breadth;^c its waters are of a dark green colour, but they become nearly black during stormy weather.

Garsten, a Benedictine chapter situated in the vicinity, was founded more than eight hundred years ago.^d The church is not less remarkable for its architecture than for its fine paintings and numerous ornaments; within its walls may still be seen the tomb of Ottocar the Fourth. But this chapter cannot be compared with that of Krems-Munster, founded in the year 777 by Tassilo, duke of Bavaria. The great size of the edifice, the fine observatory, the large library, and the valuable collections of natural history and philosophical instruments, are in unison with the magnificence of the interior, and the elegance of the gardens, and serve to render the monastery superior to any other in Germany. The neighbourhood is remarkable for its petrifying springs; they deposit on the plants around them a sediment of calcareous matter in such abundance that it is used in building.

The commerce of Hallstadt is confined to the produce of its salt mines, which yield every year about fifty thousand hundred weights.^e A lake, of which the depth has never been measured, is situated near its walls; it is equal in length to eight thousand four hundred yards, and in breadth to eleven hundred;^f its waters, which are of a dark green colour, abound with excellent fish. It has been supposed that Branau, which now contains three thousand inhabitants, stands on the site of the Roman *Bundunum*. The small town of Montzee^g is built on the banks of a lake nearly five miles long, two and a half broad, and at the centre four hundred yards in depth.^h The cataract of Bachsfall, falls from a rock four hundred feet in height, at no great distance from the village of Bischofshofen.

Salzburg, one of the finest towns in the archduchty,ⁱ is the only other place of which it is necessary to give some

^a "Shoemakers' awls."

^b "L'administration et les magasins des salines."

^c "Length more than 6000 toises, breadth more than 1500."

^d Founded A. D. 1082. (Busching.)

^e "10,000,000 hectolitres."

^f "Length 4200 toises, breadth 1100."

^g Monsee.

^h "Length 1½ league, breadth 1 league, depth 200 toises."

ⁱ Salzburg forms no part of the archduchty of Austria as it existed before the French revolution. Its territory then formed a principality, subject to the archbishop of Salzburg.—In 1806 it was added to Austria, in

account. It has been called at different times, *Juvavium*,^a *Hadriana* and *Petena*. It was ruined by Attila in the year 448, and afterwards rebuilt by the Bavarian dukes, at the request of St. Rupert. The Salzach separates two regular and well built quarters, a rampart encompasses the town, and three suburbs extend beyond the entrance. It contains fourteen thousand inhabitants, but the population corresponds ill with the size of the town; deserted streets, and uniform houses, built in the Italian style, give it a gloomy aspect. The principal entrance, cut through a rock, is about a hundred and fifty feet in length, and from twenty to twenty-four in breadth. A marble statue of fifteen feet in height, representing Saint Sigismund, is placed before the entrance. A large fountain adorns one square,^b and another, that of the cathedral,^c is surrounded by arcades. The cathedral itself is built after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, and a much admired statue of the virgin stands on the principal front. Salzburg gave birth to the famous Paracel-

sus,^d and his ashes repose in the cemetery of Saint Sebastian. The remains of ancient Roman baths, from which many valuable antiquities have been collected, are situated near the hospital of St. John. Salzburg is the only fortress in Upper Austria; the climate is very variable, and on that account unwholesome.

The Austrians are sober, and faithful in their engagements, particularly in their duty to their sovereign. Like plants, they may be distinguished by the nature of the soil; at least the difference is apparent between the inhabitants of the wine and grain countries. The natives of the plains are strong and muscular, those in the mountains are light and active.

The importance of the revenue might be inferred from what has been said of the industry that prevails in the country. It amounts in Lower Austria to 26,000,000 florins, but in Upper Austria it does not exceed 8,000,000.

1807 transferred to Bavaria, and again restored to Austria in 1817." (Ed. Encyc.)—"The archbishopric was secularized in 1802, and given, with Eichstedt, Berchtolsgaden and a part of Passau, to Ferdinand, archduke of Austria and grand duke of Tuscany, as an indemnification for the loss of Tuscany. At the peace of Presburg (1806,) Salzburg was immediately annexed to Austria. At the peace of Vienna (1809,) it was surrendered to Napoleon, who ceded it to Bavaria (1810.) After the peace of Paris (1815,) Salzburg was restored to Austria, with the exception of a part of it

on the left bank of the Salza, which, together with Berchtolsgaden, was left to Bavaria. (Conv. Lex.)—P.

^a *Juvavum* (p. 730, M. B., D'Anville,) *Juvavia* (Busching.)

^b "Place de la Cour"—Germ. *Hofplatz*, Court Square

^c Germ. *Domplatz*.

^d Paracelsus was born at Einsidlin, in the canton of Schweitz; he died at Salzburg.—P.

BOOK CXXVIII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Germany.—Twelfth Section.—County of Tyrol, and Dutchy of Stiria.

Snow covered mountains and arid rocks are the first objects that the traveller observes on entering Tyrol and Stiria. The narrow and sinuous vallies in Tyrol unite with the wildness of a natural, the riches of a cultivated country; in Stiria the vallies are much larger, particularly in the south and the east; in both the climate is extremely variable.

Tyrol derives its name from an ancient castle near Meran, on a mountain that commands the Adige. The country passed by inheritance to the dukes of Austria in the year 1363. It is bounded on the north by Bavaria, on the west by Switzerland, and on the south and the east by the Lombardo-Venician kingdom, Illyria and Upper Austria. According to Blumenbach, its surface is equal to five hundred and twenty German, or six thousand two hundred and forty English square miles.^a

The two declivities of the Rætian Alps, which form the continuation of those in Switzerland, make up the greater part of Tyrol. To have a notion of the country, one must imagine mountains apparently almost as high as Mont Blanc, which none have ever attempted to ascend, frightful precipices, lofty cataracts, glaciers of several leagues in extent, and torrents rolling through rocky vallies; on one side, the icy winds of the north, and on the other, the sultry blast of the sirocco.

If the traveller be placed near the sources of the Inn, he may observe on the right,^b a chain less extensive than the others, which bears the name of Arlberg,^c or the Eagle mountain; hence the north-western part of the province has been denominated the Vorarlberg, or the country in front of the Eagle mountain. Another and higher chain extends from west to east, and forms what the ancients called the Rætian Alps,^d a name derived from the Roman province of Rætia. The continuation of the chain in the same direction was styled the Noric Alps,^e because the country on both sides made up the Roman Noricum; they terminate on the confines of Stiria and Austria. A chain that extends from the sources of the Mur to the extremities of Stiria, has received the name of the Stirian Alps.

Tschernowand is next to Orteles, the highest summit in the Rætian Alps.^f The most extensive glaciers are the Gebatsch and the Rofner. The rivers that rise from the

Arlberg, are the Isar, the Lech, the Iller and the Inn. The Etsch or the Adige which throws itself into the Adriatic Gulf, and the Drave which unites with the Danube, after having traversed Illyria and part of Hungary, take their rise from the glaciers in the great chain.

Many primitive rocks^g are situated both on the southern declivity of the Rætian Alps, and in the valley of the Adige. A distinguished geologist^h has made many important observations on the singular arrangement of the calcareous rocks, which consist of that variety of magnesian limestone, called *dolomite*. Nothing indeed can be more surprising than the inaccessible heights and bold forms that these rocks exhibit near the valley of Fassa; they appear to surpass what the imagination can conceive. Von Buch concludes that this white, granular and almost friable limestone had been compact, coloured, stratified and filled with organic bodies, before the augitic porphyryⁱ which supports it had by penetrating it with magnesia, destroyed the organic remains and changed its characters. The porphyry has been elevated by such a force, and to such an altitude, as to have raised into the air the colossal masses that surmount it. It is unnecessary to enter farther into the views of so great a geologist as Von Buch, but it may be added that they appear to be very probable, for the pyroxene which characterizes the porphyry, seems to connect it with igneous products. Von Buch however goes farther, for he supposes that all chains of mountains whatever have been formed by similar elevations from beneath; that opinion may be afterwards confirmed by other phenomena. Our limits prevent us from examining more minutely the geological formation of the Rætian Alps. Their elevation, and the account already given of the country round Salzburg which forms a part of the chain, are sufficient to prove that all the rocks which are considered primitive, are contained in them.

According to a professor, whom we have had already occasion to quote,^k coal is found in the mountains of Stiria, but the deposits in the valley of the Mur, which might be worked with profit, appear to consist of lignite rather than coal. They lie in the midst of sandstone, argil and shell marle, and these substances are encompassed and supported by the transition mountains in the country. This large valley is filled with deposits of tertiary formation.

The vegetable riches of the Tyrolese mountains are well known to botanists; they find on them many leguminous,

^a "1446 sq. Fr. leagues."—11,000 Eng. sq. miles (Morse.) The latter coincides nearly with the extent in the original, reckoning the German miles and French leagues as geographical, on which supposition alone they can be made to correspond.—P.

^b On the north, between the Inn and the lake of Constance.

^c Contraction of Adlerberg.

^d *Alpes Ræticae*.

^e *Alpes Noricae*. The terms Rætian and Noric Alps are still applied to these mountains. (M. B.)—P.

^f It is upwards of twelve thousand feet in height—[11,645. M. B.]

^g "Roches anciens"—*Qu. calcaire ancien*.

^h Von Buch, Memoirs read before the royal academy of Berlin, January, 1822, and February, 1823.

ⁱ "Porphyre pyroxénique."

^k M. Riapl, Professor of Natural History in the Polytechnic Institute of Vienna.

cruciform, labiate and composite plants, as well as *Orchidea*, *Cytisi*, *Genista*, *Euphorbia* and *Loti*. The air is embalmed during the night, by the fragrance diffused by the *Silene nutans*. But the most interesting plants are not found on the highest parts of these Alpine chains. The steep rocks of the *Lantsch* near Grätz, at the extremity of the calcareous mountains in Stiria, afford shelter to plants, which appear to be forever removed from the reach of the botanist. The woods that cover its summits are the only places where the *Delphinium intermedium* grows; it reaches to the height of five feet, and charms the eye with its fine blue flowers. The only examples of the *Peltaria alliacea* that flourish in a wild state are found on the sides of the same mountain.

Ferruginous waters have been discovered in different parts of Tyrol, but no warm mineral springs.

The oxen, cows and horses are small, but of a good kind; goats are more numerous than sheep, and different kinds of game are very common. Wolves, wild boars and bears haunt the forests, the clefts in the rocks afford shelter to marmots, and the chamois finds refuge on the highest summits, or in places which the hunter cannot approach.

The Rheti were the earliest people that are known to have inhabited Tyrol. They were composed of different tribes, such as the *Vennonii* or *Vennonnes*, whom Ptolemy and Strabo mention,^a and the *Brixantes*, whose chief town was probably built on the site of Brixen. Pliny informs us that they emigrated from Etruria; but it may be concluded that they were obliged to leave that country, as it is very improbable that a nation would renounce voluntarily so fine a climate as that of Italy, to settle in such a country as Tyrol. The Rheti were subdued by the Romans in the time of Augustus, and their territory received the name of *Rhetia Prima*, while that of the Vindelici was called *Rhetia Secunda*.

Different metals are found in Tyrol, but not in such quantities as to be of much value. Thus the gold collected annually does not exceed a hundred marks; silver is also scarce, and what is obtained is almost entirely extracted from lead. The copper is supposed to be more malleable, and, consequently, purer than in most other countries; but iron is more common than any of the other metals. The other substances that may be mentioned are cobalt, zinc, arsenic, sulphur and salt. The salt mines are the continuation of those in Salzburg, and one of them near Hall yields every year twenty-five thousand quintals. Although the revenue which government derives from the mines may be inconsiderable, the people contrive to gain a subsistence by them.

Agriculture has been brought to a great degree of perfection; the Tyrolese use their lands to the best advantage. Much labour and care are bestowed on the soil; vegetable mould is transported to high summits; the grass which grows on the sides of steep declivities, is collected for the cattle; even the atmospheric action by which rocks are decomposed, is rendered profitable to the husbandmen, who convert these remains into cultivated fields. The stranger observes not without amazement the Tyrolese peasant with a basket on his head, descending inaccessible rocks, by means of a rope and a stick, to the bottom of a precipice, in order that he may gain a few feet of land, and devote it to agriculture.

The hills favourable to the vine are covered with vineyards; it is true that the wine which they produce does not keep a long time, but although it may on that account be unfit for exportation, it forms the materials of an inland commerce. The vineyards are most numerous in the valley of the Adige; they cover the heights in the neighbourhood of Brixen and Tramin; those near the latter town are considered the most valuable. The Tyrolese also cultivate fruit trees, but the forests are much more important; they export timber for building to Venice.

But although the people be as industrious as possible, the country cannot furnish the means of subsistence to seven hundred and sixty-two thousand inhabitants.^b The people must find employment elsewhere; they must have recourse to other pursuits besides agriculture. Some have no other wealth than their cattle, but it could hardly be imagined that the birds which have been transported from the Canaries to Europe, where they are prized both for their notes and their plumage, form by no means an insignificant branch of trade in Tyrol. The people are compelled to gain a livelihood in any way, and they do not disdain to wander in foreign countries and to earn a subsistence by selling canaries. There are few manufactories in Tyrol, but almost every Tyrolian is an artisan or manufacturer. Many for want of a better employment travel as pedlars through the most distant countries, and return in old age with enough to enable them to pass the rest of their days in their native land. At six years of age the Tyrolian quits his mountains, sets out for the fair of Kempten in Bavaria, and renders himself useful by herding geese or cattle; at a later period he emigrates as a mason, carpenter, miner or picture-seller; it is reckoned that in this manner, more than thirty thousand individuals leave their country every year. Some preferring a hunter's life, traverse their mountains, endure all sorts of fatigue, and expose themselves to the greatest dangers to attain their prey; others wander in quest of medicinal plants, which they learn from their infancy, and know as correctly as the ablest botanists.

Among those who remain at home, some execute different works in wood with great skill; the vast forests in the Vorarlberg supply them with the materials for making wooden shops, and even houses, of which the different pieces are numbered, and transported to the lake of Constance, and from thence to neighbouring countries. It seems as if the Tyrolese were naturally mechanics; ingenious machinery, such as may supply the want of hands, is moved by the streams that water their vallies; wheels fashioned for that purpose, are set in motion at different distances. Do they require flour, or stand in need of oil? as every individual provides in a manner for his own wants, there are neither millers nor oil mills, but at the neighbouring stream, the corn is ground, and the oleaginous plants are pressed. A German traveller declares that he has seen a child rocked in his cradle by means of a wheel made to revolve by a stream.^c While men are engaged in different branches of labour, the women are not idle; some knit stockings, while others make goat skin gloves, embroider muslin, or plait straw which is manufactured into hats. But manufacturing industry is confined to the making of only a few articles; thus velvet is made in some places, and carpets in others,

^a Strabo, Lib. IV.

^b Such is the number of inhabitants according to the calculation of M. Thielen. See his *Manual*, Vienna, 1827.

^c M. Rohrer. See also "Voyage dans le Tyrol, aux salines de Salzbourg, &c. par M. de Bray."

particularly in the valley of Lientz. The transit trade between Germany and Italy forms a more important and extensive branch of commerce.

Frankness, fidelity, loyalty and love of country are the virtues that distinguish the Tyrolese. Averse to the conscription, because friendly to independence and liberty, none fight with greater bravery in defence of their country. Not corrupted by the usages of large towns, faithful in their domestic relations, peace and gaiety reign in their families. Devout, but also superstitious, they must have a religion that attracts by its ceremonies, that speaks to the imagination as well as to the heart; they people the summits of the mountains, and the gloomy forests which encompass them, with spirits, demons and sorcerers. Such being the case, it is not wonderful that there are no protestants in Tyrol; all the inhabitants, with the exception of eight or ten Jewish families, are catholics.

The Tyrolese enjoy more political liberty than the people in any other Austrian province. Government ratified their ancient privileges in 1816, and granted them a constitution better adapted to their wants. While the people in the other countries, subject to Austria, are represented by the clergy, nobility and deputies from a few towns, the Tyrolian states are not only composed of members belonging to these orders, but also of others elected by the peasantry. The people in the Vorarlberg possess certain prerogatives, in which the rest of the inhabitants do not participate.

The conscription has been abolished in Tyrol, but government has found that measure an additional security against a foreign invasion, for every Tyrolian becomes a soldier in time of war. The people are hardy, active and accustomed to fatigue; few armies can have much chance of resisting them, when they rise simultaneously to defend their country. They furnish to the government that protects them, only four battalions of light armed troops.^a Although no custom-houses are erected on the frontiers, the revenue is considerable; it amounts to more than two millions five hundred thousand Austrian florins.

There are in the country of Tyrol, twenty-two towns, thirty-six burghs, and three thousand one hundred and fifty villages. Some of the villages are as populous as the towns, but then the greater number of the latter are small and insignificant. Bregenz, situated in the Vorarlberg, on the banks of the lake of Constance, contains three thousand five hundred inhabitants. It is a place of great antiquity; the remains of Roman buildings are still seen near its ancient castle. The village of Achenrein derives its wealth from its founderies and iron works; the sheet copper and tinned iron that are sent from these works, yield a clear profit of sixty-five thousand florins. Imst, a burgh of three thousand inhabitants, on the banks of the Inn, exports canaries to the remotest countries in Europe; the trade is said to produce annually more than £4800.^b Scharnitz, on the frontiers of Bavaria, is the ancient Roman town of *Porta Claudia*.^c

Innsbruck or rather Innsbruck, which signifies the bridge over the Inn, stands in the middle of a valley, formed by mountains from six to eight thousand feet in height, and covered with snow even in the months of May and June. It is the capital of Tyrol, and its population consists of 10,500 souls. Although the town be small and ill built,

^a "Chasseurs," *Jägers*.

^b "90,000 francs"

^c The Roman *Scarantia*. Schärnitz is a fortified place on the frontiers of Bavaria, the fortifications of which were begun by the archduchess

the suburbs consist of modern houses, the residences of the nobles and the wealthy. The palace situated in a square adorned with a bronze equestrian statue of Leopold the Fifth, the court church containing the tombs of twenty-eight distinguished personages, and a monument to the memory of the emperor Maximilian, and lastly, the large and spacious town-house, are the only public buildings that can be mentioned in the capital. The celebrated globe of Peter Anich, a Tyrolese shepherd, who became an eminent geographer, is preserved in the hall of the university.

Hall, which lies below Innsbruck, is the chief town in the district of the salt mines; it contains four thousand two hundred inhabitants; its extensive salt mines are five thousand feet above the level of the sea. Schwatz, one of the largest burghs in the province, is peopled by seven thousand four hundred and fifty inhabitants, two thousand of whom find employment in the mines within its territory, which produce a great quantity of iron, two thousand five hundred quintals of copper, and three thousand five hundred marks of silver. Zierl, another village on the Inn, is commanded by steep heights and rugged rocks, from which the emperor Maximilian the First made a narrow escape. The prince, ardent in the chase, advanced so far that he must have perished, had it not been for the coolness and intrepidity of an attendant. The people tell the story, and show the place where a cross forty feet in height, has been erected to commemorate the event; but superstitious, and fond of the miraculous, they believe that the emperor was saved by an angel.

Sterzing, a town of two thousand inhabitants, was called *Urbs Stiraciorum* by the Romans;^d it carries on a considerable trade in iron and wines. Botzen on the Rienz, appears rather like an Italian than a German town; the valley in which it stands, is covered with vineyards and fruit trees, adorned with country houses, and bounded by lofty mountains that rise in the form of an amphitheatre. But the interior of the town does not correspond with its appearance at a distance, for the streets are dirty, crooked and narrow. The population amounts to seven thousand individuals.

Although the inhabitants give the name of fortifications to walls ten feet in height, *Trent*, or as it is called in Germany, *Trient*, could hardly resist an attack in time of war. Broad and regular streets, well built houses, fine paintings in the churches, numerous convents and hospitals, and a celebrated university, render it like an Italian town; indeed the illusion would be complete, if its fifteen thousand inhabitants spoke the Italian language. Trent is well known on account of its council, which lasted from the year 1545 to 1563. The mountains that rise on both banks of the Adige, are not the lowest in the Alps. The climate is excessively warm in summer, and intensely cold in winter.

Roveredo, situated in the pleasant valley of Lagarina, carries on a considerable trade in fruits and silk. The town, originally small and ill built, has been improved as the population has increased; it contains at present not less than twelve thousand inhabitants. Pieve, Castello and Cinte are villages of which the trade consists in pictures. Brentonico exports the greenish talc used by painters, and known by the name of *terra di Verona*.

The duchy of *Stiria* is bounded by the kingdom of

Claudia Medicea, whence is derived its modern Latin name of *Porta Claudia*. (Busching.)—P.

^d R. Von Jenny, *Handbuch für reisende in dem Oesterreichischen Kaiserstaate*.

Illyria, the archduchy of Austria, and the kingdom of Hungary. It is equal in superficial extent to three hundred and ninety-nine German, or four thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight English square miles.^a Several important chains are situated in that mountainous region; on the north are the Noric Alps, on the east the Stirian Alps, and on the west a branch of the Julian Alps. The highest mountains are those in the north, and the lowest are those in the opposite direction or the south; so that the country is thus divided into Upper and Lower Stiria.^b The principal rivers are the Ens, the Mur and the Drave. The basin of the Mur is larger than any other; that river receives more than a hundred feeders; it turns ninety-eight flour mills, forty-three saw mills and sixty fulling mills. Its declivity is so great as to give it almost the rapidity of a torrent; for the same reason it is never encumbered with ice; the oldest inhabitants do not recollect to have seen it frozen. Fish abound in all the rivers, but particularly in the Mur; although carp are not so common, trout, umber, pike and barbel are taken in great numbers.^c The lakes are numerous, but none of them are very large. What has been already said concerning the geological structure of the principal chains, renders it unnecessary to recur to the subject; but some account may be given of the ancient and present inhabitants of the country.

The Romans comprehended under the name of *Noricum*, a great part of Stiria. The *Norici* were governed by a king, when their country became a Roman province in the time of Augustus. According to Ptolemy, *Noricum* was inhabited by several tribes. The *Ambisontii* possessed the country on the west and the north; the *Ambidrani*, the *Ambilici* and principally the *Norici* were settled in the east and the south. In the latter part of the fourth century, the hordes of Alaric made themselves masters of the country, and their chief wished to erect there the seat of his empire; but he pursued the course of his conquests, and the Suevo, Heruli and Huns succeeded him in Stiria. It was for a long time subject to Bavaria, but the emperor Conrad the Second made it a margraviate in the year 1030. Erected into a duchy by Frederick the First, it passed in 1186 by right of succession to the house of Austria. Separated from the archduchy of Austria, it was again united with it in 1232; lastly, it was conquered by Ottocar the Second, king of Bohemia, but Rudolph of Hapsburg having been raised to the imperial throne, took possession of it, and it has since continued an Austrian province.^d

The country, it has been seen, was the theatre of frequent wars during the middle ages; but it is still easy to distinguish two different races of inhabitants, the Germans and the Wends, the last of whom are sprung from the Slavonians. The Germans form a population of six hundred thousand individuals, and the Wends of about two hundred thousand. The latter reside chiefly in the circles of Cilly and Marburg; they differ in their language and character from the other inhabitants. The German Stirians, or the natives of Upper Stiria, are strong and well made, honest, frank and industrious. The Wendish Stirians, or the natives of Lower Stiria, are weak in body, frivolous,

dissipated and superstitious.^e The greater part of the population adheres to the catholic religion; the number of protestants amounts hardly to three thousand. As to the Jews, they are not permitted to reside in the duchy.

The air is keen and often very cold in the mountains of Upper Stiria; but the temperature in the vallies is warmer than in most others in the Alps. The mean temperature at Grätz is from seven to eight degrees of Reaumur, and the height of the barometer about twenty-seven inches. The climate of Lower Stiria is so mild that the grape arrives at maturity; the wines may be drunk soon after they are made; most of them are of a good quality, and some not inferior in strength to the Rhenish wines.

The grain harvests are not abundant, but the flax is remarkable for its length and fineness. Vegetables, fruits, and leguminous plants flourish, and the forests are so extensive that their surface is supposed to be equal to half of the whole country. The lands are fruitful and well cultivated in the vallies; the cattle in the mountains are of a good kind, indeed they are considered the best in the Austrian empire; in every district the sheepfolds are numerous, and the country people rear besides a great quantity of poultry. The sportsman finds the red partridge, the hazel grouse and many other kinds of game in abundance, and flocks of chamois are met with on the mountains. If the herds and flocks have diminished within the last twenty years, it must be attributed to disastrous wars, and additional taxes—the necessary consequence of those wars.

The riches of the country consist principally in its mines, the Romans were supplied from Stiria with excellent iron, and that metal is still obtained in such abundance that it may be considered inexhaustible. The Stirian steel is better than any other in Europe. Silver, copper and lead, coal and rock salt, are obtained in different parts of the country, and it is to the metals obtained from the mines that the industry of the inhabitants is principally directed. There are more than thirty-six scythe manufactories in Stiria, and its exports are diffused over Austria, Hungary, and even the Ottoman empire; they may be estimated at one million eight hundred thousand florins.

Stiria is divided into five circles, of which the chief towns are Grätz, Bruck, Judenburg, Marburg and Cilly. It is governed like most other provinces under the Austrian empire. The members of the states consist of three classes, namely, the higher nobles, among whom are included the bishops, the petty nobles, and the deputies of the towns and burghs entitled to be represented in the assemblies. The country furnishes several regiments^f of infantry and a certain number of men for the cavalry.

Commencing with the mountainous region that occupies the northern extremity of Stiria, the stranger may form some idea of the wealth and population of the duchy by surveying the principal towns and inhabited places as he proceeds towards the south. The burgh of Aussec is situated near a lake, and at the junction of three small rivers which form the Traun. The produce of several salt works in its neighbourhood, exceeds a hundred and sixty thousand quintals. Not far from the village of Mirnitz is situated a cave, wor-

^a "1109 sq. Fr. leagues."—Reckoning the German miles and French leagues as geographical, about 8500 Eng. sq. miles.—P.

^b The following Stirian mountains have not been mentioned in the Table of European Altitudes, Book XCIV.

Eisenhut	7,676 feet.
Hoch Grimming	7,540
Stang Alp	7,140

Kempel	4,798
Schœkel	4,778
Erzberg	4,590

[The above measurements are those of the original.]

^c M. Schmutz, Steyermark Zeitschreib. 1821.

^d Merian, Topographia Styriae.

^e Hassel's Geography, (in Germ.)

^f 'Two regiments'

any of notice from its extent, its sinuosities and its stalactites, and from its fossil bones formerly held in veneration by the peasantry. Eisenerz, a burgh of which the church was founded by Rudolph of Hapsburg, is surrounded by mines from which more than two hundred and sixty thousand quintals of iron are obtained every year.

Zell or Maria Zell towards the north-east, and on the frontier of Stíria, has been termed the Loretto of the country; it is certainly more frequented by pilgrims than any other place in the Austrian empire. The church is one of the finest, and without doubt the largest in Stíria. The organ is not considered inferior to any other in Germany, the large pulpit is formed of red marble, and the chapel has been enriched by the offerings of pilgrims; the adored image of the virgin is placed on a silver altar, and the gate that leads from the church to the chapel is made of the same metal. The gold, silver, and other valuable articles deposited in the treasury, attest the pious offerings of the hundred thousand pilgrims that repair every year to the shrine of the virgin.

Bruck on the Mur is the metropolis of a circle, and the inhabitants are employed in working slate quarries and productive mines in its neighbourhood. The Capuchins have a convent in its vicinity. On the same river, and above Bruck, is situated Leoben, one of the best built towns in Upper Stíria. The preliminaries of peace between France and Austria were signed within its walls in 1797. Judenburg situated above Leoben, although the chief town of a circle, contains only fifteen hundred inhabitants. It was a place of some consequence in the time of the Romans; during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, it was principally inhabited by Jews, whence the origin of its present name. As a great trade was then in the hands of these Jews, their prosperity drew upon them the hatred and persecution of the Christians, who succeeded in expelling or extirpating them about the year 1312. The town was almost wholly consumed by fire in 1807, and the inhabitants had much difficulty in repairing their losses; the Franciscan convent has been converted into an inn, and the ducal castle into barracks. Rohitsch appears to have been once a Roman town; at all events many coins, vases and other articles of antiquity have been found in it. Strangers frequent it on account of its mineral waters, and it exports annually more than eight hundred thousand bottles to Poland, Hungary and Italy.

Grätz or Gratz, the metropolis of a circle, and the capital of the province, is situated in the fine valley of the Mur. Its population amounts to forty thousand inhabitants; the greater number of them reside in the suburbs. According to a German traveller, Herren street is the broadest, Sporr street the most inconvenient, Schmidt street the most noisy, and Mur street the most crowded.^a The public buildings are the cathedral, the theatre, the town-house, recently erected, and the government-house in which the states meet. Grätz contains ten parish churches and twelve chapels of ease, together with five convents for men and two for women. Several hospitals may be mentioned among the charitable institutions, namely, the large hospital for sick, another for women in labour, a third for the insane, and a fourth for orphans.^b An university,^c a drawing academy,

a commercial seminary, gymnasiums for boys, and boarding schools for girls, are the principal places of education. A library containing a hundred thousand volumes and three thousand five hundred manuscripts, and the *Johanneum*, an institution so called from the name of the prince its founder,^d to which belong a botanical garden, a museum of natural history, and a cabinet of medals and antiquities, are considered the most valuable scientific collections. A Calvary, a church and several chapels are situated on a height in the neighbourhood. The town is a place of considerable importance from its commerce and manufactures.

Radkersburg,^e which might be surnamed the romantic, stands on an island in the middle of the Mur. The fortifications are in bad repair, and insufficient to protect it against the frequent inundations of the river. The village of Riegersburg is built on an eminence at no great distance from the last town. Its ancient castle is remarkable for its picturesque situation, for its fortifications cut in the rock, its deep ditches and the relics of the middle ages that are contained in it. It has been of late rendered illustrious by a man of genius^f who has paid a tribute of affection to its ancient proprietors.

The burgh of Leibnitz, on the right bank of the Mur, was perhaps the ancient *Mureola*, a town mentioned by Ptolemy; at least the opinion is rendered probable by the numerous antiquities that have been found at different times, and by the sculptures and Roman inscriptions that may still be seen in the tower of Schauberg which was built in the twelfth century.

Marburg, at the confluence of the Drave and the Mur, contains five thousand inhabitants. Although the metropolis of a circle, it possesses no public building of any consequence; it carries on, however, a considerable trade in corn and wine. The small town of Pettau is situated on the left bank of the Drave; the population does not exceed seventeen hundred inhabitants, but it has its convents of Dominicans, Minorites and Capuchins. It is considered the most ancient town in Stíria; many suppose it to have been built before the country was conquered by the Romans; there is, however, reason to believe that it was then situated on the other bank of the river.

Luttenberg to the east of Pettau, is famous for its wines. The town of Cilly is adorned with a castle in which many valuable antiquities are preserved. It was founded by the emperor Claudius, who gave it the name of *Claudia*,^g and its present walls are partly built with the remains of ancient buildings; the barracks which have been lately erected, form the finest edifice in the place. According to the legends, Maximilian, the first bishop of Cilly, was decapitated in the town in the year 284. A third Tœplitz, which is also known for its mineral waters, is situated at the foot of the mountains on the south of Cilly. Rain, a small town encompassed with walls now in ruins, lies near the southern extremity of the province, on the banks of the Save. The lands in the neighbourhood are fruitful, and wine forms the principal branch of its commerce. The rapid waters of the Save are covered with empty casks at the approach of autumn; they are bound together in rafts and steered by mariners who descend to the town and sell them to the inhabitants during the vintage. It is supposed that Rain was the

^a Rud. Von Jenny.

^b "Foundlings."

^c Grätz had formerly a university founded in 1586. (Busching.) It is now suppressed, or rather converted into a lycœum. (Hassel.) See Stat. Table of Austria, p. 750.—P.

^d The Archduke John.

^e Rakesburg, Rakelsburg (Busching.) ^f Von Hammer, the orientalist.

^g *Celcia* is said to have been the Roman town that occupied the site of Cilly. (Busching, D'Anville.) *Claudia* is said by P. Hardouin, to have occupied the site of Clagenfurt in Carinthia. (Encyc. Method.)—P.

Novidunum of the Romans; it was pillaged and destroyed by the Turks^a after a sanguinary battle in the year 1475.

The district of Voitzberg, situated to the west of Grätz on the left bank of the Mur, is surrounded by mountains which separate it from Upper Stiria and Illyria. The highest part of the country is exposed for seven months in the year to the rigours of winter, and also to frequent and violent storms. But the vallies in the lower part of the country abound in fruits and wine. The inhabitants export coal, whetstones that are much prized in Stiria, and draught

horses of a good kind. The people are industrious; they are employed in their iron works, nail manufactories, paper mills and tile works; many of them, however, are subject to goitres. The small town of Voitzberg, three burghs and twenty villages^b are contained in the district.

The number of women throughout Stiria exceeds that of the men by nearly twenty-six thousand;^c the latter are supposed to be equal to three hundred and seventy-four thousand. Five is considered the average number of members in each family, and all the families, it has been calculated, amount to 160,500.^d

^a "The country in its neighbourhood was ravaged by the Turks —"

^b "Communes."

^c M. Kudler, Steyermark Zeitschr. 1821.

^d The reader will find some details concerning the population and agricultural wealth of the country, in the statistical tables at the end of the next book

BOOK CXXIX.

EUROPE

Europe Continued.—Germany.—Thirteenth Section.—Kingdom of Illyria described.—Austria and Germany concluded.

THE name of Illyria is connected with historical recollections; it was one of the most ancient kingdoms in Europe, but it lost that title when it was conquered by Anicius, a Roman general, a hundred and sixty-eight years before the vulgar era. It retained however the name of *Illyrieum*, and under the reign of Augustus, Liburnia and Dalmatia, the fruits of new conquests, were added to it. Pliny informs us^a that the *Peucetiae* and the *Japydes* inhabited the region between Istria and Liburnia; we may add that the *Carni* possessed the country on the south of the Carnic Alps. It is supposed that these people were of Celtic origin. Mentelle affirms that *Carnia*, the present Carniola, derives its name from the word *karn*, which signifies rye.^b If however the name of the country be derived from a Germanic word, it must be from *korn*, which, as every one knows, signifies wheat, rye and all kinds of grain. Could it be proved that the country owes its name to the abundance of its harvests, it must have been originally called *Kornia*; the conjecture is indeed strengthened by the existence of a Roman medal, struck to commemorate the victories of Scaurus over the Carni, on the reverse of which are seen a Mercury and a cornucopia filled with ears of corn.

Illyria was so much enlarged by the addition of different provinces, that at the partition of the Roman empire, between Honorius and Arcadius, it was divided into two parts, of which one belonged to the eastern, and the other to the western empire.^c But the name of Illyria was no longer used after the northern hordes invaded that portion of Europe; it was comparatively of late years that the Austrian chancery restored the name to distinguish part of the ancient *Illyrieum* from the Hungarian provinces and those that extend to the south of the Drave. After the peace of Presburg, Napoleon, who compelled Austria to cede Kraiburg, Friuli, Istria, Croatia on the south of the Save, and a part of Dalmatia and Tyrol, incorporated them under the name of Illyria with his vast empire.^d Austria having gained anew her possessions in 1814, united Carniola and Carinthia, the territory of Trieste, and a part of Croatia, Austrian Friuli and Venetian Istria, and thus restored the kingdom of Illy-

ria. It was at the same time divided into two governments, those of Laybach and Trieste.

It is bounded on the north and the east by the archduchy of Austria, the duchy of Stiria and Croatia, on the south by the generalship of Carlstadt^e and the Adriatic Gulf, and on the west by the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom and the county of Tyrol. According to Blumenbach, it is equal in superficial extent to six hundred and eighteen German, or seven thousand four hundred and sixteen English miles.^f

Lofty chains of mountains extend across the country in different directions; the coasts are marshy on the east, in other places they are flat and sandy. The peninsula of Istria, terminating on the south in Cape *Promontory*,^g forms the southern portion of the government of Trieste. The vallies in the districts of Villach and Klagenfurt are sufficiently fertile; the soil is covered with calcareous fragments. The lands in the circles of Laybach, Neustadt and Adelsberg, in some places abounding with rocks, in others covered with marshes, sandstone and sand, are sterile and unfruitful. The western portion of the kingdom is bathed by the Adriatic; there the dryness of the soil, which rests on calcareous rocks, and the scarcity of water, do not appear to be hurtful to vegetation. It may be remarked that the plants in the southern districts have a great resemblance to those on the shores of the Black Sea.

The branches of two lofty chains extend into Illyria, namely, the Noric Alps on the north, and the Julian Alps on the south. They are in a great measure, particularly the last, composed of calcareous rocks which geologists call secondary, and which, from their tendency to disaggregation in particular parts, so as to form numerous cavities, might well be termed cavernous limestone. It seems indeed as if all these mountains were hollow; at least it cannot be denied that almost as many rivers flow below as above the ground. The stranger who follows their course, observes them entering the earth and returning from it at different distances. Others become wholly dry at certain seasons of the year, and afterwards reappear.

It might be possible to enumerate more than a thousand caverns in the chain that traverses Illyria from north-west to south-east; but none can be compared in point of extent with the one at Adelsberg, which is situated in a small val-

^a Liber III. cap. XXI.

^b Encyclopédie Méthodique, Dictionnaire de la Géographie Ancienne, par Mentelle. ["*Karn*, en langue germanique, signifiant du bled, et plus particulièrement du seigle, on a cru que c'étoit de l'abondance de cette production que venoit le nom du pays." Encyc. Méthod. Géog. Anc. art. Carnia.—P.]

^c Ruffus, Notices de l'Empire.

^d Austria lost by the peace of Presburg (1805,) Dalmatia, Istria, Friuli and Cattaro on the Adriatic, together with Tyrol and the Swabian Principalities. By the peace of Vienna (1809,) she lost Trieste, Fiume, the

greater part of Croatia and Carniola, and the circle of Villach in Carinthia, besides other possessions not connected with the present subject. The circle of Villach, Carniola, Austrian Istria, Fiume and Trieste, Croatia including the *Litorale*, and Dalmatia, were denominated the Illyrian Provinces by a decree of Napoleon (1809.) Kraiburg is only a small town in Carniola (Germ. *Krain*.) Ed. Encyc. Conv. Lex.—P.

^e In the military limits of Croatia.—P.

^f "1718 sq. Fr. leagues,"—13,508 Eng. sq. miles. (Mose.)

^g Ital. *Punta Promontorio*.

ley at no great distance from that burgh. Some writers consider it equal in length to five miles.^a It is by no means easy to trace the rapid declivities in the labyrinth, or the narrow and tortuous passages which lead to immense halls. All agree that it surpasses most places of the kind; the floor is covered with fossil bones; a torrent rushes through the cavities with a frightful noise, which is repeated by many echoes; stalactites adorn the halls, and appear in some places like the ruins of old palaces, in others like magnificent colonnades.^b

The cave of Magdalena, although not nearly so extensive as the last, is fully as deep, and more remarkable on account of its stalactites. The vault has the appearance of being supported by colossal cariatides, and the different calcareous concretions exhibit the most varied forms. That species of water lizard^c known by the name of *Proteus anguinus* abounds in a small basin at the extremity of the cave.

Many lakes, and all of them amply stored with fish, are situated in the Illyrian mountains; but the lake of Cirknitz has been more frequently examined by naturalists than any other; in some years, the angler, the field sportsman, the sower and the reaper may there find employment. Calcareous mountains bound it on every side; mount Jovorniek commands it on the south, and the Sliviza on the north. It is about four or five leagues in circumference in dry seasons, and in wet seasons about seven or eight. The waters of eight streams flow into it, and four or five islands rise in the middle of the lake; the village of Vorneck has been built on the largest of these islands.

The lake disappears at irregular periods, and its waters escape through about forty clefts or apertures in its bed. The inhabitants then collect the fish that have not been carried away by the waters, and shoot the aquatic fowl that seek in vain for their haunts. The husbandman deposits the seed in the fertile ooze, trusting that his labours may be crowned by an abundant harvest; but his labour, his expenses and his hopes are often vain. By the same outlets, which served to drain the lake, the waters rise suddenly with a tremendous noise resembling thunder; the fish reappear, the teal and other water birds find their wonted asylum, and man alone complains of his improvidence.

Different mineral substances are found in the kingdom. Carinthia contains carbonate of iron, lead and zinc mines, which are situated in transition rocks, and also silver and copper.

The metallic veins in Carniola are not less abundant; but the quicksilver mines in the neighbourhood of Idria are the most valuable. These mines, together with others in Spain and at Deux-Ponts, supply the greater part of Europe. The quicksilver is found there in bituminous schistus. The metallic wealth of the country is transported by the Drave and the Save, which are the principal rivers, and by the Lisonzo^d and the Quieto, which throw themselves into the Adriatic Gulf.

The keen and cold air of the mountains near Villach and Klagenfurt prevents the vine from arriving at maturity; but the climate to the south of these mountains is wholesome and temperate. The stranger begins to feel the heat of the atmosphere in the circles of Laybach, Neustadt and Adels-

berg, and it increases gradually as he advances southwards. The chestnut tree and the vine flourish; the climate is favourable to them, and the only obstacle against which they have to contend, arises from the bad quality of the soil. The fig, the mulberry, and even the olive, thrive in the country round Trieste; it is seldom that they are exposed to any danger from frost. The vines are loaded with grapes, but their produce does not keep any length of time; the wines, however, that are produced in the valley of Vinodol, form an exception; they are brisk and sparkling, and for that reason might be called the champagne of the country. The domestic animals are not of a good kind; but the people in the vallies devote themselves principally to the rearing of silk worms.

Although Illyria is not a manufacturing country, the inhabitants are by no means indolent. Industry appears to be most diffused in the neighbourhood of Trieste and Fiume; among the produce of that industry, different works in iron and steel might be mentioned. The people near the shores of the sea are occupied in fishing or in building vessels. The inhabitants of the rest of the kingdom find employment in the carrying trade, or in conveying different sorts of merchandise imported by way of the Adriatic Gulf, and destined for Vienna and Hungary.

The vapours that exhale from the shores of the Adriatic are in many places injurious to health. Few strong men are seen in those districts; still the insignificance of the population must be attributed, not to the climate or atmosphere, but to other causes; it is certain that the number of inhabitants for every square league does not exceed seven hundred. They consist of Wends, Slavonians, Croatians, Germans and Italians, who in all make up one million two hundred thousand individuals. The most of them profess the catholic religion; the protestants do not amount to more than eighteen thousand persons. The German is spoken by the nobles in the greater part of the kingdom; but the people in Trieste speak a corrupt Italian idiom, and some Serbes retain their Slavonic dialect.^e

The freedom of the peasantry is subject to certain restrictions; the kingdom is said to be independent; it must be admitted that the people are nominally represented by the states. But the states are not a legislative assembly, their members have no power to enact laws; they are deputed by the clergy, the nobles and the towns; it is their province to regulate the amount and the distribution of the taxes. It has been calculated that the revenue of the kingdom is equal to six millions of florins.

The village of Ferlach, is situated on the banks of the Drave; it contains three thousand inhabitants, many of whom are employed in a manufactory of arms, which furnishes thirty thousand muskets every year. The small town of Saint Veit serves as a depot for the iron of Carinthia; its market-place is adorned with a fine ancient fountain.

Klagenfurt,^f the capital of Carinthia, is regularly built in the form of a rectangle; it stands on a canal which communicates with the lake of Werth. Fountains may be seen in all the squares and principal streets; the palace of the prince bishop of Gurk is remarkable for its numerous and

^a "2 leagues."

^b See the description of the cavern in a work already cited: the Itinerary of Austria by R. Von Jenny. See also the letter of M. Bertrand Geslin to M. Brongniart, Annales des Sciences Naturelles, Tom. VII. page 258.

VOL. III.—NO. 44.

^c "Salamandre."—The *Proteus* belongs to a distinct genus from the Salamanders, but both belong to the same family of Batracian Reptiles.—P.

^d "Isonzo."

^e See p. 751.

^f Klagenfurt.

valuable collections. The town is peopled by nine thousand five hundred inhabitants; it has its public libraries, seminaries, agricultural and literary societies,^a hospitals and other charitable institutions. The inhabitants are said to speak the German language more purely and correctly than any others in the kingdom. The ancient town of Villach, and the village of Bleiberg in its vicinity, are both well known; the former on account of its white marble quarries, and the other for lead mines, which are considered the finest in Europe, and which yield annually more than thirty-five thousand quintals of pure metal.

Krainburg, a well built town on the Drave, was inhabited by the Slavonians in the eighth century; many antiquaries suppose it to be built on the side of the ancient *Santicum*. Laybach, in Slavonic *Lublana*, stands on both banks of the Laybach; its streets, though well paved, are narrow and irregular. The cathedral is admired for its paintings, and the townhouse for its Gothic architecture. Laybach is the seat of the government, and the council of censors meet in the same place. It is enriched by its carrying trade with Italy, Croatia and Bavaria. Gurkfeld is built on a hill planted with vineyards, at the foot of which flows the Save; it contains two thousand two hundred inhabitants; the principal buildings are a castle and a church. As several remains of antiquity have been discovered near Gurkfeld, it has been inferred that it was the ancient *Novidunum*. The fact, however, may be considered doubtful; indeed there is reason to believe that the ancient and celebrated town of *Novidunum* was situated at no great distance from Rain. Neustadt^b is frequented in the summer season by the strangers who repair to the warm baths at Tœplitz.

The town of Mœtting rises at the base of the mountains inhabited by the Uscoks (Germ. *Huskoken*), which are about forty miles^c in length. Many pilgrims visit Mœtting, but neither their example nor that of the peasants who repair to it in crowds at certain seasons, have infected the mountaineers; it must be admitted, however, that the Uscoks are a semi-barbarous tribe, depending chiefly on pillage for a subsistence.

Gottschee, a town of sixteen hundred souls, possesses a large and well built castle. The Gottschers, in the neighbouring country, amount in number to forty-four thousand; they may be distinguished from the other inhabitants by their manners, their language and their dress. They weave linen and make different articles of wood, which are exported to Austria and Hungary. The men are always armed with small axes, weapons by which they may be easily known. Idria stands in a deep valley in the Julian Alps; its Calvary is situated on a lofty hill, its quicksilver mines are very valuable, the passage that leads to them communicates with the centre of the town.^d

The names of the places in the government of Laybach are principally German, but in Trieste the most of the names are Italian. Görz or Gorizia,^e the chief town of a circle, contains ten thousand inhabitants. It stands in a fruitful valley on the banks of the Lisonzo; it has different societies, one of agriculture, another of arts, and a third of commerce.^f Monte Santo, a mountain famous for its wine, is situated in the neighbourhood. A Roman city rose formerly on the banks of the Anfora, which was

destroyed by the Huns in the year 452; the small town or rather the burgh of Aquileia now occupies its site. Encompassed by the lagoons of Marano, it cannot prosper until these pestilential marshes are drained by government.

Trieste, the capital of the government, was formerly the principal port in Austria; its castle was ruined by the French commandant in 1813, and there remains only a battery for the purpose of saluting the vessels that enter the roads. Trieste is divided into the old and new town; the latter is situated at the base of the mountain, the summit of which is crowned by the castle. The only public buildings entitled to notice are the exchange, a model of architecture, and the church of the Jesuits, which is remarkable for its fine front. Trieste is built in the Italian style; the houses are regular and the streets broad, particularly in the new town and in the suburbs, but in the old town the buildings are irregular and the streets narrow and dirty. It is impossible to walk in that part of the town during wet weather without being exposed to the torrents which fall from the house tops, or being compelled to stem the floods that rush through the streets. The exterior of the cathedral is only remarkable for the Roman remains with which it was built, and the interior, on account of the monument raised to the memory of the celebrated Winkelmann. Some remains of antiquity are worthy of fixing the attention; such, for instance, are the triumphal arch erected to Charlemagne, the remains of a Roman amphitheatre, and an ancient Roman aqueduct by which the town is now supplied with water. The harbour of Trieste has lately been improved; large ships can now enter it; it enjoys the privilege of free trade, which ensures the prosperity of its commerce. All the German geographers agree that the town contains at least thirty-six thousand inhabitants.^g

Capo d'Istria, a maritime town of five thousand four hundred souls, is built on a rock that communicates by a bridge with the continent; it is the metropolis of a bishopric. Pirano, which rises like a pyramid at the extremity of a cape, is peopled by six thousand two hundred individuals, most of whom are engaged in fishing or in building vessels, and also in cultivating the vine and olive. The principal church is situated on a height in the centre of the town. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade, particularly in salt obtained from the adjoining lagoons. Parenzo, a small town, is remarkable for its cathedral, in which are seen mosaics of the tenth century, and consequently, at least eighty years older than those in Saint Mark's at Venice. Rovigno, a well built town, stands on a headland encompassed with rocks; its Gothic cathedral is its finest edifice. An active commerce, its fisheries and its coasting trade, serve to enrich its nine thousand six hundred inhabitants.

The small town of Pola near the cape called *Punta Promontorio*, exhibits the remains of that flourishing city which Cæsar destroyed on account of its devotion to Pompey. It might have been owing to the beautiful view which it commands, or to the interest which its faithful and attached inhabitants inspired, that Julia, the daughter of Augustus, persuaded her father to rebuild it; at all events, the town obtained the name of *Pietas Julia*. The pestilential air that rises from its lagoons, has, without doubt, contributed to its decay; it is only inhabited at present by eight

^a "An agricultural and a literary society."

^b "Neustedt."—Neustädte. (Busching.)

^c "16 leagues."

^d "Idria is celebrated for its Calvary — and for its quicksilver mines, the entrance to which is in the centre of the town." The entrance to the mine is a little southward of the town. Russel, p. 444.—P.

^e Gorizia, Goritz.—Slav. *Goriza*.

^f "It has a society of agriculture, arts and commerce."

^g Thielens makes its population amount to forty thousand five hundred and thirty individuals.

hundred and fifty individuals. It might be difficult for the stranger who first examines it, to decide whether it be a Roman or a modern town; the streets and squares are covered with grass, and the soil in some places with the fragments of ancient buildings; most of the houses are uninhabited. The old castle, which is not yet finished, appears as deserted as the rest of the town. The cathedral is built on the site, and with the remains of a Roman temple. Two other temples, on one of which is inscribed a dedication to Augustus, a large triumphal arch, the *Porta Aurea*, a monument of conjugal affection,^a an amphitheatre, which, judging from its dimensions, might have contained fifteen thousand spectators, and many other ruins, still show how much the town was enlarged and adorned by Augustus.

Having arrived as the southern extremity of Germany, it is necessary to make some observations on the state of that country, and in the first place on the German possessions of the Austrian empire. These possessions, including Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia, the archduchy of Austria, Stiria, Tyrol and Illyria, form a superficial extent of three thousand five hundred and seventy-eight German, or nearly forty-nine thousand seven hundred English square miles;^b they are peopled by ten millions four hundred thousand inhabitants. Thus it appears that in point of surface and population, they make up a little more than the third of the whole empire. But the Germans do not amount to much more than half of the population, and their number has certainly been overrated by those who consider it equal to seven millions. It may therefore be easily imagined how much the difference of language, manners and customs tends to weaken their national spirit, and consequently their political force. Considered as a federative state, Austria possesses but few advantages; if the German provinces are attached to their government, an assumption that may be considered doubtful, it is not difficult to observe in Hungary and its dependencies, and particularly in Galicia, a sort of indifference, and in the Italian provinces, an avowed aversion to the power that governs them. The Austrian government may be anxious to reconcile discordant opinions, but it is by no means disposed to confound so many different interests by institutions which it considers dangerous, perhaps incompatible with the actual civilization of its subjects. It advances slowly on the beaten path, and accommodates itself to the prejudices of the people. Far from imitating Joseph the Second in his projects of improvement, it is rather the object of its policy to keep the people ignorant. It has even recently granted privileges to the Jesuits; Galicia had been already opened to them; they may ere long become as influential throughout the empire as in the time of their splendour.

The house of Austria, rich in its soil, its mines and in the industry of its inhabitants, ruling a population of about thirty two millions,^c maintaining an army of two hundred and fifty thousand men, and carrying on a trade producing £3,500,000,^d is not so formidable as many are apt to imagine. The revenue amounts to £16,035,000, and the public debt to more than six times that sum.^e The navy consists only of seven ships of the line, as many frigates and

ten or twelve brigs and sloops.^f It was determined by the last treaties that the course of the Inn should form a western boundary;^g that object of Austrian ambition has at length been attained; but Austria may wish to be invulnerable on other points besides those towards Bavaria. Although secure from the chances of an attack in that quarter, although now too powerful to fear the crescent that twice threatened to destroy it, a more formidable enemy may advance against it from the north. Galicia has been considered its bulwark in that direction, but that country, from its nature and position, could afford but a feeble defence in the event of an invasion. It is unnecessary to extend these general remarks, or to enter into details; the readers who may be desirous of obtaining further information concerning the resources, the means of instruction and the position of the German provinces under the Austrian empire, may be referred to the tables at the end of this book.

It may be asked what are the conclusions connected with the moral and political state of Germany, to which a stranger is likely to arrive, who traverses it in every direction, and who judges with impartiality. Is that vast federative state united by common interests? is it powerful from the resources which the different states that compose it, afford to each other; or is it not a country whose inhabitants are only united by the same language? Has the light of knowledge which has long been diffused over Germany, and the new institutions which have been thus rendered necessary, tended to improve the condition of the people? Such are the questions which it is now proposed to examine.

When more than three hundred states represented in the Germanic diet, acknowledged the supremacy of an elected chief with the title of emperor, Germany might have been considered a vast country divided into principalities or rather into governments.^h More detached from the rest of Europe, the Germans might then be said to have formed a single nation. But at present while Germany consists of forty-two independent sovereignties, some of which are sufficiently important to depend on their own resources, the federative bonds have been in a manner destroyed by conflicting interests; nothing of former Germany now remains; at least, it differs wholly from what it was during the sixteenth century. At one time the clergy and nobles possessed a decided preponderance and many privileges burdensome to the people. But the reformation first weakened and at last destroyed the temporal power of the clergy. The spirit of liberty has in later times made new conquests, and created new institutions.

No longer compelled to labour gratuitously for the nobles, governed by a comparatively small number of princes, the Germans have undoubtedly gained by the recent changes. The taxes have been distributed with greater impartiality, numerous roads offer more easy means of communication, and additional wealth has been diffused throughout every class of society. Some improvements have even originated amidst the evils of war; if the houses, says a German author, are now numbered in every town, it must be attributed to the necessity of finding quarters for the French soldiers; in the same manner, the custom of lighting the streets

^a The *Porta aurea* (It. *porta dorata*), a triumphal arch which now serves as a gate to the town, was erected by his wife, in honour of Sergius Lepidus. (Encyc. Method.)—P.

^b "9,947 sq. leagues, 25 to a degree."

^c Thielen, *Alphabetisch-topographisches Postreise-Handbuch*, 1827.

^d "80,000,000 francs."

^e "Revenue, more than 140,000,000 florins, or 385,000,000 francs; (according to Lichtenstern, only 130,000,000 florins.)—Public debt, 800,000,000 florins."

^f "Corvettes."

^g Only the lower part of its course. In the upper part of its course, it traverses Tyrol, and then passes through a corner of Bavaria.—P.

^h "Prefectures."

was not introduced before the seven years' war.^a Other writers have observed that since the residence of the French troops amongst them, the houses are better built and better decorated, the apartments more commodious and the furniture more substantial. If the wars of Napoleon were for a season disastrous to Germany, that celebrated person ought perhaps to be now as much regarded by the Germans as he was execrated by them when he oppressed the country with the weight of his power; for the continental system tended to expand those germs of industry, of which the people are beginning to reap the blessed fruits.

The Thuringer-Wald divides Germany into two regions, the northern and the southern. The northern Germans living on bread, potatoes, butter and cheese, and drinking occasionally beer and spirits, are stronger, more frugal and more enlightened; protestantism has made most proselytes amongst them. Delicate in their manner of life, accustomed to wine, sometimes addicted to drunkenness, the southern Germans may be more lively, but they are also more superstitious. In northern Germany, numerous habitations, villages adorned with fountains, neat and clean houses, excellent roads lined with fruit trees, and well cultivated fields proclaim the wealth and intelligence of the inhabitants.

Many castles, the remains of feudal times, begin to appear in the country near the Black Forest. These and the different monuments throughout Germany are kept in good repair; if they fall to ruin, it cannot be imputed to negligence but to time, which is often more ready to destroy than the hand of man to preserve.

A distinguished writer^b calls Germany *the country of thought*. The unnumbered philosophical and metaphysical systems from the time of the profound Leibnitz to the days of the unintelligible Kant, might perhaps entitle it to such a designation. It has been said correctly that the country abounds with learned men; they are not as in other states confined to the capital; they may be met with in the smallest towns. As to the physical sciences, they have been cultivated with as much success as in other countries; they are now more encouraged by the different governments than by the government of that nation, which boasts, perhaps not without reason, of having been pre-eminent in Europe, in the career of science. However painful it may be for a Frenchman to humble his national pride before strangers so long his inferiors, it must be admitted that among the advantages of the late peace, are those which have enabled different states in Germany to compete with France in the most attractive and most useful departments of knowledge. It is sufficient to visit the collections at Munich, Berlin and Frankfort, and to converse with the distinguished men in those towns, to be convinced that the Germans are not surpassed by their neighbours. Equal to other nations in theology, jurisprudence, history, philology and medicine, they are only inferior in political knowledge; but the means of acquiring it are rapidly increasing; more than six hundred journals and newspapers are now published in the country.

The method of public instruction adopted in the universities is superior to that used in the French colleges. It may be remarked, that, although the youth are taught to read Greek and Latin in a shorter period than eight years, there are in no country more celebrated classical scholars and archaeologists.

^a Deutschland, oder Briefe eines in Deutschland reisenden Deutschen.

^b Mad. de Staël, de l'Allemagne.

Gymnastics form a part of the system of education in several states of Germany; it has been said that such exercises, besides their advantage in rendering the body flexible and robust, have a salutary influence on the moral character, or that young men fatigued by this healthful labour are more apt to avoid the dangerous propensities which are too often the consequences of effeminacy and repose.

As society has few charms in Germany, the enjoyments of reading and study are necessarily better appreciated than in other countries. Music appears to be almost an innate art with the Germans. Students may be seen walking in procession, and singing hymns of praise to the divinity; the peasant during his intervals of labour often composes an air on a wretched harpsichord; and the shepherd makes the woods re-echo the harmonious notes of his flute.

The population of Germany amounts to thirty millions five hundred thousand inhabitants, who are dispersed over a surface of twelve thousand German or more than a hundred and fifty thousand English square miles,^c so that the average number of individuals for every German square mile is equal to two thousand five hundred and forty-two. According to statistical accounts, there are about sixteen millions of catholics, fourteen millions of protestants, twenty-five thousand Herrnhutters or Moravians, two thousand five hundred Mennonites, fourteen thousand of the Greek or eastern church and three hundred thousand Jews.^d The revenue amounts to at least two hundred millions of florins, and the military force exceeds three hundred thousand men.

Germany has not a single naval station, and it is besides deficient in canals, particularly in the southern parts of the confederacy; nor until the debt shall be liquidated, the representative system better established, a navy created, inland commerce less shackled by custom-houses, the coinage as well as the system of weights and measures rendered uniform, and the people more united, can it become flourishing within, and respected without.

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF THE

GERMAN PROVINCES UNDER THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

A. KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA,

DIVIDED INTO SIXTEEN CIRCLES.

	Population
1 Rakonitz	160,299
2 Beraun	163,389
3 Haurzim	181,631
4 Bunzlau	375,532
5 Bidschow	237,738
6 Kœniggrätz	309,102
7 Chrudim	285,096
8 Czaslau	226,590
9 Tabor	185,979
10 Budweis	194,502
11 Prachim	246,140
12 Klattau	163,132
13 Pilsen	189,586

^c "33,000 sq. leagues"—more than 250,000 Eng. sq. miles. 220,000 Eng. sq. miles. (Morse).—P. ^d Deutschland, oder Briefe, &c.

14 Elnbogen	220,103
15 Saatz	128,655
16 Leitmeritz	335,112
Town of Prague	85,710

Total amount, 3,698,596^a

Domestic Animals in 1822.

Horses	137,000
Oxen	894,400
Sheep	1,091,700
Swine	223,800
Goats	61,300
Mules	100

Number of Religious Societies^b in 1825.

Capuchins	15
Augustines	7
Minorites	3
Dominicans	3
Franciscans	14
Benedictines	3
Norbertines or Premonstrantes	4
Charity Brothers	3
Knights of the Cross	1
Piarites	14
Ursulines	2
Carmelites	1
Sisters of Saint Elizabeth	2
Cisterians, Servites, &c.	4
	<hr/> 76

Places of Education in 1822.

University	1
Lyceums	6
Gymnasiums	26
Catholic Elementary Schools	2,512
Protestant Elementary Schools	48
Mixed Elementary Schools	380
Jewish Elementary Schools	21
Musical Conservatory	1
Polytechnic Institute	1
	<hr/> 2,996

Number of professors and teachers	6,709
Number of students attending the University	2,055
— scholars at the Lyceums	656
— at the Gymnasiums	6,497
— at the Polytechnic Institute	791
— at the Musical Conservatory	75
— at the Elementary Schools	400,889

Total number of students and scholars 410,963

Division of the Land.

	Jochs or Acres.
Fields	3,828,500
Gardens	86,000
Vineyards	4,400
Meadows	799,000
Pasture lands	610,000
Forests	2,310,000
Ponds	132,700
	<hr/> 7,770,600

Population according to the origin of the Inhabitants.

Tchekhes	2,365,000
Germans	1,275,000
Jews	58,000

Population according to the different Religions.

Catholics	3,587,000
Calvinists	40,000
Lutherans	13,000
Jews	58,000

B. MORAVIA AND AUSTRIAN SILESIA,

DIVIDED INTO EIGHT CIRCLES.

	Population.
1 Iglau	170,037
2 Znaim	157,682
3 Brünn	352,541
4 Hradisch	244,791
5 Olmütz	401,043
6 Prcrau	249,699
7 Troppau	219,110
8 Teschen	173,810
	<hr/> 1,968,713

Domestic Animals.

Horses	128,000
Oxen	56,500
Cows	301,000
Sheep	403,000

Places of Education in 1822.

Lyceum	1
Philosophical institutions	2
Permanent academy	1
Catholic Gymnasiums	12
Lutheran Gymnasium	1
Normal Schools	2
Secondary Schools	20
Primary Schools	1,627
Public Boarding Schools for girls	12
Schools of industry	3
Sunday Schools	1,548
	<hr/> 3,229

Number of scholars 153,000

Division of the Land.

	Jochs or Acres.
Fields	2,200,400
Gardens	58,000
Vineyards	51,000
Meadows	325,000
Pasture lands	429,000
Forests	1,120,000
Ponds	41,800
Waste lands	596,300
	<hr/> 4,821,500

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants in the year 1825.

Germans	462,000
Slavonians	1,473,000
Jews	32,000
Zigeunes or Gypsies	1,000

Population according to the different Religions.

Catholics	1,860,000
Calvinists	16,000
Lutherans	60,000
Jews	32,000

C. ARCHDUTCY OF AUSTRIA,

DIVIDED INTO NINE CIRCLES.^c

Lower Austria.

	Population.
1 } Vienna	241,774
1 } Below the Wiener-Wald	229,797
2 Above the Wiener-Wald	222,352
3 Below the Mannhartsberg	262,311
4 Above the Mannhartsberg	226,361

Upper Austria.

5 Circle of the Muhl	195,288
6 ——— the Inn	137,489

^a The numbers in the above table are taken from the Manual of M. Thieler, published in 1827.

^b "Congregations."

^c The circles in the archdutchy of Austria are called quarters (Germ. *viertel*.)

7 Circle of the Hausruck	176,511
8 ——— the Traun	175,982
9 ——— Salzburg	141,105
	<hr/>
	2,008,970

Domestic Animals.

Horses	100,000
Oxen	120,000
Cows	500,000
Sheep	700,000

Religious Societies.

Convents for men and women	45
--------------------------------------	----

Places of Education.

University	1
Philosophical Institution	1
Lyceums	3
Gymnasiums	11
Academies	7
——— of Arts and Trades	2
Schools of Medicine ^a	2
School of Engineers ^a	1
——— Oriental Languages	1
Military Schools	2
Normal Schools	2
Elementary and higher Schools for Girls	35
Schools of Industry	50
Principal German Schools ^b	20
Protestant Seminary	1
Public Schools ^c	2,000
Sunday Schools	120
Village Schools	4,500
Number of Pupils that attend the Schools	150,000

Division of the Soil.

	Jochs or Acres.
Fields	2,120,000
Gardens	81,000
Vineyards	79,000
Meadows	753,000
Pasture lands	1,064,000
Forests	1,830,000
Waste lands	883,500
	<hr/>
	6,810,500

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants.

Germans	2,000,000
Slavonians	6,750
Greeks	350
Armenians	200
Jews	1,500

Different Religions.

Catholics	1,975,000
Lutherans	30,600
Calvinists	1,350
Greeks	350
Jews	1,500

D. COUNTY OF TYROL,

DIVIDED INTO SEVEN CIRCLES.

	Population.
1 Lower Inn	88,869
2 Upper Inn	123,722
3 Pusterthal	97,823
4 Adige or Botzen	104,101
5 Trent	161,528
6 Roveredo	98,156
7 Vorarlberg	86,754
	<hr/>
	762,053

Domestic Animals.

Horses	7,600
Mules	1,100
Oxen	44,000

^a "Schools of Medicine Engineers and Foresters.
^b German High Schools (*Hauptschulen*, Hassel.)

Cows	131,000
Sheep	37,500
Goats	63,300
Swine	40,400

Religious Societies.

Convents for men and women	22
--------------------------------------	----

Places of Education.

Lyceums	2
Gymnasiums	6
Normal Schools	2
Seminaries endowed by Government ^d	15
Elementary Schools	735
Schools for Girls	59

Division of the Land, not including the circle of Vorarlberg.

	Jochs or Acres.
Fields	152,000
Vineyards	17,300
Meadows	392,600
Forests	1,508,600
Waste lands	2,906,700
	<hr/>
	4,978,200

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants.

Germans	598,500
Italians	163,420
Jews	80

E. DUTCHY OF STIRIA,

DIVIDED INTO FIVE CIRCLES.

	Population.
1 Cilly	181,529
2 Marburg	185,766
3 Grätz	306,321
4 Bruck	66,235
5 Judenburg	89,880
	<hr/>
	829,731

Domestic Animals.

Horses	44,700
Oxen	82,400
Cows	206,300
Sheep	126,300

Religious Societies.

Convents	27
--------------------	----

Places of Education.

Lyceum	1
Philosophical School	1
Gymnasiums, including the <i>Johanneum</i>	5
Normal School	1
Principal Schools ^e	7
Houses of Education for Girls	2

Division of the Land.

	Jochs or Acres.
Fields	610,400
Gardens	9,000
Vineyards	51,800
Meadows	437,000
Pasture Lands	644,400
Forests	1,507,200
Ponds	700
Waste Lands	552,300
	<hr/>
	3,812,800

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants.

Germans	478,500
Wends	299,400
Hungarians, Italians, French, &c.	51,800

Different Religions.

Catholics	826,700
Lutherans	3,003

^e Primary or Common Schools (*Volkschulen*, Hassel.)
^d "Colleges." ^e High Schools. See note (b) this page.

F. KINGDOM OF ILLYRIA,

DIVIDED INTO TWO GOVERNMENTS AND SEVEN CIRCLES.

Government of Laybach.		Population.
1 Villach	.	122,795
2 Klagenfurt	.	164,547
3 Laybach	.	157,100
4 Neustadt	.	183,508
5 Adelsberg	.	86,436
Government of Trieste.		
6 Gœrtz or Gorizia	.	162,928
7 Istria	.	192,564
Territory of Trieste	.	54,315
		1,124,193

Domestic Animals.		
Horses	.	32,800
Oxen	.	97,100
Cows	.	167,300
Sheep	.	234,900

Religious Societies.		
Convents	.	18

Places of Education.		
Lyceums	.	3
Gymnasiums	.	6
Normal Schools	.	2
Academics ^a	.	5
Schools for Girls	.	3

Division of the Land.		Jochs or Acres.
Fields	.	728,200
Gardens	.	24,200
Vineyards	.	34,400
Meadows	.	561,700
Pasture Lands	.	856,200
Forests	.	1,359,500
Ponds	.	48,500
Waste Lands	.	2,462,900
		6,075,600

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants.		
Germans	.	220,000
Wends, Slavonians, &c.	.	850,000
Serbes ^b	.	1,000
Italians	.	50,000
Greeks	.	700
Jews	.	2,500

Different Religions.		
Catholics	.	1,110,000
Greeks	.	700
Lutherans	.	10,800
Calvinists	.	200
Jews	.	2,500

Number of Horses, Cattle, &c. for every German square mile in the year 1820.

	Horses.	Oxen.	Cows.	Sheep.	
Kingdom of Bohemia	127	253	632	954	
Moravia and Austrian Silesia	232	102	347	732	
Archduchy of Austria	Upper Austria	128	256	829	568
	Lower Austria	158	248	547	969
County of Tyrol	14	85	253	266	
Dutchy of Stîria	112	206	516	316	
Kingdom of Illyria	63	187	322	452	

Increase of the Population in German Austria.

	In 1820.	In 1823.	Increase.	In 1825.	Increase.
Bohemia	3,379,341	3,539,441	160,100	3,698,596	159,155
Moravia and Silesia	1,860,000	1,910,000	50,000	1,968,713	58,713
Austria	1,897,417	1,956,334	158,917	2,008,970	52,646
Tyrol	737,562	755,401	17,839	762,053	6,652
Stîria	777,926	805,847	27,921	829,731	23,884
Illyria ^c		1,069,175		1,124,193	85,018 ^d

^a "Colleges."

^b Germ. Serben, Servians.

^c The number of inhabitants in Illyria amounted in 1820 to 1,141,960 individuals, but as the territory of Carlstadt, and part of Hungary* were then included in Illyria, the population of that year has not been mentioned in the table.

* The *Littoral* of Hungary—both that and Carlstadt have been since annexed to Hungary. See Stat. Table of Hungary in this work.—P.

Population of German Austria for every German square mile in 1825.

	Inhabitants
Bohemia	3,885
Moravia and Silesia	4,090
Austria	2,837
Tyrol	1,476
Stîria	2,079
Illyria	2,166

Proportion between the numbers of the two Sexes.

	Excess of Women.	Ratio between the Sexes.	
1818. Bohemia	233,998	1,153 to 1,000	
Moravia and Silesia	125,948	1,154 to 1,000	
Austria	Upper	40,811	1,094 to 1,000
	Lower	65,352	1,129 to 1,000
Tyrol	12,833	1,036 to 1,000	
1820. Stîria	25,788	1,068 to 1,000	
Illyria	Laybach	27,081	1,088 to 1,000
	Trieste	1,600	1,006 to 1,000

Sentences pronounced by the Supreme Criminal Court at Vienna from 1806 to 1809.—GERMAN PROVINCES AND GALICIA.

Attempted Crimes.	Sacrilege.	Child Murder.	Exposing of Children.	Duels.	Seductions and Rapes.
751	14	160	274	3	172
Bigamy.			Defamation.		Conspiracies.
78			156		84

Amount of the Capital Crimes committed in the Austrian Empire.

1823.—GERMAN PROVINCES AND GALICIA.

Murders.	Robberies.	Abuse of Power.	Fraud and Forgery.	Fire-raising.
22	13	11	15	5

Number of Trials.

	Murders.	Robberies.	Abuse of Power.	Fraud and Forgery.	Fire-Raising.	Political insurrections and revolts.	Mortal Wounds.	Conspiracies.
1824.								
BOHEMIA	54	1108	4	76	4	57	45	0
MORAVIA AND SILESIA	38	482	1	57	6	19	16	0
AUSTRIA	38	1136	3	141	10	13	23	0
STIRIA AND CARINTHIA	34	362	5	42	0	35	8	0
GALICIA	87	807	22	112	60	139	60	2

Number of Children who frequent the Schools.*

Lower Austria	.	.	1 out of every 10 in 1811
Upper Austria	.	.	1 out of every 13
Moravia and Silesia	.	.	1 out of every 11
Bohemia	.	.	1 out of every 18 in 1789
Id.	.	.	1 out of every 9 in 1822
Stîria and Carinthia	.	.	1 out of every 10

Number of Journals and Newspapers published in Germany in 1826.

German Austria	35
Prussia	288
Wirttemberg	29
Bavaria	48
Saxony	54
Hanover	19
Grand Duchy of Baden	22
Hesse-Darmstadt	18
Electoral Hesse	13
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	9
Saxe-Weimar	17
Saxe-Cobourg-Gotha	7
Saxe-Meintungen	2
Hamburg	22
Frankfort on the Maine	18
Other Petty States	31
Total	632

^d M. Kudler supposes that the population of Bohemia has doubled within the last 230 years, and that of Moravia and Silesia within the last 296 years. According to the same author, the other provinces present as striking variations.

^e These details are taken from the work entitled: The World compared with the British Empire, by M. A. Balbi.

BOOK CXXX.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Switzerland.

SWITZERLAND is considered in point of romantic and picturesque scenery, the finest country in Europe. To give an account of such a country, to mark the contrasts between verdure and eternal snow, silent forests and roaring cataracts, fruitful vallies and sterile mountains, and to delineate all the varied pictures of gigantic nature, form a task as difficult for the writer as the painter. Switzerland besides is so well known, it is so often the subject of conversation, that even those who have never seen it, are enabled to judge of it with sufficient accuracy. To describe the most important features of the country, and whatever it contains most worthy of notice, is the object of the present book; itineraries are not wanting to guide the travellers who wish to examine it minutely.

Switzerland is bounded on the west by France, on the north by the grand duchy of Baden and the kingdom of Wirtemberg, on the east by the Austrian province of Tyrol, and on the south by the Sardinian and the Lombardo-Venetian states. Its extent from west to east is equal to nearly two hundred English miles, and from north to south to a hundred and fifty. The superficial extent of the country does not exceed twelve thousand English square miles.^a

Two distinct ranges of mountains traverse Switzerland. The chain of the Jura stretches from south-west to north-east; that of the Alps, which is much more extensive, is nearly parallel to the former, but numerous and important branches extend from it in every direction. The length of the first is about two hundred and forty or two hundred and fifty miles, while its breadth varies from thirty-five to forty.^b Precipitous and abrupt towards the Alps, it becomes gradually lower on the side of France. It is principally formed by calcareous rocks of a greyish or bluish colour, which in some places may be wrought as marble. Organic remains are by no means uncommon, such as the bivalvular shells which geologists have termed *gryphites*, the spiral and multilocular shells which, from their configuration, have been called *ammonites* or horns of Ammon,^c and those singular conical remains that have received the name of *belemnites* or thunderbolts.^d The calcareous strata alternate with layers of fine sand, to the height of eighteen hundred feet; but in some places they are separated from each other by layers of angular or rolled pebbles, that could only have been united in the depths of the ancient ocean, by the calcareous cement that envelopes them. These pebbles are fragments

of the different granitic rocks that form the nucleus of these mountains and the summits of the Alps. The geologist cannot observe without interest, on the declivities of Jura towards Switzerland, the innumerable blocks of granite at the height of two thousand feet above the lake of Geneva, which have been apparently conveyed thither from more elevated summits.

The Alps afford the materials of continual study and reflection to the geologist who examines them. Among the phenomena thus presented to his notice, some have not been sufficiently observed, although all have been often explained by the aid of hypotheses and different theories. The immense masses that constitute the Alps, exhibit at first sight the appearance of confusion and disorder; they seem the venerable witnesses of the natural convulsions which took place when the earth assumed the form assigned it by its creator. Inaccessible peaks covered with snow; summits from their almost perpendicular sides, not unlike gigantic obelisks; vallies surrounded with immense precipices; rocks almost consumed by time and ready to fall from old age; such are the phenomena which the Alpine chains present. But if the observer who surveys them be familiar with the study of nature, he may see marks of its slow and gradual course amid the traces of destruction and decay. Ebel has shown that the most ancient deposits in these mountains are arranged in strata having a direction from west-south-west to east-north-east. Granitic rocks of a date posterior to the formation of organized beings,^e make up the chain connected with Mount Blanc, the highest mountain in Europe. Different calcareous ramifications of the same chain extend a long way northwards, and rise to a great height, while the granitic rocks on the south descend to the confines of Italy. Nothing can be more imposing than the appearance of Mount Blanc, towering high above all the surrounding mountains; the other summits which encompass and incline towards it, have been compared by a geologist^f to humble subjects, anxious to contemplate and pay homage to their sovereign. Mount Cervin appears like a triangular pyramid, and its summit, which consists of serpentine, rises to the clouds. But the circular arrangement of some of these heights may be considered the most remarkable phenomenon which they exhibit. Mount Rosa, for example, is formed by an uninterrupted series of gigantic peaks that enclose an immense circle, nearly six thousand yards^g in diameter. Geologists have

^a "Extent from west to east about 80 leagues, from north to south 50 leagues; superficial extent 2400 square leagues." [19,000 Eng. sq. miles, Morse.]

^b "Length, from 90 to 100 leagues; breadth, from 15 to 18."

^c *Cornua ammonis*.

^d The *belemnite*, like the *ammonite*, is an univalvular and multilocular shell.—P.

^e The *protogine* of Jurine, the talcose or steatitic granite of Daubuisson.

^f Breislak, *Institutions géologiques*, tome ii. page 76.

^g "About 3000 toises."

looked in vain for the traces of ancient volcanoes in the Alpine chains; the ocean only has left marks of its former existence.

The sun melts superficially the masses of snow that cover the highest regions, and the snow thus melted, is afterwards converted into ice. These glaciers are often inclined, and always divided by large and deep fissures, whence their forms are generally very varied and fantastic. According to their greater or less inclination, the glaciers descend a short distance at the approach of spring, but their course is soon interrupted; still the motion to which they are subjected, causes numerous fractures, which are accompanied with loud and tremendous reports, re-echoed from mountain to mountain. These effects are the causes of others not less remarkable; the violent shock given to the air is communicated to the snow, which is also shaken; some portions of it are detached, which rolling downwards increase in bulk, and occasionally overwhelm habitations, villages and forests. Ebel concludes from a series of observations, that the ice descends annually in the channels of the glaciers, from twelve to twenty-four feet; if the average descent be estimated at eighteen feet in one year, or about three miles in nine hundred years, and if it be considered that portions of rocks have been gradually dragged by the ice in some glaciers over inclined plains more than twenty, or even thirty miles in length,^a some notion may be formed of the immense period necessary for their formation. These great natural movements have been thus described by an eye witness, the clergyman of Grindelwald, who had gone with some of his friends to visit the famous glacier in the neighbourhood of that village. "My friends and I had hardly sat down on the ice to rest ourselves," says the clergyman, "when we witnessed that singular phenomenon, the *growth* or *swelling* of the glacier."^b It was accompanied with a tremendous noise; every object around us seemed to move of its own accord; guns, sticks and game-bags, all were overturned; rocks apparently fixed in the ice were detached and dashed against each other; crevices from ten to twenty feet wide were opened, while others closed as suddenly, and the water contained in them was thrown to a great height. The whole glacier, thus agitated with so much violence, advanced a few paces, but tranquillity was soon restored, and the usual stillness was only interrupted by the whistling of the marmot."^c

The Rhine which pursues its sinuous course from Mount Saint Gothard to the lake of Constance; the Inn which descends from Mount Bernina; the Adda which rises at the foot of Mount Gallo, and throws itself into the lake of Como; the Tesino which issues from Mount Gries, and traverses Lake Maggiore in Italy; the Rhone which is formed by different streams from Mounts Grimsel and Furca, and which conveys its waters to the lake of Geneva; the Aar, a branch of the Rhine, which flows through the lakes of Brienz and Thun, after having formed several lofty cataracts; and lastly, the Limmat which descends from the Limmeren-Alp, traverses the lake of Zurich, and unites with the Aar, water the finest and largest vallies in Switzerland.

Besides the different lakes which have been enumerated, two important ones may be added, those of Lugano and Lu-

cerne, and two others less extensive, those of Morat and Bienne. The lake of Neuchatel has already been described in the account of the principality and the town from which its name has been derived. All these lakes form a superficial extent of fifty-two square leagues, or three hundred and fourteen square miles.^d The fish that they contain, are the pike, the trout, the salmon, the burbot and the umber;^e the latter a very delicate fish occasionally exported to Paris, where it is sometimes sold for so high a price as £12.

The mountains in Switzerland abound in useful substances, such as porphyry, marble and alabaster. Iron, lead, copper, zinc, cobalt, bismuth, arsenic and antimony are found in veins and in masses; rock crystals are very common, sulphur is collected in many places, and some rivers, as the Rhine, the Aar, the Adda and the Reuss, carry down gold. Beds of lignite or bituminous wood are worked in several vallies, and the inhabitants use it for fuel.

More mineral springs are situated in Switzerland than in most other European countries. The acidulous waters of Saint Maurice in the canton of the Grisons, the baths of Gurnighel in Berne, and the warm springs at Baden are well known; but the most frequented of any are those at Pfeffers and Leuk. The sulphuretted hydrogen contained in their waters render them salutary in diseases of the skin. The goitres to which the inhabitants are subject in some cantons, particularly in Berne, Lucerne, Friburg and the Valais, may probably be attributed to the carbonate of lime held in solution in different springs.

Ebel and other botanists divide the Alps into seven regions. The lowest, or that of the vine, commences in the vallies on the banks of the rivers and lakes, and terminates at the height of seventeen hundred feet above the level of the sea; the next, or the region of oaks, rises to the height of two thousand eight hundred feet; that of the beech succeeds and reaches to the height of four thousand feet; that of the firs is next in order, and rises five thousand five hundred feet above the level of the sea; at that height the lower Alpine region commences, where the trees give place to fruitful pastures, which rise a thousand feet above them. The higher Alpine region commences at six thousand five hundred, and terminates at eight thousand two hundred feet; in places sheltered from the sun, the snow remains throughout the year; the region of glaciers and eternal snow rises above it. The two last regions are not wholly destitute of vegetation; saxifrages, gentians and other hyperborean plants flourish there.

The weasel, the pole-cat, the ferret, the lynx and the squirrel are found in Switzerland. Different kinds of game are not uncommon; among others the white hare, of the same species as that found in Siberia, together with the chamois and the marmot, both of which are considered great delicacies. The other animals are the hamster, a species of rat prized for its fur, different kinds of martens, the wild boar and the bear; but the last are at present much more rare than formerly; they seem to be almost confined to the mountains of the Valais.

The antipathy that subsists between the bear and the bull is not less certain than remarkable. A well informed traveller states that as soon as these animals perceive each

^a "10 or 12 leagues."

^b "*Crue de glacier.*"

^c The account given by the clergyman of Grindelwald was published in a work by Professor Wiss, quoted in the first volume of Simond's travels in Switzerland (Fr. edit.)

^d Reckoning the leagues as French post leagues—if geographical, nearly 400 sq. miles.—P.

^e "*L'ombre chevalier,*" *Salmo Umbla*, Linn.

other, the bull becomes unmanageable, they fight furiously, and seldom separate before both are exhausted; but what is most strange, they generally meet, as if by appointment, on the same place the next day, and continue the combat until one of them falls.^a

The chamois are also rapidly decreasing; man is not their only foe, they have also to escape from the great eagle of the Alps. The king of birds discovers the swift quadruped, and forces it by feigned attacks to fly to the highest summits. The timid chamois too often makes for the brink of a precipice, its place of shelter from the hunter. But such a position is most favourable for its adversary; while the chamois presents its horns in an attitude of resistance, the eagle strikes it with its wings, and hurls it headlong from the precipice into the valley, where it feeds on its carcass.

But according to Mr. Coxe, the eagle has to contend against the numerous ravens in the Alps. The battles in which they engage, are interesting from the aerial evolutions made on both sides. The ravens formed into straight lines, and divided into several battalions, attack the eagle on every side, and are often replaced by troops of reserve; indeed it happens most frequently that the eagle is obliged to seek safety in flight. The Alpine eagle measures sixteen or seventeen feet between the tips of the wings; it carries off lambs, kids and dogs; man never spares it, but it is seldom that it comes within his reach. Ebel vouches for the truth of the following anecdote, which evinces certainly no ordinary coolness and address. A hunter having discovered an eagle's nest, killed the male, and then climbed the rocks to seize the young, when at the moment he was putting his hand into the nest, the mother pounced upon him, and fixed her talons on his arm, and her beak in his side. The hunter had presence of mind to stand still, for had he moved, he must have fallen to the bottom of a precipice; holding his gun with one hand, and supporting it against the rock, he took his aim, pulled the trigger with his foot, and shot the eagle. Ebel adds that he was forced to remain in bed for a month, from the wounds he had received.

The Swiss are descended from the ancient *Helvetii*, and from the people that inhabited their country at a later period. History makes no mention of the *Helvetii*, until about a hundred years before the Christian era. Although it may be difficult to trace their origin, it is highly probable that they are sprung from a very ancient branch of the Celtic race. The lofty ridges of the Alps must have risen first from the depths of the ocean, and they may also have been inhabited before any other country in Europe.

An author whose erudition cannot be too highly commended,^b has brought together several important facts to prove that Greek colonies settled in the country long before it was known to the Romans. Five centuries afterwards, when Julius Cæsar undertook the conquest of Gaul, and defeated the *Helvetii* then marching to invade it, a register of their army written in Greek characters, was found among their baggage. In alliance with the *Cimbri* and different German nations, they had invaded the country as far as *Marseilles* fifty years before that period, and defeated the consul *Silanus*. *Cassius* being sent to give them battle, crossed the Alps, but they returned, and destroyed his legions not far from the place where the *Rhone* throws itself into the lake of *Geneva*.^c If *Divico*, their chief, had known

how to improve his victory, he might have made himself master of *Rome*; at all events the Romans were then trembling for their safety, and deploring the defeat of their general. But the allies divided their forces, and *Marius* conquered them in two battles, first near *Aix* in *Provence*, and afterwards on the banks of the *Adige* in *Italy*.

These victories were, however, insignificant, when compared with the one that *Cæsar* gained over them. Two hundred and sixty-three thousand *Helvetii* and a hundred thousand allies from the *Jura*, the lake of *Constance*, *Tyrol* and the *Grisons*, began their march, after having burnt twelve towns and four hundred villages in their own country, determined never to return home. Men, women, children, carriages and cattle were accompanied by ninety-two thousand combatants, commanded by the same *Divico*. A hundred thousand *Helvetii* were all that escaped the arms of the Romans; *Cæsar* permitted them to rebuild their habitations. The people were included after this defeat among the allies of the republic, but their independence did not continue longer than six years. They were afterwards ranked among the people subject to *Rome*, and made liable to all the hardships which the Romans imposed on conquered nations.

The first foreign invasion of *Switzerland*, happened about a hundred years after the Christian era. Not more than two centuries afterwards, the seeds of Christianity were sown in the country; it still continued subject to the emperors, but in the fourth century it changed its masters. A population consisting of *Alemanni*, *Longobardi*, *Vandali*, *Burgundiones* and other nations that appeared for the first time in history, subdued the greater part of the country. The conquerors had already mixed with the conquered, and formed a new nation, when *Helvetia* was again desolated by the hordes of *Attila*. But the *Burgundian* race continued in the country; they had their kings, and *Geneva* became the place of their residence. The *Helvetians* were less oppressed by the barbarians, than they had been by the Romans.

The druidical worship of the ancient *Helvetii* was amalgamated with that of their conquerors. *Hesus* and *Teutates*, *Belenus*, the god of light, *Taranis*, armed with thunder, *Siwa*, the divinity of the *Grisons*, and *Penninus*, the god of the people in the *Valais*, shared the homage of the inhabitants. A few Christians inhabited, however, some vallies in the *Jura* from the third to the seventh century, when some Scottish monks came to preach the gospel to the heathens in *Helvetia*, and *Gall*, one of them, acquired so great a reputation for sanctity, that the celebrated abbey of *Saint Gall* was erected as a tribute to his memory about fifty years after his death. Can the resistance which the *Helvetians* opposed to new invaders, be attributed to the influence of a religion that then began to enlighten a degraded people?

The *Huns* invaded *Switzerland* in the eighth century, but their army was wholly defeated; two hundred years afterwards, hordes made up of *Hungarians*, *Moors* and *Saracens*, as they are called in history, appeared twice in the Alps; they burned the villages, and plundered the country during fifty years, but were at last destroyed by the brave mountaineers. The names of some places, such as *Maur-Mont*, *Mauro-Fonte*, and the *Wall of the Saracens* near *Avenches*, serve still to attest their residence.^d

^a Coxe's Travels in Switzerland.

^b Muller's History of Switzerland.

^c Cæsar—Book I.

^d Simond's Travels in Switzerland, Volume Second.

Helvetia was under the protection of the German empire; Rudolph of Hapsburg, in the height of his power, formed the project of uniting the different parts of Switzerland into a single sovereignty. Albert, his son, followed the same policy, but the inhabitants were much oppressed by his officers. Gessler, in particular, rendered their yoke very burdensome, and William Tell, by putting that tyrant to death, paved the way for the deliverance of his countrymen. Three heroes, whose names are revered throughout the republic, namely, Werner from the canton of Schweitz, Walter Furst from that of Uri, and Arnold from that of Unterwalden, resolved in 1308 to take possession of the strong-holds occupied by the Austrian governors. The secret of their conspiracy was so well kept, the measures concerted with such wisdom, and executed with so much courage and intrepidity, that the result was the independence of their country. But the *Waldstetten*^a or the three forest cantons of Schweitz, Unterwalden and Uri, which have been already mentioned, constituted at that time the whole of free Helvetia. They formed the confederation of Schweitz in 1315; at a later period the other cantons were successively included, and in 1513 Appenzell completed the federative republic, of which the independence was confirmed and secured by the treaty of Westphalia.

In 1798, Switzerland, like many other countries, was obliged to submit to the laws which victorious France dictated; part of its territory was taken away, and the government was changed. Geneva, which had been ceded to France, was restored in 1815, and the country was at the same time divided into twenty-two cantons.

The ancient gods of Helvetia ceased to be worshipped after the introduction of Christianity, but other beings of the imagination have occupied their place. The forests and mountains are believed to be peopled with spirits, and it is supposed the causeway of Pierre Pertuis,^b as well as the natural bridge which rises above it, were constructed by the devil; the aperture is about thirty or forty feet in breadth, and twenty in height, and the breadth of the arch about twenty-five feet.^c The reformation of the sixteenth century was not embraced by all the inhabitants. The cantons of Bale, Berne, Vaud, Schaffhausen, Zurich, Geneva and Neuchatel separated from Rome. Soleure, Friburg, Lucerne, Zug, Schweitz, Unterwalden, Uri, Tesino and the Valais have continued catholic. The cantons of Aaragu, Glaris, Thurgau, Saint Gall, Appenzell, and the Grisons are partly peopled by catholics and partly by protestants.

Several languages are used in different parts of the country, but the German more generally than any other; the people in the greater part of Switzerland speak it, but it is the harshest and most guttural of the German dialects. The inhabitants of Vaud, Neuchatel and Geneva, and a part of those in Berne, Soleure, Friburg and the Valais, speak French; but the lower orders in the same cantons^d make use of a peculiar idiom,^e which has been considered a compound of Celtic, Greek and Latin; it is divided into several dialects, and is apparently the most ancient lan-

guage in the country. The Italian is spoken in the canton of Tesino, and in a part of that of the Grisons.^f

The honesty, simplicity and moral purity of the Swiss have been greatly overrated. The wealthy who travel through Switzerland, are apt to be misled by the impressions produced by a country abounding in romantic sites, and differing so much from the rest of Europe, and besides the only country inhabited by shepherds and husbandmen living under a popular government. The peaceful life of the mountaineers makes the citizen envy their destiny; he believes them happy, because he is rendered so himself by the new sensations which the variety of objects creates; he forms a high idea of their virtue, because removed from the sphere of ambition and intrigue, he supposes them to be without ambition, care, or vice. Thus, the inhabitants of towns are apt to suppose that happiness can only be found in the country; it is however but too well known that examples of virtue and good morals are not always to be met with in villages. In Switzerland, as in every other country, ignorance and poverty are rarely united with moral qualities; in the cantons where education is diffused, where industry and commerce are sources of wealth, the people are contented and happy. Religion exerts a beneficent influence, and the spirit of union and tolerance, which pervades every class of the community, may in part, at least, be attributed to protestantism.

If the Swiss have little taste for the charms of society, they are perhaps on that account more susceptible of other enjoyments; domestic happiness, conjugal and parental affections, as well as the other virtues of private life, are more common in Switzerland than in countries where social pleasures are better understood, and where the feelings are less concentrated. The men meet, but it is to converse, smoke and walk about a chamber, where three chairs are sufficient for twelve persons. It is not difficult to discover the character of an individual almost at the first interview, so great is the simplicity of manners, so little effect has been produced by the usages of society. Thus, says a Swiss author,^g "at the concert or the church, at every place where a number of persons are assembled, but most of all at a play, which being seldom permitted, is on that account more frequented, it is impossible not to observe the prodigious diversity of physiognomies in people of every age, but particularly in the young, the extreme mobility of their features, and the ingenuousness and vivacity of their expressions."

Bravery, the love of labour, attachment to their country, and respect for ancient customs and institutions, form the principal features in the national character. The mass of the people are more enlightened than in other countries; in some cantons, not only the wealthy but the peasantry cultivate literature and the arts. The human mind, however, is made up of so many contradictions, that in Switzerland, where liberty has been established for several ages, some remains of the worst of governments are suffered to exist; justice is privately administered, and the torture is still in use.

^a Germ. *Waldstadte*. ^b Lat. *Petra Pertusa*, the perforated rock.
^c The aperture is very irregular in its form, full 30 feet in its least breadth and 50 in its greatest; the height about 20 feet. The thickness of the rock on one side of the opening is 25 feet, and on the other 29. (Simond's Travels in Switzerland.)

^d Rather in the districts where French is spoken.—P.

^e "Un patois welche ou Roman."—In the table of population p. 760, this is made to include the Grisons. In the table of European languages,

Book XCVI. the *Rhatian*, spoken in the Grisons and Tyrol, the *Valaisan*, spoken in the Lower Valais, and the *Helvetic*, spoken in the western Swiss cantons, are all classed together under the head of *Romanic* (Romanish) of the Alps. See Note (f)—P.

^f The inhabitants of the canton of the Grisons may be divided into three classes according to their languages, viz. Italians, Proper Grisons, who speak the Romansh language, and Germans.—P.

^g Meister's Travels from Zurich to Zurich.

Different costumes, of which the origin is very ancient, distinguish the people in most of the cantons; in several, sumptuary laws have been introduced, a wise and salutary measure in a country where independence and liberty are fostered by the absence of luxury. Games of chance are prohibited, but gymnastic exercises are the daily amusements of the young; they engage in the race, in wrestling, in throwing the dart, or in shooting at a target. Although the Swiss are not a poetical people,^a it is certain that of all the arts, music is the one most generally cultivated.

The different branches of agriculture are well understood in Switzerland, and if it were not for variable seasons, it might be unnecessary to import grain or other articles of primary necessity. The extent and fruitfulness of the pastures are favourable to the propagation of cattle; the oxen are remarkable for their size, and the cows, particularly the short-horned breed in the valley of Gruyeres, are much prized in different countries. The horses, though neither swift nor well made, are strong and hardy, but as the mule is more sure-footed, it is the most common beast of burden in the mountains.

The commerce of the different cantons has been much diminished since the last treaties. The prohibitory system introduced by neighbouring states, has necessarily confined the outlets which the Helvetic confederation found formerly for its cattle, leather, cheese, hemp and flax, and for its watches and muslins, but its pharmaceutical plants form still a considerable branch of exportation.

The canton of Schaffhausen, one of the smallest in Switzerland, is situated at the northern extremity of the country. The capital of the same name is the only town of any consequence, and it must be confessed that it contains little or nothing remarkable. Its port was frequented as early as the eighth century; it was called *Schiffhausen* or a shelter for vessels,^b from its position above the cataracts of the Rhine. The town possesses an academy, a gymnasium, several schools and a bible society. The trade, which is considerable, consists in cotton stuffs, silks and leather. The strangers, who repair to the celebrated fall of Lauffen, one of the most remarkable in Europe, generally visit Schaffhausen.

Frauenfeld, the capital of Thurgau, contains three large and fine streets, and several silk manufactories. Bischofszell, a small town, is peopled by husbandmen.

Saint-Gall is distinguished as a commercial and manufacturing town, but the only curiosities are the remains of its ancient abbey, and the manuscripts which are contained in it. The people in the adjacent territory are among the poorest in Switzerland; they are degraded by ignorance and its attendant vices.

Appenzell, which surrounds the last canton, presents a very different spectacle; the greatest industry prevails through every part of it. The capital of the same name is only a burgh; Herisau is a place of greater consequence, and possesses a more flourishing trade.

Zurich is remarkable for its romantic situation, and for the fine views that extend from its ramparts and public walks. The materials of its commerce are supplied by its cotton, hat and soap manufactories. It was distinguished in the middle ages by the reformer Zuinglius, and since

that period, by the illustrious men, who have been born in the town. To be convinced of its just claims to celebrity, it is sufficient to mention the names of Gessner, Lavater and Pestalozzi. Its libraries are rich in manuscripts, in medals and in collections of natural history.^c Its schools are numerous, its academy is frequented by many strangers, and its scientific societies might be creditable to larger and more populous cities. The small town of Winterthur rivals Zurich in the industry of its inhabitants; in its library, there is a fine collection of medals and engraved stones, found in the village of Ober-Winterthur, which stands on the site of the ancient *Vitodurum*.

Aarau, or Arau, the capital of Aargau, although an old and dirty town, is a place of considerable trade. It possesses several charitable institutions, and schools to which parents are obliged to send their children. A numerous collection of manuscripts relative to the history of Switzerland, forms the most valuable portion of its library. Aarau is the only town in the confederation where meteorological observations are registered. Baden is known from its baths which the Romans called *Aquæ Varbigenæ*. Tacitus informs us that these baths were finely built, and the same writer commends their salubrity. A great many antiquities have been found near the town, among others, a statue of Isis, which was long worshipped under the name of Saint Verena.^d The small town of Zoffingen is well built; it possesses several fine edifices, a library and a collection of medals. The only fortress and the only arsenal within the limits of the confederation, are situated at Aarburg or Arburg.

Bale, Basil or Basle, which Ammianus Marcellinus calls *Basilica*, was the most important town in Helvetia during the eleventh century; it was also during a long time the only one in Europe, where the art of printing was carried to a great degree of perfection. Many illustrious men have been born within its walls, among others, the Bernouillis, the Eulers, and the celebrated Holbein; several paintings by that distinguished artist, are carefully preserved in the university. Erasmus died at Bale, and left his valuable library to the same institution; it possesses besides, a collection of twelve thousand Roman medals, and other antiquities found at Augst, the ancient *Augusta Rauracorum*, at some distance from the town. The statue of Munatius Plancus, the founder of that colony, may be seen in the tower of the townhouse. The population of the town has decreased since the sixteenth century, but it is still adorned with several fine streets and spacious squares. The hospitals and charitable institutions are richly endowed, and the method of instruction proposed by Pestalozzi, has been adopted with great success in the different schools.

The situation of the town is very romantic. The cathedral stands on a lofty terrace shaded by horse-chestnut trees; it commands an extensive view of the Rhine, but the river assumes the character of an impetuous torrent, more likely to desolate than to fructify or facilitate communications in the country through which it flows. "I could not perceive," says Simond, "a single boat in that part of its course; its waters are of a whitish blue colour, not unlike those of the Rhone; indeed it is easy to discover a sort of family resemblance between these two large rivers, which

^a Madame De Stael's Germany.

^b "Abri des bateaux"—Literally, *skiff-house* or boat-house. (Simond.)—P.

^c In the public library is a cabinet of medals, the library of the chapter

(*Chorherren*) is rich in manuscripts, and the physical society possesses a library, a museum of natural history, and a collection of philosophical instruments. (Conv. Lex.)—P.

^d Ebel's Travels in Switzerland.

indicates their common origin." Little Bale, on the opposite bank, communicates with the town by a bridge built of stone at the two extremities, and of wood in the middle, on account of the depth and rapidity of the current. The mountains of the Black Forest bound the horizon towards the north-east.^a Bale has been more than once overturned by earthquakes; it was desolated by the plague in the fifteenth century, and it has been affirmed that with the exception of one, all the members of its council fell victims to that disease.

Soleure is a place of considerable trade; its broad and well paved streets are adorned with fountains, and a number of baths have been built on the Aar. The principal church^b is considered one of the finest in Switzerland. The late improvements in the system of education have not yet been adopted in the town, although their advantages have been acknowledged in the rural districts. The prisons, workhouses and hospitals in Soleure are much better managed than others in places of greater importance.

Several important towns are situated in the canton of Berne. Porentrui carries on a considerable trade in leather. Burgdorf, or, according to its French name, Berthoud, is well known from the institution founded by Pestalozzi. Many silk worms are reared at Bienne; its celebrated lake is three leagues in length, one in breadth,^c and two hundred feet in depth. The houses are curiously painted and built upon arcades, and the squares are decorated with old fountains, the most of which were erected during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The long hair of the women descends below their petticoats, but the latter hardly reach to their knees.

Berne or Bern, the chief town in this wealthy canton, is well built, but the streets are gloomy and deserted. The town is kept clean by the numerous fountains and limpid streams which water it. The magistrates have not sacrificed utility to appearances; hospitals, and store houses in which grain is deposited and used in seasons of scarcity, are the first objects that the stranger remarks on entering Berne. The commerce of the town is not very great, but the inhabitants are comparatively affluent; no mendicants are seen in the streets. The edifices and places worthy of being visited, are the arsenal, the cathedral which was built in the sixteenth century,^d the church of the Holy Spirit, finished in 1704, the library, different scientific collections and the monument in the botanical garden, erected to the memory of the great Haller, who was born in the town. The situation of Berne on a height renders it salubrious, and accounts in some measure for the frequent instances of longevity. Its name, which is derived from the German word *bär* (bear,) has given rise to different opinions concerning its origin. It has been supposed that Berthold the Fourth, duke of Zæhringen, and the founder of the town, called it Bærn, from having killed a bear in the vicinity. The figure of the same animal forms the city arms,^e and it is perhaps for these reasons that several bears are still kept in the intrenchments.

Sursee and Sempach are two small towns in the canton of Lucerne; they are agreeably situated at the two extremities of a lake to which the last town has given its name. But Lucerne is still more remarkable for its fine lake, part

of which lies beyond its territory, and is called the lake of the Four Cantons. The mountains of Righi^f and Pilate^g are reflected from the surface of its waters, and the most romantic views may be seen from the chapel of Maria Zell and other elevated situations in the neighbourhood. The broad and modern streets of Lucerne are surrounded by fortifications that were built in the fourteenth century. Covered wooden bridges, one of which is thirteen hundred and eighty feet in length, are erected across the Reuss, and unite the two quarters. The townhouse is richly adorned; the armour of duke Leopold, and other trophies gained at the battles of Sempach and Morat, are deposited in the arsenal. The former of these engagements was fought in 1386, and the latter in 1476. Different antiquities are preserved in the cathedral; the libraries, which are rich in manuscripts, the celebrated model of Switzerland constructed in relief by General Pfyffer, the learned societies, the colleges and the schools, give the town an importance that forms a striking contrast with its scanty population.

The canton of Zug is smaller than any other in Switzerland, and its capital of the same name was probably one of the towns which the Helvetii burned, when they made an incursion into Gaul in the time of Julius Cæsar.

Schweitz, which might be more correctly called a burgh than a town, is situated at the base of the Mythen mountains; almost all the houses are ill built. The pilgrims of Switzerland, and others from many parts of Germany and France, meet at the village of Einsiedeln in the same canton. The convent of the Benedictines possesses a supposed miraculous image of the Virgin, and a piece of silver impressed with the hand of the Saviour. Those who wish to have their sins forgiven, must put their fingers into the five marks in the silver, and drink out of the fourteen pipes of the fountain in front of the convent, because from one of them, at present unknown, Jesus quenched his thirst. Rapperschwyl is an old and almost deserted town; but its sombre aspect harmonizes with the romantic country that surrounds it.

No hostile army had invaded the canton of Glaris during more than four hundred years; but it was at last devastated by the French, the Austrians and the Russians, in 1798. Whatever could serve for food or clothing, was pillaged by the soldiers. The inhabitants of this rich canton were reduced to poverty; the last bottle of wine in the valley of Sernft, was offered to Suwarrow and the grand duke Constantine, during their precipitate retreat. Glaris differs from most other towns; its character is wholly Swiss; the antiquated manners of its inhabitants and their still more ancient habitations render it like a place of the fifteenth century. The date of their construction is marked on almost all the houses; some of them have stood for more than five hundred years; they are painted with various colours, and on many of them historical events are represented. The streets are narrow and crooked, and so much is the town obscured by the lofty mountains on every side, that according to an intelligent traveller, the sun is visible in winter for only four hours in the day.^h The inhabitants manufacture cloth, cotton stuffs and muslin.

Altorf, the chief town in the canton of Uri, was rendered illustrious by the liberators of Helvetia. A tower on which

great church (cathedral) was erected in the beginning of the 15th century Simond.—P.

^e "Armes parlantes,"—a coat of arms in which the charges refer to the etymology of the bearer's name.—P.

^f Righi-berg. ^g Mount Pilatus. ^h Simond's Travels in Switzerland

^a Simond's Travels in Switzerland.

^b "L'église de Saint Ours"—the church of St. Ursæ. (Ed. Encyc.)

^c Nine miles long and four broad. (Ed. Encyc.)

^d The cathedral was erected in 1421 by the same architect who built the Munster at Strasburg (finished 1439.) Ed. Encyc. Encyc. Method. The

the history of William Tell is represented, stands on the spot formerly occupied by the lime tree, where he aimed at the apple on the head of his son. An old house, now nearly in ruins, is visited by strangers; it belonged to Walter Furst, the father-in-law of William Tell, and one of the heroes of the time.

The simplicity and hospitality of ancient times are still observable in the canton of Underwalden.^a It is divided into two small republics; Stantz, the chief town of the one, is remarkable for a large church, adorned with marble pillars, and Sarnen, the capital of the other, is situated in one of the finest vallies in Switzerland. A large fountain^b formed from a single block of granite has been erected in the market place.^c The people in the canton carry on a considerable trade in cheese, which is exported into Italy and different parts of Germany.

Friburg is one of the most important agricultural cantons in Switzerland; it is also highly interesting to the botanist, and its women are distinguished by their beauty and the singularity of their dress. Cheese forms the principal wealth of Gruyeres, and the small town of Morat is celebrated as being the place of the battle in which Charles the Rash^d was defeated. Friburg, the capital, is encompassed with ancient walls, but the cathedral is the only remarkable building; its tower is about three hundred and ninety feet in height.^e The people appear to be as favourably disposed to antiquated customs and institutions as they are averse to every sort of intellectual improvement. The Jesuits have been lately recalled; they have acquired their former influence, and the direction of the schools is at present committed to their care. The trade of the town consists in hats, cotton cloths and earthen ware.

The canton of Vaud, one of the largest and most populous in Switzerland, is also the one in which the blessings of knowledge and education are most diffused. Crimes are of very rare occurrence; not more than seventy or eighty individuals are confined in all the houses of correction, and out of three thousand processes instituted annually, more than two thousand are settled by the intervention of arbiters or justices of peace.^f

Aventicum, the ancient capital of Roman Helvetia, was situated near the lake of Morat; it occupied an extent of more than six miles^g in circumference. The remains of streets and edifices may still be observed, notwithstanding the ravages of time, and the depredations of ancient and modern barbarians. Ruins which are supposed to have been once public baths, mosaics, pilasters, marble columns, the remains of a vast amphitheatre, basso-relievos and inscriptions attest its former splendour. The walls of its ancient port, and the iron rings to which boats were attached, are still seen; but it is very remarkable that the lake has now receded from it more than a quarter of a league. Tacitus makes mention of *Aventicum*, and Vespasian embellished it, but it is at present an ill peopled burgh, of which the Latin name has been changed into Avenches.* The greatest curiosities in the small town of Payerne, are the tomb and the saddle of queen Bertha; an opening appears in the saddle, which was made to hold the distaff of that good queen, who never travelled without it. Yverdon is a place of trade and industry; its inhabitants are distinguished

by their urbanity and their taste for the sciences. It was the ancient *Ebredunum*, the residence of the commander of the barks (*præfectus barcariorum*.) Orbe, which was also a Roman town, is still commanded by the ancient castle where Brunehault was betrayed and delivered to Clo-taire the Second, by whom she was condemned to death. The small town of Nyon on the lake of Geneva, possesses a considerable trade in porcelain. Rolle is famous for its wine, Morges for its paper, its foils and its cannon, but Vevay is perhaps better known than either, from its romantic situation, and from the rocks of Meillerie,^h that rise above the lake. A large fountain adorns the market place, which may bear a comparison with any other in Switzerland. The vineyards in the neighbourhood are very productive; the husbandmen and vine-dressers join in a festival every four years, which is preceded by a procession, in which different individuals represent heathen gods and personages in sacred history. Noah and Canaan are seen near Bacchus and Silenus; Ceres is seated in her car, followed by bacchantes and satyrs. The origin of the procession, which was in all probability modified after the establishment of Christianity, is lost in the night of time.ⁱ Lausanne, a place of some celebrity, is situated at a short distance from the site of the ancient *Lausonium*; it has several learned and scientific societies; Theodore Beza and Conrad Gessner taught in its academy. The buildings worthy of notice are the castle, the cathedral begun in the year 1000, and consecrated by Gregory the Tenth, in the presence of Rudolph of Hapsburg, and lastly the house inhabited by Gibbon the historian.

The scenery round the lake of Geneva is not perhaps so striking as that near other Swiss lakes of a smaller size. Its surface is supposed to be greater than a hundred and fifty-six square miles;^k but its extent renders it difficult in many places, for the spectator to judge correctly of the distance and height of the summits that encompass it. The mountains seem to be nearer and consequently less elevated than they really are. The upper extremity is without doubt the finest part of the lake; it may there bear a comparison with the most romantic sites in Germany or Switzerland. The surface of its water is eleven hundred and twenty-six feet above the level of the sea.^l The mean depth has been estimated at five hundred and sixty feet, and the temperature is warmer at the surface than at the bottom. The lake is subject to a phenomenon which has not been hitherto satisfactorily explained; in other words, the water has several times been seen to rise four or five feet above its ordinary level in the space of a few hours. To these tides the inhabitants have given the name of *seiches*. It is highly probable that the lake was larger at a former period than at present; indeed the supposition seems to be confirmed by the fact that alluvial deposits are formed at the entrance of the Rhone, while the same river is limpid and transparent at its efflux. This lake, one of the finest in southern Europe, was well known in ancient times by the name of *Leman* (*Lacus Lemanus*.)

Geneva, the capital of a very small Swiss canton, is situated at its western extremity. But although the canton may be insignificant, both in size and population, it is the most civilized, industrious and wealthy of any in Switzer-

^a Underwalden.

^c The public square.

^e "386 feet."

^f Simond's Travels in Switzerland.

^g "Of 2 leagues

^b The basin of a fountain.

^d Charles the Bold.

^h The rocks of Meillerie are on the southern side of the lake opposite Vevay.

ⁱ Ebel's Description of Switzerland.

^k "Estimated at 26 sq. leagues."

^l According to the calculations of Deluc. [1134 feet, according to Pictet, and 1154, according to Shuckburgh.]

land. The houses and buildings in Geneva are little worthy of notice, the streets are narrow, and the town is divided into two unequal parts by the rapid waters of the Rhone; but the natural beauties of the vicinity are varied and imposing. The superiority of Geneva over other places in Switzerland is of an intellectual nature; literature and science have been cultivated with no ordinary success since the Reformation. Much has been done for whatever is connected with education or instruction. Sixty thousand volumes and a great many manuscripts are contained in the library. The college founded by Calvin consists of different chairs in theology, law, medicine and other branches of literature and science. The observatory is provided with good instruments, and the botanical garden abounds with valuable plants; lastly, several literary and scientific societies diffuse among every rank a taste for useful knowledge; to these causes, and to the influence of a rigid worship, may perhaps be attributed the virtue and morality by which the inhabitants of both sexes are distinguished in Geneva.

The valley of the Rhone, which forms the wealthy canton of the Valais, was called in ancient times *Vallis Pennina*, either from the god *Penninus*, or from the Celtic word *pen*, which signifies a *point* or *sharp summit*, a denomination strictly applicable to most of the mountains that surround the valley. The burgh of Saint Maurice, remarkable for its handsome buildings and its fine abbey, is the first place that the stranger enters as he ascends the Rhone. Between it and Martigny, another burgh, part of which has been called the town, is situated the lofty cascade that ought not certainly to be denominated the *Pisse Vache*. It falls from a perpendicular height of three hundred feet, not eight hundred, as some authors have stated. At no great distance above it, on the right bank of the Rhone, Sion, the capital of the canton, and the *Ectodurum*^a of the Romans, exhibits its three castles built one above another. The bishopric of Sion is considered the most ancient in Switzerland. The principal buildings are several convents, an hospital, an episcopal palace and ten churches. The village of Albinen is situated near the baths of Leuk, between Sion and Brieg; it is only accessible, says a traveller, by means of eight long ladders supported on precipitous rocks and steep declivities. The inhabitants, men, women and children, climb up and go down the ladders day and night, many of them with burdens on their heads, without imagining the road to be worse than any other.^b Brieg, one of the finest burghs in the Valais, may be distinguished at a distance by its houses covered with micaceous schistus of a brilliant silver colour; its baths were formerly as much frequented as those at Leuk.

The canton of Tesino is the poorest, and the people are the most ignorant of any in Switzerland. The finest silk in the canton is obtained at Lugano, a small town situated on the banks of a lake. Several buildings in the burgh of Locarno on Lake Maggiore announces its former prosperity. Bellinzona, an insignificant town, is situated on the banks of the Tesino; the gymnasium in the only institution, from which it might be inferred that Bellinzona was the capital of the canton.

If Berne be excepted, the canton of the Grisons is the most important in Switzerland; it formed part of *Rætia* in the time of the Romans. Tisis situated in the midst of mountains, on the branch of the Rhine^c that descends from Mount Bernardino, has been supposed, pro-

bably on account of its name, to have been built by the ancient Tussi or Tuscans, who found shelter in the country when Bellovesus invaded Italy. Although a very small town, it is one of the best built in the canton. Coire on the Plessur, a feeder of the Rhine, is more populous than Tisis; it is the capital of the Grisons, and the ancient *Curia Rhetorum*; its cathedral has stood during ten centuries, but the episcopal palace is a finer building.

The canton of Neuchatel which has already been described in the account of Prussia, forms also a part of the Helvetic confederation. It is the only canton in which monarchial forms of government are modified by republican institutions. Although the rest are not all governed in the same way, all of them are independent, and united to each other by a conservative compact. They may be divided into three classes; the first, or those of Schaffhausen, Zurich, Bale, Soleure, Lucerne and Friburg, are so many mixed aristocratic governments, in other words, several privileged families among the burgesses are called to form part of the small council to which the executive power is committed; the second, or those of Thurgau, Aargau, Saint-Gall, Vaud, Geneva, Valais and Tesino are representative republics, in which the people elect the members of the great council, which deliberates with the executive department or the petty council;^d lastly, the people of Appenzell, Zug, Schweitz, Uri, Glaris and Underwalden live under a democratic government, similar to those of Greece and Rome; the citizens form general assemblies (*Lands-gemeinde*,) in which they nominate their magistrates, and deliberate on the interests of the republic. The important affairs of the confederation are laid before the diet, which is composed of deputies from the twenty-two cantons. The virtue and love of country, so characteristic of the Swiss, are fostered and strengthened by their political institutions; hence the two principal literary and patriotic societies assemble alternately in the different capitals, and bring together the fruits of their labour and research.

Every citizen in Switzerland becomes a soldier at the age of twenty; he must be enrolled in a company, and he must arm and clothe himself according to the uniform of his canton. Each canton, in the event of a war, furnishes a contingent, and all their contingents make up an army of thirty-three thousand seven hundred and fifty-eight men. But Switzerland might easily levy double the number of troops. To provide for the maintenance of the army and other expenses, each canton imposes on itself a tax proportionate to its population and resources. But the amount of the contributions varies according to the revisions which are made of them every twenty years. The debt of the confederation was equal in 1826 to 125,000*l.*, and the revenue to 500,000*l.*^e

The allied powers have recognised by the treaty of Paris, the perpetual neutrality of Switzerland. But fully sensible that the weak ought to place little reliance on the promises of the strong, the Swiss have formed the project of raising works of defence at Saint Maurice, and in some of the defiles in the Valais; it is also intended to fortify a central place where troops may be speedily collected in time of danger.^f The Swiss may find formidable means of resistance in the nature of their territory and in their enthusiasm for liberty; taught by experience, they may avoid the errors which led to the invasion and conquest of their country.

^a *Sedunum*. (Simond.)

^b Simond's Travels in Switzerland.

^c *Hinter Rhein*, Posterior Rhine.

^d "Council of State."

^e "Debt about 3,000,000 francs—revenue 11,500,000 francs.

^f These means of defence are recommended by Simond. See his Switzerland, vol. I. p. 408.

**STATISTICAL TABLES
OF SWITZERLAND.**

Population of the Principal Towns, and Contingents of the Twenty-two Cantons, classed according to the order and rank they hold in the Confederation.

Cantons.	Contingents.	Towns and Burghs.	Population.
12 Schaffhausen	466	Schaffhausen	7,000
13 Appenzell { Ausscr-Rhoden 772 }	972	{ Appenzell	3,200
{ Inner-Rhoden 200 }		{ Herisau	7,000
14 Saint-Gall	2,630	Saint-Gall	9,000
15 Grisons	1,600	{ Coire	3,400
		{ Tuis	3,400
		{ Aarau	3,500
		{ Baden	1,700
16 Aargau	2,410	{ Zoffingen	1,700
		{ Aarburg	1,100
17 Thurgau	1,520	{ Frauenfeld	1,800
		{ Bischofszell	2,000
		{ Bellinzone	1,200
18 Tesino	1,804	{ Lugano	3,602
		{ Locarno	1,500
		{ Lausanne	10,200
		{ Vevay	3,800
19 Vaud	2,964	{ Yverdun	2,500
		{ Nyon	2,100
		{ Morges	2,000
		{ Sion	2,400
20 Valais	1,280	{ Neuchatel	5,000
21 Neuchatel	960	Geneva	25,000
22 Geneva	880		
	Total		33,758

POPULATION, SURFACE AND CONVENTS OF SWITZERLAND.

CANTONS.	POPULATION ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT SECTS IN 1822.				POPULATION ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT LANGUAGES OF THE INHABITANTS IN 1822.			Total population in 1822. a	Total population in 1826. b	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Population for every square league.	Convents.
	Calvinists.	Catholics.	Anabaptists.	Jews.	German.	French, Romansh (Wälets) and Savoyard.	Italian.					
Zurich	191,700	1,350			193,050			193,050	218,000	124	1,772	
Berne	300,500	41,700	900		291,100	52,000		343,100	350,000	476	736	
Lucerne		103,900			103,900			103,900	116,000	100	1,171	10
Uri		12,000			12,000			12,000	13,000	67	196	3
Schweitz		34,900			34,900			34,900	32,000	61	533	5
Underwalden		21,800			21,800			21,800	21,000	33	727	5
Glaris	25,815	3,285			29,100			29,100	28,000	58	482	
Zug		15,000			15,000			15,000	14,500	15	966	3
Friburg	5,100	67,400			27,310	45,190		72,500	84,000	64	1,333	19
Soleure	4,200	49,500			53,700			53,700	53,000	35	1,514	9
Bale	45,900	5,900			51,800			51,800	54,000	34	1,588	
Schaffhausen	26,900	200			27,100			27,100	30,000	22	1,363	
Appenzell	41,200	13,800			55,000			55,000	52,500	19	2,763	
Saint-Gall	81,829	61,371			143,179			143,179	144,000	111	1,309	14
Grisons	49,000	34,500			30,200	41,500	11,800	83,500	88,000	386	228	
Aargau	76,500	68,800		1,700	147,000			147,000	150,000	100	1,515	6
Thurgau	63,900	19,000			82,900			82,900	81,000	46	1,760	11
Tesino		95,800			900		94,900	95,800	102,000	148	693	22
Vaud	155,000	3,200			5,200	53,000		158,200	170,000	198	862	
Valais		67,400			21,080	41,200	5,120	67,400	70,000	254	276	7
Neuchatel	50,000	2,200			52,200			52,200	51,500	37	1,391	
Geneva	27,080	14,400		270	42,100			42,100	52,500	12	4,375	
	Luth. 350											
	1,144,974	737,406	900	1,970	1,346,219	427,190	111,820	1,885,229	1,978,000	2,400		114

SWISS NEWSPAPERS.

The total number of Newspapers published in Switzerland in 1826, amounted to Twenty-eight. Those that have most circulation are the following:—

GERMAN NEWSPAPERS.

1. Swiss Messenger (Schweizer-Bothe,) published once a week at Aarau.
2. General Correspondent of Switzerland (Allgemein. Schweizerisch. Corresp.,) published twice a week at Schaffhausen.
3. Friday's Gazette (Zürcher Freytags-Zeitung,) at Zurich.
4. New Gazette (Neue Zürcher Zeitung,) thrice a week at Zurich.
5. The Narrator (Erzähler,) once a week at Saint-Gall.
6. The Zug Gazette (Zuger Zeitung,) once a week at Zug.
7. The Friend of the Swiss (Schweizer Freund,) once a week at Berne.

^a According to the statistical tables of Hassel.

^b According to documents in possession of M. Adrian Balbi, in December, 1826.

FRENCH NEWSPAPERS.

8. Lausanne Gazette (Gazette de Lausanne,) twice a week at Lausanne.
9. Vaudois Journal (Nouveliste Vaudois,) twice a week at Lausanne.
10. Journal of Geneva (Journal de Genève,) at Geneva.
11. Bibliothèque Universelle, (a Scientific Journal,) once a month at Geneva.

ITALIAN NEWSPAPERS.

12. Swiss Courier (Corriere Svizzera,) twice a week at Lugano.
13. Tesino Gazette (Gazetta Ticinese,) once a week at Lugano.

Number of Strangers whose Passports were examined at Geneva from the 1st of January to the 30th of November, 1825.

Germans	1,850	Americans	88
Swiss	3,559	Danes and Swedes	45
French	3,058	Russians	116
English	1,539		
Piedmontese and Savoyards	3,094	Total	13,902
Italians	553		

^c The language spoken in the Grisons is the Romansh; in the other cantons in this column, French or Savoyard. See notes (e) and (f) p. 755.

BOOK CXXXI.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued—Italy—First Section—Physical Geography of Italy.

GERMANY is not without interest, from the great events of which it has been the theatre, from the historical associations connected with it, from the advances which have been made in literature and science, and from the genius and character of its inhabitants. It is almost impossible to visit without emotion the picturesque vallies and lofty mountains in Switzerland, the only country in Europe whose inhabitants have preserved the simplicity of patriarchal manners. The azure sky of Italy, its enchanting climate, and matchless pieces of art, render it widely different either from Germany or Switzerland. The stranger hardly arrives at the southern base of the Alps, before he observes new vegetation, new manners and new customs. It seems as if a country favourable to the laurel, the myrtle and the olive, excites man to the love of glory, and renders him better adapted for the advantages of civilization. Italy produced the people that conquered the world; the poets and writers who shed a lustre over it, and the arts introduced by the Greeks, rendered it formerly the most civilized country in Europe; and when barbarism extended its iron sceptre over the same quarter of the earth, even during the period of the crusades, knowledge found an asylum in Italy, from which it was afterwards diffused over the ultramontane countries. Although superstition, monkery and wretchedness have now established their degrading empire in Italy, still it is the fairest portion of Europe.

Considered according to its natural limits, the northern part of Italy comprehends all the southern declivity of the Alps, from the branch called the Cottian to that called the Julian Alps. But these natural limits have been modified by political boundaries. Thus the northern boundary of Italy is comprehended between the gulf of Trieste and the Rhone at its efflux from the lake of Geneva; whence it follows that the Rhone, the Pennine Alps, and the extremity of the Adriatic gulf, separate Italy from France, Switzerland and Germany. The Adriatic gulf and the Mediterranean extend along the coasts of Italy to the declivities of the Maritime Alps near the frontiers of France. The length of the country from north-west to south-east is about seven hundred and fifty miles, its breadth towards the

north about four hundred, in the centre a hundred and twenty-five, in the south a hundred, and at the entrance into Calabria from twenty-five to thirty. The extent of the surface, including Sicily, Sardinia and all the smaller islands, has been estimated at ninety-seven thousand two hundred English square miles; that of the islands only at sixteen thousand eight hundred.^a

The principal mountains in Italy are the Pennine Alps, comprehending the chain that extends from Mount Rosa to Mount Blanc;^b the Græcian Alps between Mount Blanc and Mount Cenis; the Cottian Alps between Mount Cenis and Mount Viso; and lastly, the Maritime Alps which extend from Mount Viso to beyond the Col de Tende.^c These different chains follow an irregular direction from north to south. The long chain of the Appennines stretches from the Tanaro to the extremity of Italy. All these mountains belong to the same system. The Alps, and the Rhetian and Appennine chains, extend from Mount Blanc as from a central mass. The Appennines, which shall be more particularly described, are equal in length to six hundred and seventy miles.^d They are divided into three parts: the northern Appennines extend to the Adriatic gulf, at no great distance to the south of Urbino; the central Appennines terminate near the banks of the Sangro; and the southern Appennines, situated at an equal distance from the two seas, form two branches near Muro: the least important of these branches separates the territory of Bari from that of Otranto; the other, composed of lofty mountains, traverses both the Calabrias and terminates in the Aspromonte.

The chain of the Alps is much more precipitous on the side of Italy, than towards France, Switzerland and Germany; the Appennines are not so lofty, but several branches issue from them, of which the most important form capes on the Mediterranean and the Adriatic gulf. Piombino stands on one of these headlands, but the most remarkable is the one that forms Cape Campanella, at the entrance into the gulf of Naples. The points or extremities of chains are not so numerous on the Adriatic; however, Cape Leuca, at the entrance of the gulf of Taranto, is formed by the last declivities of one of these branches. The principal branch which reaches to the southern extremity of the con-

^a "Length from north-west to south-east, about 300 leagues; breadth in the north more than 160 leagues, in the middle 50, in the south 40, and at the entrance into Calabria only 10 or 12. Superficial extent, including Sicily, Sardinia and the smaller islands, 16,200 sq. leagues; that of the islands only, 2800 square leagues." Length from Monte Rosa to Capo di Leuca, about 670 British miles; medial breadth between the Adriatic and Mediterranean, about 100. (Pinkerton.)—Superficial extent, including Sicily and Sardinia, 117,900 Eng. sq. miles. (Morse.)—P.

^b The Pennine Alps extend eastward to the great St. Gothard, where they join the Helvetic and Rhetian Alps. (Ed. Encyc.) The same extent

is given to the chain in the table of European altitudes, Book XCIV. Of course it includes the Simplon, as well as the entire chain between Mount Rosa and Mount St. Gothard.—P.

^c The Maritime Alps are generally represented as extending to the sea coast between Nice and Oneglia. Saussure also applies the name to the mountains extending along the sea coast, on the one side into Provence, and on the other between Nice and Genoa, which he considers as subdivisions of the principal chain.—P.

^d "270 leagues."

continent, enters the sea and appears again in Sicily. The Appennine chain passes throughout its whole extent nearer the eastern^a than the opposite coast of Italy.

The plains in the same country are not less remarkable than its mountains; that of Lombardy may be considered the finest and most fruitful in Europe, perhaps in the world. Another plain, situated between the gulf of Naples, Vesuvius and the Appennines, is less extensive but almost as fertile as the last. The plains on the other side of the same chain, although smaller, are equally productive; they extend along the shores of the Adriatic, in the territory of Bari, and near the gulf of Manfredonia.

The rivers that water Italy differ from each other in size, according as they descend from the Alps or the Appennines. The Po, the largest of them all, has its source in Mount Viso. Enlarged by the streams of the Tanaro, the Trebia, the Taro and the Panaro, which unite with it on its right bank, and augmented on the left by the Doria, the Orca, the Sesia, the Tesino,^b the Adda and the Oglio, it throws itself, after a course of a hundred and twenty leagues, into the Adriatic gulf. The Tagliamento, the Piave, the Brenta and the Adige rise from the Alps and enter the same gulf. Those that rise from the Appennines, and fall into the Mediterranean, are the Arno, which throws itself into the gulf of Genoa, and the Tiber, which enters the sea near Ostia.

The largest lakes are situated at the base of the Rhatian Alps; such are Lake Maggiore on the west, and to the east of it, those of Lugano, Como, Iseo and Garda, the last of which is the greatest in Italy. When contrasted with these, the lakes of Perugia,^c Bolsena^d and Fucino^e may appear insignificant; they succeed each other in a direction from north-west to south-east on the western declivities of the Appennines.

The fine climate of Italy may have contributed to render its mineral waters as much frequented as those in Germany. The gaseous springs of Saint Julian, the baths of Montecatini, the springs of Saint Cassian, and the celebrated baths of Lucca, attract many strangers to Tuscany. The gaseous springs in the kingdom of Naples are so numerous, that they appear to be connected with volcanic phenomena; it may be sufficient to mention those of Santa Lucia, Pisciarelli, Pozzuoli and the four springs in Ischia. The baths of Albano near Padua, and those of Rocoaro in the neighbourhood of Vicenza, the thermal springs of Acqui, Vinadio and Oleggio in the kingdom of Sardinia, and lastly the mineral waters near Parma, are all frequented by invalids.

The country from the north to the south of Italy may be divided into four different zones, each of them characterized by a peculiar climate. The northern zone, which extends from the Alps to the Appennines, is often exposed to intense cold; Reaumur's thermometer descends sometimes to ten degrees below zero. The olive, the lemon and other fruits of the same kind never flourish. The second zone reaches to the course of the Sangro; the winter is there mild; the olive and the wild orange resist it, but the sweet orange does not succeed in the open air. The Seville orange and the lemon thrive almost without culture in the next region, which terminates near the banks of the Crati. Although frosty

weather is not unknown, it is of rare occurrence in the low grounds. The last zone is exposed to a burning climate; the thermometer never descends below the freezing point; the palm, the aloe and the Indian fig grow on the plains and near the shores of the sea; the highest summits, however, are covered with snow in winter.

Few countries are so fruitful as the first region which occupies all the valley of the Po; it produces a great quantity of rice and different sorts of grain, one of which the Italians use in making their macaroni and other pastry of the same sort. The finest meadows and the fattest cattle in Italy may be seen in the same valley or in others that communicate with it. Cheese forms a considerable branch of exportation; the wines are of a good quality, particularly those of Friuli, the Vicentino, the Bolognese, and Montferrat. The second region does not abound in pasture or corn; the cultivated lands rise in terraces on the declivities of the mountains; their verdure is varied by the pale olive and other fruit trees. As part of the third region is unhealthy, it has been termed the country of the *malaria*; it is covered in many places with rich pastures and numerous flocks. The fig-tree, the almond, the cotton plant, the sugarcane, and the grape that produces the strong wines of Calabria, are cultivated in the last region, and the vegetation resembles that in the finest countries of Africa. The silkworm produces a coarser silk than in the other parts of Italy; the cause has been attributed to the nature of its food, which consists principally of the leaves of the black mulberry tree. The luxuriant branches of the vine twine round the lofty poplar, but it has been remarked that the wines obtained from the low vine, are superior to such as are produced from those which hang in elegant wreaths from the summits of the highest trees. The grapes of the former are often ripe, before those of the latter have begun to change their colour. If the grapes of the two sorts be mingled, the wine becomes acid and disagreeable.

Italy produces all the fruit trees that flourish in the temperate regions of Europe, and some plants which thrive only in high temperatures; such are the date plum (*Diospyrus lotus*), of which the yellow and acid fruits, in size not unlike cherries, are only eaten by children and the poor; the pride of India (*Melia azedarach*), a tree adorned with clusters of pale blue flowers that diffuse a pleasant fragrance; the pomegranate brought from Carthage into Italy by the Romans; the azarole (*Cratægus azarolus*), a sort of medlar tree, producing fruit of a bright red colour, which yields a refreshing juice that the people often drink in southern Italy; the carob tree (*Ceratonia siliqua*); the mastich tree (*Pistacia lentiscus*), of which the oil is used in cookery and for burning; lastly, the round leaved ash (*Fraxinus rotundifolia*), the precious tree of Calabria, that yields the manna of commerce.

Several animals in Italy are common to different parts of Europe; others are peculiar to its climate and its mountains, the last of which serve as a retreat for the lynx, the chamois, the wild goat, the ferret, the dormouse, and the lemming, a small Norwegian rat well known on account of its migrations. The porcupine is found in different parts of the Appennines; there are besides many oxen that the

^a The western, in the original; but this must be a mistake. The Appennine branches from the southern extremity of the Alps, and then stretch along the gulf of Genoa, and eastward to the centre of Italy, whence it extends south-eastward to the southern extremity of the kingdom of Naples, approaching nearer the Adriatic than the Mediterranean.—P.

^b Ticino (*Ticinus*.)

^c *Thrasymenus*.

^d *Lacus Volsiniensis*.

^e Lake Celano, the ancient *Fucinus*.

inhabitants call buffaloes,^a which are tamed in the south of Italy. The Neapolitan horses are strong and well made, the ass and the mule are of an excellent kind, and the sheep may be compared to those in Spain. The birds are very numerous; in the Maritime Alps only, three hundred and six different species have been counted. Some reptiles in the south are common to that region with the northern part of Africa; the most noxious serpents are the asp and the viper.

The Mediterranean abounds with fish and mollusca. The depths of that sea are inhabited by *alpcoccephali*,^b *potomoti* and *lepidolepri*. In the next higher region are found molvi,^c whittings and castagnolli;^d at a thousand feet^e below the surface, the most common fish are rays, anglers (*lophi*), flounders (*pleuronectes*), and others of the same sort.^f The region of corals and madrepores lies at five hundred feet^g below the surface; the fish that frequent it are the file-fish (*balistes*), the wrasse (*labrus*), and the gurnard (*trigla*). Algæ and different sea weeds^h vegetate at a less depth, and that part of the sea is the region of the murænæ, the weavers (*trachini*), and the *stromatei*. The rocks nearer the surface are covered with different sorts of *fuci*, and serve to shelter blennies, trumpet-fish, and all the other kinds that are taken near the shore. Lastly, along the coasts covered with gravel and with sand, are found gilthead, anchovies, mullets, and different mollusca.ⁱ

The cuttle fish is by no means uncommon in the Mediterranean; when in danger, it discharges a black liquor, which has been called *sepia*, and thus conceals itself from its enemies. Another molluscous animal may be mentioned, which has been described by Aristotle and Pliny; it is known by the name of the argonaut or the nautilus.^k That singular animal has a transparent and fragile shell, shaped like a skiff, which has been supposed to have given man the first notion of vessels, and the earliest lessons in navigation. Endowed with intelligence sufficient for its preservation, a provision indispensable for the mariner, as soon as the tempest begins to agitate the billows, it shuts itself in its shell, and descends to the bottom of the waters; but when calm weather returns, it extends its arms out of its light bark, and rises to the surface. It fills its vessel with a quantity of water sufficient for ballast, or empties it at pleasure; it is impelled by its arms, which act as oars, and if the breeze be not too strong, it raises two of them, extends the membrane that unites them, and uses it as a sail for accelerating its course, while another arm descends behind the shell into the water, and acts as a rudder.

The south winds are very disagreeable in the kingdom of Naples and in Sicily, but the south-east wind or the *sirocco* is the most oppressive of any. When it prevails, the light of day is obscured, the leaves of plants are rolled up, as if they had been stung by a destructive insect, and men are exposed to a languor and uneasiness that render them incapable of exertion. It may be considered fortunate that the *sirocco* prevails more in winter than in summer.

Italy affords ample scope for meditation to the geologist.

^a *It. Bufoli (Bos Bubalus Linn.)* a peculiar species, native of the warm climates of Africa and Asia.—Great droves of them are fed in the marshes along the Mediterranean.—P.

^b *Qu. Leptocephali.*

^c "*Molres.*" *Qu. moles*, sunfish (*Tetraodon mola*, Linn.)—P.

^d "*Castagnolles.*" ^e "*300 metres.*"

^f "*— and all fishes with soft flesh.*" ^g "*150 metres.*"

^h *Algæ and Caulinia.*

ⁱ *Histoire naturelle des principales productions de l'Europe méridionale*, par M. Risso, tom. III.

The Alpine limestone commences to the north of Belluno; it is covered with oolitic limestones in horizontal strata, from which red sandstone rises.¹ Springs impregnated with hydrogen issue from the limestone in the valley of Pieva di Cadore. Nineteen mines are situated in the same valley; an ore of lead containing silver is obtained from the mountain of Jiau, which consists also of calcareous rocks; oxide of iron and sulphuret of lead are found in the mountain of Grigni. The geologist observes in the territory of Vicenza calcareous substances analogous to chalk, tertiary deposits and ancient volcanic rocks; in the last are contained globules of chalcedony, filled with air and water. The lava alternates in the heights of Monte-Bolca, with schistous limestone abounding in fossil fish. Green sandstone forms the nucleus of all the calcareous heights that extend through Friuli, and of the low hills of Oltre-Piave. The Veronese exhibits the same arrangements; the limestone rocks are filled with organic remains. At the base of the Appennines, in the duchy of Parma and Piacenza, hills formed of shell limestone rise to the height of sixteen hundred feet; they command the course of the Po, and their strata are inclined from ten to twenty degrees towards the north.

The Po, which traverses a great extent of country similar in its formation to the neighbourhood of Paris, carries along with it, like every great river, an abundant *detritus* from the mountains that encompass it, and from the soil through which it flows. The continual action of its waters accumulates deposits at its mouth, which are every day encroaching on the limits of the sea. It may be proved that, since the year 1604, when it was attempted to confine its banks by dikes, the deposits which the river brings down, have been so much accumulated in the lower part of its course, that the surface of its water is now higher than the tops of the houses in Ferrara.^m The sea has receded since the same period, to the distance of more than three leagues. The ancient *Hadria* or the modern *Adria* was once a famous port, since it gave its name to the Adriatic Gulf; it is now more than eight leagues from the shore. It has been calculated that the annual encroachments made by these deposits amount to four hundred feet,ⁿ but that calculation appears to be overrated;^o it is certain, however, that the labours of men have greatly contributed to augment the deposits. Their progress may be ascertained with sufficient accuracy; in the twelfth century, *Adria* was about thirty, or according to others, thirty-four thousand feet from the sea;^p at the end of the sixteenth century, when a new passage was made for the river, the remotest promontories formed by the deposits were sixty-one thousand six hundred and sixty-five feet^q distant from *Adria*. These distances are believed to be correct, and it follows that the annual extent of the encroachments was equal on an average to eighty-four feet.^r But the successive additions have been much greater since the end of the sixteenth century; if it be recollected that the furthest limits of these alluvial lands are at present 108,334 feet^s from the meridian of *Adria*, it may be shown that they are enlarged every year by

^k *Argonauta argo*, Linn. "*Argonaute papiracé*," Paper Nautilus.

¹ *Memoir by M. Catullo: Giornale di Fisica Chimica.*

^m *M. de Prony, Système Hydraulique de l'Italie.*

ⁿ "*120 metres.*" ^o *Breislak, Institutions géologiques.*

^p "*Adria was nine or ten thousand metres from the sea.*"

^q "*18,500 metres.*"

^r "*25 metres.*"

^s "*32,500 metres.*"

more than two hundred and thirty-three feet.^a The Po was formerly subject to inundations, every forty or fifty years; they are now more frequent. The deposits brought down by the Brenta render it not improbable that Venice may share the fate of Adria. The Euganean mountains, a group of volcanic heights, are situated in the vast alluvial plains on the east of the Adige and the town of Este.

Fossil shells are very common in Lombardy and Piedmont, but the beds of earth which cover the marine deposits, abound in many places with the bones of elks, mastodons, elephants, rhinoceroses and other large quadrupeds. The bones of cetaceous animals have been found in the hills near Piaceenza. Animals, which are now extinct, must therefore have inhabited the declivities of the Appennines and Alps before man established his dominion in those regions.

The chain of the Appennines may be divided into two distinct parts; the one is composed of granite, euphotide^b and serpentine, which constitute the nucleus of these mountains; the other is formed of granular^c and compact limestones, above which are silicious strata, and the sandstone known by the name of *macigno*. The granular limestone, which is considered primitive, furnishes very fine white marble for sculpture; the most valuable quarries are those near Carrara on the western declivity of the northern Appennines. But towards the north, these primitive limestones and others of the transition period serve as a support for different tertiary formations, in which are comprehended beds of clay mixed with shells, and other sedimentary deposits containing fragments of wood and the fruits of different coniferous trees.^d The same tertiary formations extend at the base of the central Appennines; they form hills consisting chiefly of argillaceous marl and calcareous and silicious sand, in which are found sulphur, mineral pitch and salt. Organic remains are so abundant that a naturalist believes them to be more numerous than all the animals in the Mediterranean.^e The granitic rocks in the southern Appennines, from the mountains of Conegliano to the extremity of Italy, are more extensive than in the rest of the chain. They are of a yellow colour, and of a granulated and imperfectly crystallized texture; they are apparently of transition formation. Calcareous hills of tertiary formation rise in different directions near the shores of the sea. Saline deposits are situated at the base of the Aspromonte in Eastern Calabria; they are wrought most extensively in the neighbourhood of Lungro.

The existence of a sea, afterwards succeeded by fresh water lakes, along the western declivity of the central Appennines, is attested by the nature of the soil; volcanic products were amassed in the same region at a period anterior to the commencement of history. In one place are *macignos*; in another travertines, the most modern of calcareous rocks. The formation of the latter has been attributed to mineral springs containing carbonic acid; they were used in building most of the monuments of ancient Rome, and they are found in extensive beds in the neighbourhood of that city. Other limestones that are still forming, indicate the course which nature followed in the remotest periods. The waters that descend from the chain of Mount

Velino, hold in suspension carbonate of lime which is deposited in Lake Velino, and also at the falls of Terni and Tivoli. The reader may have some notion of the manner in which this limestone is deposited from the account of an intelligent naturalist. "The celebrated falls of Tivoli are not formed by abrupt declivities in the compact limestone of which these hills, (those that command Rome,) consist, but by deposits from the river that issues from the valley, and which in ancient times was more surcharged with calcareous sediment than at present. The undulating forms that these deposits assume, forms that are not seen in the plains, are owing to the agitation of the waters; their less abundant precipitation may perhaps account for their crystalline texture, by which they differ from travertine, and resemble alabaster. The same arrangement, attributable to the same causes, may be seen in all its details at the lofty falls of Terni. The traveller observes in the neighbourhood, and in the lower parts of the rock, masses of travertine, a fresh water deposit of compact limestone. Near Rieti, at the confluence of the Velino and the Nera, that small river is precipitated over a mass of crystalline concretionary limestone formed in the same way and on the same base of compact limestone as at Tivoli."^f

This limestone is in most places of a brownish red colour; fresh water shells are occasionally found in it; in some places, however, it is of a pure white. On a hill, evidently of recent formation, to the north-west of Radicofani, and near the frontiers of Tuscany, the waters of San Filippo^g to which invalids resort, deposit a very fine white sediment; the water is made to fall into moulds in a very fine spray, and by incrustation bas-reliefs are formed.

The lakes in which the ancient travertine was deposited in the neighbourhood of Rome, have formed the Quirinal, the Aventine, and the Mounts Marius^h and Cœlius; but Janiculum and the rock of the Vatican attest by their mollusca the presence of salt water. Other rocks, and volcanic products conglomerated by calcareous cement, form the soil of the ancient city. Some deposits in the vicinity contain bones belonging to terrestrial animals, of which the species are now extinct.

Two distinct tracts of volcanic matter may be recognized, in the country between the banks of the Po and the extremity of Italy; the one extends along the eastern declivity of the Appennines from the territory of Ferrara to Abruzzo near the banks of the Sangro; the other stretches along the opposite declivity into Sicily. At the two extremities of these volcanic tracts, are exhibited the phenomena of mud volcanoes,ⁱ in which hydrogen gas is the principal agent. The one at Sassuolo, not far from Modena, is visited by all the curious; a piece of wood plunged into that oozy volcano makes the water rise in the form of a jet. Others will be described in the account of Sicily. At the foot of that declivity of the Appennines, which extends towards the Gulf of Naples, craters of different epochs are heaped on the soil now trodden by man, and the fields are fertilized by decomposed lava. All the plain of Campania is covered with volcanic substances, and Naples is built on former currents of lava. According to Spallanzani, the lakes of Averno and Agnano

^a "70 metres."

^b *Gabbro* of the Italians, *Euphotide* of the French mineralogists, *Diallage rock* of the English mineralogists.—P.

^c "Calcaire saccharoïde."

^d Mémoire sur les bassins tertiaires de Gênes et de ses environs, par M. Pareto: Ann. des sciences nat. tome i. page 86.

^e Breislak, Institutions géologiques, tome ii. page 206.

^f De quelques terrains d'eau douce postérieurs au calcaire grossier hors du bassin de Paris, par M. Brongniart: tome ii. seconde partie, pag. 552, des Recherches sur les ossemens fossiles, par M. Cuvier.

^g Baths of St. Philip.

^h Monte Mario, the Clivus Cinnæ of the ancients, on the right bank of the Tiber.—P.

ⁱ "Salses."

were ancient craters. The Solfatara, the remains of an elliptically formed volcano, at present only emits sulphureous vapours,^a but the cavernous soil resounds under the traveller, and the sulphur and alum which are extracted from it seem to form an exhaustless source of wealth. The Grotto del Cane has lost much of its celebrity, since several volcanic caverns emitting carbonic acid have been discovered in other countries. The Lucrine lake was formerly more extensive, and had a communication with the sea, but the eruption in the month of September, 1538, raised a small volcano in the midst of it, from which burning matter issued during seven days, and the lava forms at present a hill, the Monte Nuovo, four hundred feet in height, and eight thousand in circumference at its base.

Vesuvius rises above all the modern volcanoes in the territory of Naples. As active as it was nearly eighteen hundred years ago, it is considered the only one in Europe, from which different kinds of rocks are thrown unaltered. In the last eruption, which happened in 1822, its height was diminished by more than a hundred feet. The most northern point of its summit is about three thousand eight hundred feet in height. The walls of the crater are formed by successive strata of lava, from which the number of eruptions might almost be calculated. Prismatic lava, almost as regular as the finest basaltic prisms, has several times been observed in the conical cavity. Monte Somma, which was the summit of Vesuvius in the time of Strabo, encompasses part of it at present, and is only separated from it by the volcanic hill of Cantaroni. Near the summit, the lava resounds beneath the feet, and seems about to be swallowed in the gulf it encloses. Hot vapours issue from a great many holes or crevices lined with beautiful efflorescences of sulphur; and if a piece of wood or paper be placed near them, it takes fire in a few seconds. Vesuvius stands isolated in the middle of a plain, and as it is formed by matter thrown from the bowels of the earth, its mass gives the exact measure of the cavity from which the different substances have been ejected. The land round its base is divided into small but very fruitful farms; the richness of the soil formed by the decomposed lava may be inferred from the number of inhabitants in proportion to the surface. Each square league contains five thousand individuals. The stranger may wonder at the security of the population, for apparently men, women and children are threatened with destruction at every instant; but it is well known that every eruption is predicted by certain signs. The earth is shaken, a hollow subterranean noise is heard, the wells and springs are dried up, and the terrified animals wander about the country. Warned of the danger, man has time to escape, and to secure whatever is most precious. Clouds of smoke are emitted from the volcano in the intervals between the eruptions.

The mineral riches of Italy consist rather in earthy than in metallic substances; such are the serpentine on the southern side of the Alps, the porphyry of the Appennines, the marble of Carrara, the alabaster of Volterra, the breccia marble of Stazzema composed of different coloured fragments, the black marble of Pistoia, the green marble of Prato, the brocatello of Piombino, the limestone of Flo-

rence,^b on which are represented ruins and beautiful dendrites formed by molecules of manganese, the sulphated barytes of Mount Paderno, which is transformed by calcination into the paste called Bologna phosphorus, the jaspers of Barga, the chalcedonies of Tuscany, the lapis lazuli near Sienna, the jargon of the Vicentino, the garnet of Piedmont, the hyacinth of Vesuvius, and the mines of Sicily and Sardinia.

Numerous islands form a considerable portion of the Italian territory; the largest are Sicily and Sardinia, we might even add Corsica, for considered physically, it forms a detached portion of the latter. The next in point of extent are Malta, Gozzo, and Pentellaria, to the south of Sicily; then the Lipari or Æolian Islands between Sicily and the continent; Ischia and Capri at the entrance of the Gulf of Naples; and lastly, the island of Elba between Tuscany and Corsica.

Sicily, situated between Europe and Africa, is the largest island in the Mediterranean. Its length from south-east to north-west is about a hundred and fifty-five miles, its mean breadth nearly sixty-two, and its surface nine thousand six hundred and eighty-three square miles.^c A chain of mountains which forms a continuation of the Appennines, divides into three branches, and their three extremities terminate in as many capes, namely, Rasocolmo on the north-east, San Vito on the north-west, and Cape Palo on the south-east. Three great declivities are thus formed in the triangular mass of the island, namely, the northern, eastern, and south-western; many streams and rivers descend from them; the largest are the Belici, the Platani and the Salso on the south, and the Giaretta on the east; the northern declivity is narrow and rapid; no streams of any magnitude rise from it.

The principal rock that forms the nucleus of the Sicilian mountains, according to Spallanzani,^d is a sort of granite that decomposes readily; but from the characters he assigns to it, one might suppose it of a later formation than that of organized beings, and that it was included in the list of sienites, diorites, and protogines.^e It serves as a support for calcareous rocks abounding with madrepores and marinemollusca. Argillaceous schistus and fossil fish have been seen in different parts of the island. The Italian naturalist observed on the sea shore, pudding stones and sandstones in which the pebbles and the grains of sand were united by a calcareous cement, still forming under the water; they are most abundant in the neighbourhood of Messina. Witnesses assured him that they had often found in the sand where these rocks are formed, the heads of arrows, medals and human bones; thus the process of nature may still be discerned in the formation of certain rocks.

Mount Gibello or Ætna, a volcano so immense, that Vesuvius in comparison seems merely a hill, rises on the eastern side of Sicily. It is divided into three vegetable zones, that of the sugar cane, that of the vine and olive, and that of boreal plants. The greatest eruption of late years took place in 1812; it lasted six months: another that happened in 1819, has been described by a traveller who witnessed it, and observed the lava flowing below him; it formed a current of sixty feet in breadth on the mountain, and twelve

^a At night a blue lambent flame is visible.—P.

^b Ruiniform or landscape marble.

^c "Length from south-east to north-west 62 leagues, mean breadth 25 leagues, surface about 1630 sq. leagues."—Superficial extent, including the small islands along its coast, about 12,500 sq. miles (Morse,) nearly 12,533 (Ed. Eneye.) Length from east to west 180 miles, greatest breadth

130 (Ed. Eneye.) Length about 170 British miles, medial breadth 70 (Pinkerton).—P.

^d Voyage dans les Deux-Siciles, t. V.

^e Dictionnaire de Géographie Physique de l'Encyclopédie Méthodique, par M. Huet: art. Roches.

hundred at its base. It desolated the country to the distance of two leagues, and set fire to the trees which it touched. The stones discharged from a crater above the opening by which the lava issued, rose apparently to the height of a thousand feet.^a

Several mud volcanoes similar to those near Modena, are situated in the island; among others, there is one at Valanghe della Lalomba, another at Terra Pilata, and a third at Macaluba. The first is the least important; its movements are wholly checked during very hot weather. The second, observed some years ago for the first time by Father La Via, consists of an eminence in which there are several fissures; from a great many small cones, gas and mud rise to the height of six or seven feet; other cones about five feet in depth emit streams of hydrogen. The volcano at Macaluba is somewhat different; it is situated on a little hill about fifty feet in height; its small craters discharge bubbles of gas, which breaking the clay that covers them, produce a noise like that occasioned by a cork bursting from a bottle. A salt spring issues from the little hill, and in the calcareous soil in the neighbourhood are other hillocks of greyish clay, which contain gypsum. Terra Pilata has been so called from its sterility; no vegetable grows on it.

The lands in Sicily are very fruitful; the olive is more vigorous and grows to a greater size than in the rest of Italy; the pistachio tree abounds, and the cotton plant is cultivated with much care; but the forests have been long since exhausted, so that all kinds of timber are at present very rare. Beans are cultivated as a substitute for fallow. The Sicilian honey is of an excellent quality, and the bee is one of the most valuable animals in the country. The animals in general do not differ from those of Calabria; among the birds, the solitary thrush (*Turdus cyanus*) is the one most attached to the soil, and the most admired for its harmonious notes.

It may be worth while to examine a question, concerning which distinguished men have entertained different opinions—was Sicily ever a part of the continent? Those who deny the possibility of such a separation have perhaps paid too little attention to the traditions of the ancients. Pliny^b and Pomponius Mela^c considered it a fact that could not be doubted, and the poets have described the catastrophe.^d The geologist does not attach any weight to a popular tradition, if it be at variance with the principles and truths that form the basis of his science; but if it can be easily reconciled with these principles and truths, it may be considered an additional argument of some importance. It is true that the authority of history is entitled to more credit than a mere tradition, lost in the night of time; but it does not require much reflection to be convinced that at no very remote period history is confounded with fable. The imagination may easily transport itself to the age when men did not possess the art of communicating their ideas by writing, and when history rested only on tradition.

Cluverius^e argues against the possibility of such a separation, because the course of the rivers along the last declivities in Italy, on the side towards Messina, indicate a general inclination of the land towards the sea. But if it be

assumed that the Appennine chain, undermined by subterranean fires, was broken at the place where two heights were separated by a valley, and if, at the time of such a rupture, the waters of the sea rushed violently into the strait of Messina, they must have had some effect in rendering less precipitous, the declivities of Italy on one side, and the capes of Messina and Rasocolmo on the other. This much may be urged in answer to the objections deduced from the actual configuration of the country. But it may be farther objected that it has been ascertained by geological observations, that the mountains in Sicily and the Appennines are formed by the same rocks. If it appears a chimerical notion that a part of the chain, less than a league in length, has been broken by a violent earthquake, because it is an improbable supposition that the southern Appennines are undermined, or, if it may be so said, placed above immense cavities, then it should be recollected that Calabria has been often shaken to its foundations, that a mountain as vast as *Ætna* has been formed by subterranean fires, and that the volcanic heights, now called the Lipari Islands, have been raised from the depths of the waters.

At a league and a half from the Pharos,^f situated on a point near cape Rasocolmo, stands a rock famous in antiquity, as being most dangerous to ships. Rising perpendicularly, the base of Scylla is pierced by many caverns; the billows enter them, mingle with each other, and make in breaking a tremendous noise, which explains why Homer and Virgil have painted Scylla roaring in her cave, and guarded by wolves and fierce dogs. Charybdis, now Calofaro, is about seven hundred and fifty feet distant from the shore at Messina. It no longer resembles the description given of it by Homer; it is not a whirlpool, but a small space hardly a hundred feet in circumference, subject to those eddies which are remarked at sea in all narrow passages.

Malta, Gozzo and Comino are situated between Sicily and Africa; they form a superficies of twenty-two square leagues. Malta is a calcareous rock about five leagues in length and three in breadth,^g covered with a light layer of vegetable mould, which is rendered fruitful by the heat of the climate. More than eighty springs water Malta; but if a proprietor wishes to make a new garden, the soil must be transported from Sicily, a fact that could hardly be inferred from the number and excellent flavour of the Maltese oranges, from its beautiful roses and exhalations of a thousand flowers. The small island of Comino, a rock about five hundred paces in circumference,^h has been so called from the great quantity of cumin which the inhabitants cultivate. Gozzo, an island on which different heights are situated, is about four leagues in length and two in breadth;ⁱ it is fruitful in cotton, grain and vegetables.

Nearer Africa than Sicily, the volcanic island of Pantelaria^k presents on every side steep declivities and caverns. A lake near the centre, about eight hundred paces in circumference, and of an immense depth, fills the cavity of an ancient crater; its waters are tepid, no fish are contained in them. Boiling springs issue from the base of the arid and burnt heights. The part of the island best

^a Lettres de M. Al. de Schenberg à M. le docteur Schouw: Journal Encyclopédique de Naples, No. 8.

^b Book iii. chap. 8.

^c Book ii. chap. 7.

^d Virgil, *Æneid*, Book iii. verse 411. Silius Italicus, Book xiv. verse 10, &c.

^e Sicil. Antiq. lib. i. ^f The light house on Cape Faro.

^g 20 miles long, 12 broad (Ed. Encyc.)

^h Extent 3 sq. miles (Ed. Encyc.)

ⁱ Extent 37 sq. miles (Morse,) 40 sq. miles (Ed. Encyc.)

^k Pantelaria.

adapted for cultivation produces grapes, figs and olives. Lampedosa, nearer Africa than Malta, is little more than two square leagues in extent; it is uninhabited.

The Ægades or the three islands of Favignana, Maretime and Levanzo, near the western coast of Sicily, are little worthy of notice. All the islands on the north of Sicily are ancient craters. Ustica, at eleven leagues from cape Gallo, is crowned by three small volcanic summits, which had been extinguished long before the Phœnician conquest. The soil is a dark loam, yielding rich harvests; the inhabitants cultivate cotton, olives and grapes.

The Lipari or Æolian Islands are situated to the east of Ustica; they are sixteen in number. Basiluzzo and the three Pinarelli are only rocks composed of granitic and porous lavas covered with sulphate of alumine;^a yet three inhabited houses are situated in Basiluzzo. It has been affirmed that hydrogen gas rises round these islands above the surface of the water. The soil of Alicudi or Alicuda is covered with globular lava; but Spallanzani describes a mass of porphyry that did not appear to have been in any way modified by the action of fire.^b Felicuri or Felicudi^c may be remarked on account of its alternate layers of lava and and tufa;^d in the same island is situated a large cavern, called the Grotto of the Sea Ox, not less than two hundred feet in length, one hundred and twenty in breadth, and sixty-five in height. Spallanzani observed there a mass of granite, similar to the rocks near Melazzo in Sicily. The block which seems to have been transported by the waters might tend to strengthen the opinion that a marine irruption has contributed with the action of subterranean fire to separate Sicily from Italy. Salina, which Spallanzani considers the ancient *Didyma*, is more probably the island of *Thermista*. It is about four leagues in circumference; a crater is situated near the centre, and the soil is fruitful in grapes that yield an excellent wine. It has been called Salina from the abundance of salt obtained from a small lake, separated from the sea by a lava dike that the waves have formed. The waters of the lake are diverted into ditches made for the purpose; the heat of the sun dries them by evaporation, and leaves behind thick layers of salt. Lipari, the largest of these islands, is nearly six leagues in circumference; it is covered with feldspathic lava, volcanic glass or obsidian, and pumice stone, with the last of which the inhabitants supply the whole of Europe. The mountain of Campo Bianco consists of conglomerates containing vegetable remains, and forming strata that alternate with pumice stone.^e Two craters are situated in Volcano, an island less than six leagues in circumference; one of them appears to be exhausted; the other, which is of very large dimensions, emits clouds of smoke. It is reckoned to be four thousand six hundred and sixty feet in depth, and two thousand five hundred and sixty-six in diameter.^f The last eruption took place in the year 1775. The extinguished crater is not inaccessible; the stranger may descend to a grotto adorned with stalactites of sulphur. The walls of another grotto are covered with sulphur, sulphate of

alumine and muriate of ammonia. Carbonic acid is disengaged from the hot waters of a small lake in the same island. The volcanic products of Panaria are nowise remarkable; like Lipari, it produces corn, olives, figs and excellent grapes. Stromboli, the most northern of these islands, is a steep volcano, in which a crater open on one side, is always burning. In its ordinary calm state, two eruptions take place every quarter of an hour. Its lavas contain beautiful crystals of specular iron (*oligiste*).^g

The entrance into the Gulf of Naples is defended by three islands, Capri or the ancient *Caprea* on the right, and Ischia and Procida on the left. No traces of volcanoes are to be found in the first, which is about a league and a half long, and a league broad. A calcareous cliff divides it into two parts, and the inhabitants that go from the one to the other must ascend a stair of five hundred steps. It has been inferred from observations made in different parts of the earth, that the waters of the sea are lower than in past ages; Capri, however, offers a proof to the contrary. The floors of the palace^h built by Tiberius are at present covered with the waves. It is said that in certain seasons of the year, quails flock in such numbers to the most fruitful parts of the island, that the quantity caught in a day has been sold for more than a hundred ducats. The tithe that the bishop receives from the quails taken in the island, constitutes his principal revenue. Ischia is eight leagues in circumference; its soil is wholly volcanic; the last marine deposits are at present covered with lava. Strabo informs us,ⁱ that its fruitful harvests and gold mines were the sources of much wealth to the inhabitants; but it is not improbable that the Greek geographer has been mistaken, for no traces of gold can now be found in its lava. Its ancient volcanoes, Monte di Vico and Epopeo, are not much lower than Vesuvius. The eruption which happened in 1302, lasted two months, and compelled the inhabitants to abandon the island; at present, however, it is very populous. It produces good wines, and many strangers repair to it on account of its vapour baths^k and mineral waters. Procida, placed between the continent and the last island, is not more than three leagues in circumference, but it contains a great many inhabitants, more perhaps than any other place of the same size;^l their number is not less than fourteen thousand. Its volcanic soil, formed by successive deposits of lava, yields plenty of oranges, figs, and grapes.

The Pontian islands, of which the five largest are San Stefano, Vandotena, Zannone, Ponza and Palmarola, extend to the west of Ischia; several others of a smaller size, rise between them. Ponza, the largest of the group, is about six or seven miles long, and three or three and a half broad.^m Like those that surround it, it is formed by trachytic rocks, the remains of burning streams that flowed in the midst of earthy volcanic deposits. The base of La Guardia, one of the highest summits in the island, consists of a semi-vitreous trachyte, on which rests a bed of common grey trachyte, about three feet thick. The trachytic rocks in the island of

^a Spallanzani, Voyage en Sicile, tom. ii.

^b Voyage en Sicile, tom. iii. p. 103.

^c Felicuda. ^d Peperino. ^e Dolomieu, Voyage aux Iles Lipari.

^f "Depth 1400 metres, diameter 770."

^g Specular iron is found at Stromboli in the fissures of lava. (Spallanzani.)—P.

^h The winter palace of Tiberius at La Marina. It was built on terraces and piers advancing into the sea, which has again resumed its original domain. It is probably owing to the destruction or sinking of its foundations rather than to the rising of the sea, that it is now covered with the waves.—P.

ⁱ Lib. v. cap. 10.

^k It. *stufe*, stoves. Aqueous vapours are constantly issuing from fissures in the lava; they are collected and conveyed by tubes into apartments, whereby a steam bath is obtained. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^l "It is one of the most populous places on the globe."

^m "2½ leagues long and ½ league broad." The translator has probably mistaken half a league (*une demi-lieue*) for one league and a half. (Circumference 5 Fr. leagues. Vosgien.)—P.

Zannone rest on limestone belonging to the transition period.

Several other islands are situated towards the north, between Corsica and Tuscany; of these the most southern are Gianuti, formerly *Artemisia*, and Monte Cristo, the ancient *Oglosa*, both of which are inhabited by fishermen, and Giglio, which the Romans called *Ægilium*. In the last are worked granite and valuable marble quarries; its hills are covered with trees, and the soil is fruitful in vines. Pianosa, the ancient *Planasia*, a well wooded but thinly peopled island, lies at no great distance from Elba. Capraia, a small calcareous island to the north of Elba, contains a greater population. Gorgona, opposite to Leghorn, a still smaller island, is covered with wood and serves as a station for the sardel fishermen.

The island of Elba, so famous for its iron mines, which were worked at a very remote period, was called *Æthalia* by the Greeks, and *Iuva* by the Romans. It is from twenty-five to thirty leagues in circumference, and about nineteen in superficies. Granite, micaceous schistus and marble are the principal rocks in its mountains, which extend from east to west. The Capanna is the highest summit in the island. Although some unwholesome marshes might be mentioned, the climate may be said to be salubrious. No river waters the island; Rio is its only stream, but it possesses abundant and never failing springs. Several mineral springs are also situated in Elba; the inhabitants make excellent wine; the pastures, although of small extent, are very fertile.

The island of Sardinia, about sixty-one leagues in length from north to south, and about thirty-three at its greatest breadth, forms a superficies of eleven hundred and ninety-four square leagues. A chain of mountains traverses the island from south to north; two branches extend from its western side, the one towards the north-west and the other towards the south-west. The island is formed principally of granite, in which are contained strata and veins of quartz, sienite and greenstone or diorite, and which is covered in many places, particularly at the two extremities, with micaceous schistus. Mount Genargentu, one of the loftiest in Sardinia, consists chiefly of these substances; it is not less than six thousand and eighty-six feet^a in height. The same rocks appear at the north-eastern extremity, in the mountains of Della Nurra. The southern and northern branches are composed of transition rocks and secondary limestone, and are often covered with trachytes supporting tertiary deposits, on the last of which basalt reposes; this arrangement has been observed in the mountains of Del Marghine, near the middle of the western part of the island. These volcanic masses seem to have been partly overturned and destroyed by aqueous currents flowing in the direction of north to south. Fresh water must have had some share in effecting these catastrophes; for in the country near Cagliari, the remains of carnivorous and ruminating animals, as well as fresh water shells, are found in great numbers.^b No traces are left of the craters from which the aqueous products were discharged. A small modern volcano near Giave, is characterized by puzzolanas and scoria.

^a "1826 metres."

^b "In the neighbourhood of Cagliari there is a formation of osseous breccia, containing the remains of small *rodentia*, the teeth of ruminating animals, and terrestrial shells."

^c Description de l'île de Sardaigne, par M. de la Marmorata, Mémoires du Muséum d'histoire naturelle.

^d Flumendoso.

The existence of gold in the Sardinian mountains may be considered very uncertain, but there are several iron and lead mines. Silver, copper and mercury are found only in small quantities.^c

The principal rivers flow from the western side of the great chain, namely, the Ozieri on the north, the Oristano in the centre, and the Mannu on the south. The Flumendosa^d rises from the opposite side of the mountains. The Oristano is about twenty-two leagues in length; none of the others are more than fifteen. There are numerous small lakes in Sardinia, the waters of which are more or less brackish, a quality derived from the neighbourhood of the sea, or the nature of the soil that they water.

The climate is temperate but often exposed to the fatal effects of a south-east wind called the Levante, the same as the Neapolitan sirocco. Strabo,^f Tacitus,^g Cicero,^h and Cornelius Neposⁱ mention the insalubrity of Sardinia. The same effects are still produced by the same causes; the miasms that rise from the marshes, particularly after hot and rainy weather, occasion dangerous intermittent fevers.

A fifth part of the soil is covered with forests of oak; the principal species are the common oak (*Quercus robur*), the holm (*Quercus ilex*), and the cork tree (*Quercus suber*). The island may be divided into three vegetable zones; that of the mountains may be compared with Corsica; that of the northern plains and coasts resembles Provence and a part of Italy; and lastly, that of the southern plains and coasts is similar to Africa. The low state of agriculture may be attributed rather to the character of the inhabitants than to the nature of the soil.

The largest of the wild animals are the stag, the fallow deer, the goat and the wild boar; but they are all smaller than others of the same species on the continent. The musimon^k differs from the same animal in Corsica, both in size and in the form of the horns, which resemble those of the ram. The other quadrupeds are the fox, the rabbit, the hare and the weazel. The domestic animals are distinguished by peculiar characters; the horses are small but strong, they are often useful for twenty or thirty years; the asses are small and covered with long hair; the oxen, like those in Hungary, have very large horns; they are light, nimble and impetuous. The Sardinian goats are not inferior in size to those in Italy; all the other animals are diminutive and degenerate.

The eagle soars above the mountains, the vulture devours the putrid carcasses in the plains, and the linnet, the black-bird and the thrush enliven the fields. The flamingo arrives from Africa about the middle of August; two months later, it is joined by flocks of swans, geese and wild ducks that have migrated from northern regions, and these are followed by herons, coots and cormorants.

The slow growth of vegetation, and the sudden arefaction of most of the plants, render insects less abundant in Sardinia than in the other countries of southern Europe. The tarantula is not unknown, grasshoppers^l are common, and the gnats are very troublesome. The bees yield excellent honey; in some districts, it has a bitter taste which is not disagreeable; the inhabitants attribute it to the flowers

^c About 80 miles in length. (Ed. Encyc.)

^f Lib. V.

^g Annal. Lib. VII

^h Lib. II. ep. 3, ad Quintum fratrem.

ⁱ De Viris Illustr.

^k Monflon, wild sheep—*muflon* in Sardinia, *mufloni* in Corsica.

^l "Sauterelles"—locusts?

of the arbut tree. The only reptiles found in the island are a small snake and different species of lizards. Many fish are taken in the rivers and the sea. The most remarkable amphibious animals are two species of seals.

Sardinia is surrounded by several small islands. The largest are San Antioco and San Pietro on the south-west, Asinara on the north-west, and Maddalena, Caprara and Tavolara on the north. San Antioco, the *Enosis* of the Romans, is about nine leagues in circumference. It yields rich harvests, and its inhabitants export a great quantity of

salt. San Pietro, divided into two parts by a hilt, is the ancient *Hieracum*; it is about eight or nine leagues in circumference. The inhabitants fish for coral, work their salt mines,^a and cultivate a fruitful soil. Asinara, the ancient *Insula Herculis*, about four leagues and a half in length and two in breadth, is mountainous and covered with pastures; a few fishermen and shepherds inhabit it. Tavolara, a calcareous rock, now the haunt of wild goats, was frequented by the ancients, who fished on the coasts for the mollusca that yielded the purple die.

BOOK CXXXII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Description of Italy.—Second Section.—Lombardo-Venetian kingdom.

THE most ancient people that inhabited the country from the sides of the Alps to the banks of the Po, and from the course of the Tesino to the Lisonzo, were the *Orobii* on the north, the *Insubres* and the *Cenomani* below the lakes of Como and Iseo, the *Lavi* on the west, near the confluence of the Tesino and the Po, and the *Euganei* on the east. The *Orobii* were probably aborigines of the Alps; their name signifies literally those that live in the mountains; but Pliny,^a after Cornelius Alexander, makes them the descendants of Greek mountaineers; however, *Bergomum*,^b the name of their capital, indicates a Germanic or rather Germano-Celtic origin. The *Insubres* appear to have also migrated from the north; they were a branch of the *Ombri*, whose name in their language signified *Valiant*. *Mediolanum*, their capital, is the modern Milan. The *Cenomani* were a colony of Celtic people that originally inhabited the territory of Mans; they settled on the southern side of the Alps, six centuries before the vulgar era. The *Lavi* were also considered Gauls. The *Euganei* possessed for a long time the territory that now forms the government of Venice, but they were at last invaded by the *Veneti*, who are supposed to have been a colony of the *Veneti* in the country round Vannes in Armorica, a powerful seafaring and commercial people.

The descendants of these different nations possessed that part of Italy until the fall of the Roman empire in the west, about the end of the fifth century, when the *Heruli*, under the conduct of Odoacer, quitted the banks of the Danube, settled on both sides of the Po, and made Ravenna the capital of their territory. Six years after their conquest, they were subdued by the Ostrogoths, whose power was shaken by the glorious efforts of Belisarius, and overthrown by the eunuch Narses in the year 553.

Italy restored to the emperors of the East, was not long secure against foreign invasions. The *Longobardi*^c quitted the forests of Germany, and founded in 567^d a powerful kingdom in the great valley of the Po, which in time was styled Lombardy. But the bishops of Rome anticipating their power, observed, not without fear and jealousy, the aggrandizement of these barbarians who threatened to destroy or possess the ancient capital of the world. Stephen the Second implored the assistance of France; Pepin took from the *Longobardi* the exarchate of Ravenna, and made the pope sovereign over it. Their kingdom was afterwards destroyed by Charlemagne, who confined Didier,^e their last king, in a convent. Although Lombardy continued with-

out a sovereign, its laws were retained, and after the death of Charlemagne, the country was divided into several principalities subject to the western empire. But the spirit of independence was diffused over that portion of Italy; the emperors of Germany granted to some towns, the right of choosing their magistrates. The citizens had preserved, in accordance with the genius of Christianity, the right of electing their bishops, and this custom led men to conclude that all power emanated from the people.

These and other republican forms determined the inhabitants of the larger towns to demand charters and more important privileges. All the cities in Lombardy during the twelfth century not only elected their magistrates, but deliberated on their local interests, and on questions of peace and war.^f Frederick Barbarossa was the first emperor, who, violating the charters and treaties of his predecessors, attempted to establish absolute power in Italy. Milan was the most important town in Lombardy; besieged by that prince, and reduced to extremity by famine, it consented at last to capitulate, but on conditions which the conqueror disregarded; within a few days after its surrender, Milan was changed into a heap of ruins.^g If the emperor protected the rivals of that large city, he entirely destroyed their freedom, and the magistrates elected by the citizens were succeeded by the *podestas* whom Frederick appointed. The peace which succeeded the noise and confusion of war, was only the stillness of fear. Liberty, although subdued, was not destroyed; the people, unaccustomed to oppression, bore it reluctantly; a secret league conspired to restore their privileges. The towns formed for that purpose a confederation, while Frederick, emboldened by success, marched against Rome, with a view either to humble the Pope, or to unite his possessions to the empire. But on that occasion at least, the thunders of the Vatican were favourable to the independence of nations. The Romans, animated by the just resentment of their bishop, resisted with courage; heaven seemed to favour their efforts, for the plague cut off great numbers in the imperial army. The emperor made new attempts against Lombardy, but denounced and excommunicated, he became the object of hatred and contempt. The confederate towns gave him battle, when his troops were routed and cut to pieces, and Frederick himself saved his life by means of a disguise; at last, abandoned by fortune, he acknowledged the independence of the Lombard republics.

Divisions in opinion are not the least evils in political revolutions; by such causes the inhabitants of the same nation, nay, the citizens of the same town, are often changed

^a Lib. III. cap. 7.
^{*} Lombards.

^b The modern Bergamo.
^d Chronological tables by John Blair.

^e Desiderius.

^f Muratori, Annals of Italy.

^g In six days, the city of Milan was completely demolished. (Ed. Encyc.)

into irreconcilable enemies. While Barbarossa continued fortunate and victorious, he was surrounded by ambitious flatterers, ever ready to pay their court to the powerful. The same persons adhered to his successor, after the death of Frederick, and, as in the former struggle, the court of Rome had powerfully contributed by its excommunications to the success of the people against the empire, Lombardy was then divided into two dominant factions. The partisans of the Pope took the name of *Guelphs*, while those of the emperor were called *Ghibelines*.^a In their contests, both parties were at different times victorious, but the Guelphs more frequently than the Ghibelines.

The freedom and independence gained by the Lombard towns, tended to promote civilization and the arts, and the diffusion of wealth and commerce. Some notion may be formed of their resources, from the account given of Milan by a cotemporary writer^b in the thirteenth century. It contained among its two hundred thousand inhabitants, six hundred lawyers,^c two hundred physicians, eighty teachers and fifty copyists of manuscripts. Its well paved streets and well built houses, its stone bridges, its public monuments, and its palaces, gave it an appearance wholly different from that of the towns in the north and west of Europe. Its territory, which included Lodi, Pavia, Bergamo and Como, besides a hundred and fifty villages and as many castles, maintained a body of eight thousand knights or gentlemen, and could put two hundred and forty thousand men under arms.

But civil dissensions, the sources of ambition and corruption, proved fatal to the patriotism of the inhabitants, and to their independence. These towns, so determined in defending their privileges against the emperors, chose magistrates whose power became hereditary, and soon degenerated into tyranny. In the fourteenth century, Central Lombardy was the inheritance of the Visconti, while Verona was governed by the family of La Scala, Padua by that of Carrara, and Mantua by that of Gonzaga. Milan and its territory were erected into a duchy, and conferred on one of the Visconti, by the emperor Wenceslaus, in the year 1395. The same principality passed, by right of marriage, to the natural son^d of the celebrated James Sforza, who, from the condition of a labourer, rose by his talents and courage to the dignity of constable. When that family became extinct, Charles the Fifth made himself master of the Milanese, which continued in the possession of Spain until the year 1700, when on the death of the last duke, the house of Austria succeeded to his territory, and ceded some portion of it to Savoy.

The descendants of the Veneti, in order to escape from the barbarous hordes of Alaric, who invaded Italy in the beginning of the fifth century, sought shelter in the small islands at the mouth of the Brenta. They founded there two small towns, Rivoalto^e and Malamocco. So early as the year 697, the magistrates of these populous islands, anxious to secure their independence, and to form a distinct people, obtained from the emperor Leontius, the privilege of electing a chief, on whom they conferred the title of *Doge* or Duke. Pepin, king of Italy, granted to the rising state

certain lands along the coast on both sides of the Adige. Rivoalto was united to the neighbouring islands, and became a new town to which the inhabitants gave the name of *Venetia*. In the ninth century, the republic became important from its commerce and maritime power; in the twelfth it equipped fleets for the crusades. It was principally owing to the efforts of the Venetians that Constantinople was taken in 1202; a part of that city and its territory^f was in consequence added to their dominions; the doges, who had already assumed the title of dukes of Dalmatia, were then styled dukes of three eighths of the Roman empire.^g Candia, the Ionian islands, the most of those in the Archipelago, and other important stations, besides factories at Acre and Alexandria, served to extend the power and the commerce of Venice.

The Venetian government consisted at first of councillors named by the people, who shared with the doge the legislative authority. The latter magistrate possessed originally great prerogatives, but they were gradually restricted lest the dignity should become hereditary.^h A numerous representative council was instituted; it was chosen by twelve electors whom the people appointed; but in time the members that formed it, arrogated the right of naming the twelve electors, and of approving or rejecting their successors before they resigned their functions. The frequent election of the same members resulted as a necessary consequence from this confusion of powers, and a dignity which was intended to be the reward of virtuous citizens, became the exclusive portion of certain families. When these innovations on the primitive form of government were established, a senate was instituted, on which was conferred the right of making peace or war; but the senators, as well as the councillors of the doge, were elected every year by the grand council. The discontent and revolts in the fourteenth century, occasioned by a system that annihilated the fundamental principles of a republican government, led to the formation of the celebrated *Council of Ten*, and in their infernal police were organized the insidious spy, the hired informer and the base assassin.

Such was the state of the duchy of Milan, and the Venetian republic, when in 1796, and again after the victory of Marengo, their territories united with that of Modena and a portion of the States of the Church, formed the Cisalpine republic, afterwards denominated the Italian republic until the year 1805, when it was changed into the kingdom of Italy. The ancient name of Lombardy had been long forgotten, when, by the negotiations at Vienna, Austria having obtained possession of Milan, Mantua, Venice and the Valteline, united their territories, and formed the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom.

This kingdom is bounded on the north by Switzerland and Tyrol, on the west and the south by the Sardinian possessions, the duchies of Parma and Modena, and the States of the Church, and on the east by the Adriatic Gulf and the kingdom of Illyria. It is equal in superficial extent to about two thousand three hundred and sixty-eight square leagues.ⁱ Lake Maggiore, the Tesino and the greater part of the Po are its natural limits.

^a The Guelphs derived their name from an illustrious Bavarian family, allied by marriage with the house of Este. The Ghibelines were so called from a village in Franconia, the birthplace of Conrad the Salic, from whom the house of Suabia was descended. See Hallam's Middle Ages; Gibbon's Antiquities of the house of Brunswick.

^b Galvanus Flamma.

^c "Notaries"

^d Francis Sforza, who had married the daughter of Philip Visconti, duke of Milan. ^e Rialto. ^f Three eighths. Hallam, l. c. *infra*.

^g Hallam's Middle Ages, vol. i. p. 472. [The doge took the singular but accurate title, Duke of three eighths of the Roman empire. Hallam, vol. II, p. 153, Philad. 1821.]

^h M. Thielen considers it equal to 851.94 German square miles. [18,290 Eng. sq. miles. Morse.]

Winter lasts generally about two months; the fields are clothed with verdure in February, and the heat of summer is felt in May. The grain and the ordinary kinds of fruit are ripe in June or July, and the vintage takes place in October. The air is salubrious in most parts of the kingdom, but the rice fields occasion in some places putrid miasms; the environs of Mantua and Rovigo are exposed to unwholesome exhalations, and the lagoons are dangerous to strangers.

The valley of the Po, which in the time of Polybius was a marshy country shaded by forests, the haunt of wild boars, does not at present furnish a sufficient quantity of wood for its inhabitants. The treasures of Ceres and Pomona have succeeded to the peaceful retreats of the hamadryads. Extensive meadows watered by the streams that descend from the Alps, yield six crops of hay in the same year. The horned cattle are not inferior to any in Europe; the peasants devote much attention to them; cheese and the produce of the dairy are their principal wealth.

Some customs of past times still exist in the Milanese; heavy wagons with low and massive wheels, drawn by several pairs of oxen, the tips of their long horns covered with iron balls, and their heads adorned with ribbons and garlands, the country women with their hair folded in tresses and fastened together by a silver bodkin, the shepherds carrying instead of a crook, a staff in the form of a crosier, and with a mantle hanging from their left shoulder, and the arched heads of the sheep, their pendant ears and light forms, similar to many ancient basso-relievos, announce Italy and its classic associations. These and other characters which the stranger observes on his arrival, form a striking contrast with the wretchedness of the peasantry, but he becomes habituated to other contrasts, still more painful, for Italy is the country of luxury and poverty.

The bee and the silk-worm are reared with great success in Lombardy; an enormous quantity of wax is consumed in the churches, and the manufacturing of silk is among the few branches of industry, in which the people are not inferior to their neighbours. However, cotton spinning, and cloth and linen manufactures, are not without activity, and it has been estimated that the mean product of the exports amounts to about £3,542,000. Commercial communications are facilitated by excellent roads, rivers and canals.

The Lombardo-Venetian kingdom has been declared an integral part of the Austrian empire. As the country was long governed by French laws, absolute power has been mitigated by the constitution of 1815. The forms of national representation have been established, but the members that compose it, have only the right of deliberating on certain questions, which the government proposes. The emperor is represented by a viceroy, and the kingdom is divided into two governments, those of Milan and Venice. The first is subdivided into nine districts or *delegations*, and the second into eight.

Milan, the capital of the kingdom, and the residence of the viceroy, is situated in a vast plain on the banks of the Olona. If its old ramparts and new walks be included, it will be equal in circumference to ten thousand yards, but

the part which is inhabited does not exceed six thousand.^a Eleven gates lead to different parts of the country, and the greatest length of Milan, or the space between the eastern and Tesino gates, is about three thousand yards.^b The number of houses is not less than four thousand eight hundred, and the population amounts to a hundred and forty thousand inhabitants. If the streets in Milan were more generally broad and straight, it would merit the title of *the Magnificent*. It has been justly remarked, that mean looking houses are as rare as palaces in other towns. The most spacious streets are called *corsi*, both because they serve the purpose of public walks, and because they are the places where race horses run. The squares or courts are almost all irregular and without ornament; that of the *Duomo* or cathedral is long and narrow.

The cathedral itself, one of the most remarkable in Europe, was begun in the year 1386, by duke John Galeazzo Visconti; but a long time may elapse before it be finished. If little was done towards completing the cathedral, with the two millions of francs which Napoleon granted for that purpose, it is not likely that much can be effected in a short period with the hundred and forty-four thousand francs paid annually by Austria. The building is about four hundred and fifty-four feet in length and two hundred and seventy in breadth, and the arched roof^c is two hundred and thirty-two feet in height.^d The top of the highest turret is not less than three hundred and thirty-five feet above the ground.^e Few Gothic buildings are so much loaded with ornaments; white marble statues appear in every niche, at every angle, on every turret, and round every spire; their total number has been estimated at more than four thousand, but many of them are so concealed as to be only seen by the birds which perch on them. Fifty-two marble pillars, each eighty-four feet in height and twenty-four in circumference, support the vast edifice. In a subterranean chapel, below the cathedral, are deposited, in a silver shrine, the remains of St. Charles Borromeo.

The church of St. Ambrose^f contains the tombs of several saints,^g and also of Bernard, king of Italy, and his wife Bertha. It was in the same church that the emperors of Germany received the iron crown. The ancient convent of the Dominicans is celebrated for the famous painting of Leonardo da Vinci, representing the Last Supper, not a fresco but an oil painting on the wall of the refectory, and occupying a whole side of that low hall, in other words, about thirty feet in length by fifteen in height. But it has been so much disfigured by time, smoke, and damp, that it is to be feared no trace of it will be discernible in a short period. It could hardly be believed that the municipal authorities at Milan, had changed the refectory into a watch-house, nay, even into a prison, where French soldiers guarded their prisoners of war. If the authorities were so regardless of a painting which had been the greatest ornament in their city for more than three hundred years,^h it is not wonderful that French soldiers used it as a target. "As to those by whom the mischief was done," says Simond, "an old woman who had lived near the refectory for the last seventeen years informed me, that she had heard of soldiers firing at the picture before she resided there, that a

^a "5000 and 3000 toises."—Milan is about eight miles in circuit. (Ed. Encyc.)

^b "1500 toises."

^c "La voûte," the vault of the dome.

^d These are the measures of the original. Length 490 feet, breadth 298; height within under the principal dome, 258 feet. (Ed. Encyc.)

^e The principal tower is 400 feet high.

^f Erected in the 9th century.

^g "The tomb of St. Benedict."

^h Painted in 1497.

soldier of the sixth French hussars told her, he himself with others had done so, not knowing what it was, when guarding prisoners confined in the hall, and that these prisoners, men of all nations, threw stones and brickbats against it by way of amusement. When Buonaparte came to Milan he went to see the picture, and finding the hall still used as a place of confinement, *he shrugged his shoulders and stamped with his foot*, said the woman, and ordering the prisoners away, a door was walled up, and a ballustrade or wooden partition was drawn across the room before it.^a The church of St. Alexander is remarkable for its fine portal; that of San Vittore is so much overloaded with gilt ornaments that it resembles rather a gaudy play-house than a temple intended for devotion.

Several authors^b have exhausted their etymological ingenuity in discovering the origin of *Mediolanum*, the ancient name of the town. It was not so called from two Tuscan warriors, nor from its position between two rivers, nor from a pig^c half covered with wool (*medio lana*), which was seen by Bellovesus at the place where he founded the city, for it is certain that other towns inhabited by the Gauls, bore the same name. Several antiquities prove that Milan was in its splendour while the Roman empire flourished. Sixteen marble columns may still be seen near the church of San Lorenzo; they are supposed to be the remains of the baths built by Maximian Hercules, the associate of Diocletian in the empire.

The principal public buildings in Milan are the archiepiscopal palace, adorned with fine paintings, the royal palace, that of the regency, the Marini palace, now occupied by the minister of finance, the palace or court of justice, and the mint, a building in point of architecture unworthy of Milan, but remarkable for its fine collection of medals and Italian coins. The barracks which were built at Milan by Eugene Beauharnois, when viceroy of Italy, are admitted to be the finest in Europe. Twelve or fourteen palaces of elegant architecture, and richly decorated, belong to different individuals, and evince the opulence of some Milanese families.

The two most frequented of the four or five theatres in Milan, are the opera, and the theatre of Girolamo. The first or the Scala, so called because it occupies the site of an ancient church of the same name, is a very large building. The six rows of boxes give it an imposing appearance; but small rooms are attached to them; the spectators seldom listen to the music; conversation and gambling are considered more attractive; indeed it is often impossible to hear the performance from the noise that prevails in every part of the house. A reading room is open in the Scala from mid-day to the evening, and in the evening, numbers repair to different gaming tables. Thus, the purpose of the Scala has been perverted, and it might be better that it were closed, than that the young should come in contact with gamblers and the profligate persons who frequent it.

The Girolamo is considered the best theatre of puppets or marionets in Italy. The precision and vivacity in the

motions of the actors produce a complete illusion. The origin of these small wooden figures can only be discovered in vague traditions of a very ancient period. An intrepid French traveller^d has recently brought from Egypt small wooden figures, moveable by springs, and not inferior to those of Nuremberg. It appears that the Egyptians interred these playthings with their children, a custom which existed at Rome after the introduction of Christianity. In ancient times, a young woman before her marriage, sacrificed to Venus the doll that had been given to her in childhood.^e Ancient authors make mention of small moveable figures, that attracted crowds in the streets;^f but as Millin observes, the moderns were the first who substituted puppets for actors in their theatres. The person that contributed most to improve and perfect these exhibitions was Philip Acciajuoli, a knight of Malta. Tragedies, operas, comedies and ballets are represented in the Girolamo. Crowds of all classes resort to them; the humble shop-keeper, the wealthy banker and the haughty noble are equally delighted with the humorous tricks (*lazzi*) of Girolamo, a burlesque personage corresponding to the *Polichinello* of Naples, the *Arlequino* of Venice, and the *Gianduja* of Turin.

The immense esplanade that encompasses the remains of the ancient castle of Milan, was little better than an unwholesome marsh which the French transformed into an agreeable walk, shaded by more than ten thousand trees; it was then known by the name of *Foro Buonaparte*.^g A triumphal arch adorned with basso-relievos in white marble, was erected during the French government^h at the end of the road that leads across the Simplon. At no great distance from the triumphal arch, stands the circus, also a monument of the reign of Napoleon, and one from its size not unlike the monuments of the Romans. The seats which are raised above each other might contain thirty thousand spectators, and the arena is set apart for races and public games. The Corso near the eastern gate is lined with fine houses,ⁱ and the rows of trees that extend between the same gate and the Roman gate, are often crowded with fashionable equipages; it is here that the Milanese display their address in driving their light phaetons.

Our limits prevent us from describing the Ambrosian library, founded by a cardinal Borromeo,^k and that of Brera in the royal palace of the sciences and arts,^l an elegant building to which are attached a fine observatory and a botanical garden containing many exotic plants. The same reason prevents us from mentioning the numerous hospitals and charitable institutions; but it may be remarked that the application of Jenner's happy discovery, to whom the ancients would have erected temples, is more diffused in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom than in the rest of Italy. If few ravages are now made by the small-pox in Milan, it is owing to the vigilance of government, and to the enlightened zeal of the clergy. Sworn vaccinators are always ready to impede its effects; the managers of hospitals and other charities grant no assistance to children unless their parents be furnished with certificates of

^a Simond's Travels in Italy, p. 12.

^b Alciati, Hist. Mediolan.—Isidore, Origines.—Sidonius Apollinaris, l. vii. c. 17, &c.

^c "Truie."

^d M. Cailliaud, who visited Meroe and the White River.

^e Persius, Satire ii.

^f Horace, Lib. i. sat. 2. Lib. ii. sat. 7. Aulus Gellius, Lib. xiv. cap. 1.

^g The Forum of Napoleon (*Foro Buonaparte*) forms part of the Campus Martius, an extensive open plain on the north side of the city, three or

four miles in circumference. On the north side of the Campus Martius, stands the arch of the Simplon, and on the eastern side the great Amphitheatre or Circus.—P.

^h Commenced during the French government—not completed at least in 1826.—P.

ⁱ Palaces.

^k Nephew of Cardinal Charles Borromeo.

^l The college of Brera, formerly belonging to the Jesuits; called by the French the Palace of the Sciences. (Ed. Encyc.)

vaccination. Every three months, the country curates read from the pulpit, the names of the individuals, if there be any, who have died of the small-pox. They remind their parishioners of the duty they owe to their country, which commands them not to neglect the means of security.^a If an individual be seized with the small-pox, and if his physician or one of his relations does not declare it, they are liable to a penalty of a hundred francs. The authorities fix an inscription in large characters on his house, and contagion is thus prevented. The members of the family who may have approached the invalid are not permitted to communicate with others, before he be cured; and if he dies, the body is interred without the usual ceremonies.

Milan has always held a distinguished rank in literature and in the arts. Virgil studied, and Valerius Maximus was born in the town. It has produced in modern times, Octavio Ferrari, the antiquary, Cardan, the mathematician, and Beccaria, the celebrated jurist. The same town carries on a considerable trade, and possesses many manufactories.

Monza, at some leagues to the north of Milan, is adorned with a fine palace and a cathedral, the last of which possesses a richer treasury than any other in the kingdom. One may see there the famous iron crown of which the date and origin are unknown. The population of the same town amounts hardly to six thousand persons. It existed in the time of the Romans, and was then called *Modilia* or *Modovtia*. Its agreeable position on the banks of the Lambro, made Theodoric, king of the Goths, choose it for a residence.

Pavia rises on the banks of the Tesino, on the southern frontier of the kingdom; it was formerly called *Ticinum* from the name of the river.^b It was a place of some importance under the emperors, and according to Pliny,^c it was more ancient than Milan. Tacitus also mentions it;^d indeed few towns in Italy are so pleasantly situated. The Lombards chose it for their capital, but antiquaries are unable to explain the origin of its name. It was laid waste by Marshal Lautrec, who, by a new species of barbarism, sought to avenge the defeat of Francis the First. Pavia is surrounded with massive walls, half ruined towers, bastions and ditches; the number of inhabitants exceeds twenty-two thousand.^e The streets are broad, and the great square is encompassed with porticos. The finely built cathedral indicates the period of the regeneration of art. A long piece of wood, not unlike the old mast of a boat, is preserved with great care in the cathedral, and shown to strangers, as the lance of Orlando. Of the other eighteen churches, St. Peter's is most worthy of notice for its Lombard architecture; the people pretend that the ashes of St. Augustin rest in its vaults. The town possesses a theatre and several fine buildings; its university dates from the time of Charlemagne.

Lodi possesses a fine square encompassed with arcades, eight suburbs, eighteen thousand inhabitants, an old citadel, now useless, lofty walls, twenty churches, a large hospital, a theatre, several palaces belonging to different individuals, porcelain works, silk manufactories, and, lastly, a considerable trade in cheese, which is called Parmesan. It is situated on the banks of the Adda, and is celebrated on

account of the victory gained by the French on the 10th of May 1796.

Como is about eight leagues to the north of Milan; it rises on the southern extremity of a lake to which it gives its name. It could hardly be inferred from its narrow and tortuous streets that it was a royal town; it claims, however, a greater honour, that of having been the birthplace of Pliny the younger. Although the architecture of the marble cathedral is partly Gothic and partly modern, it is the only building worthy of notice in the town. The lake of Como is the *Larius* of the ancients. Beyond the romantic banks of the lake, the picturesque valley of the Adda, or the Valteline, extends along the base of the Alps. That valley, once a part of Switzerland, and afterwards of France, has been united under the Austrian empire to the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. Sondrio, the chief town, does not contain more than three thousand five hundred inhabitants.

Beyond the chain which bounds the valley on the south, and between two small rivers, the Brembo and the Serio, is situated Bergamo, a royal town, the *Bergomum* of the Romans. It was pillaged and destroyed by Attila, rebuilt by the Lombards, and made a free town by the successors of Charlemagne. While Venice was in its splendour, Bergamo was added to the territory of the republic. It carries on a considerable trade in iron and in silk; the inhabitants are industrious and comparatively affluent.

The ancient town of Cremona is situated in a beautiful plain, and is encompassed with ditches, walls and bastions, and commanded by the citadel of Santa Croce; it is watered by the Po, and by a canal which extends from that river, and communicates with the Oglio. It was founded by the *Cenomani* a Celtic people who called it *Cremon*, from which its present name has been derived. Faithful to the cause of Brutus, its territory was divided among the soldiers of Augustus. It was sacked by the troops of Vespasian, and afterwards pillaged by the Goths in the year 630. It experienced the same treatment from the emperor Barbarossa. Marshal Villeroy was taken prisoner at Cremona by the Austrians in 1702; and in 1799 the latter gained some advantage over the French, under its walls. The town holds a great reputation in Italy and in most parts of Europe for its musical instruments, particularly its violins. It occupies a considerable extent of ground, not less than two leagues in circumference;^f its population amounts to twenty-three thousand five hundred inhabitants. The streets are broad, straight and well built; the palaces are large, but they are all Gothic buildings. The Duomo or cathedral, the most remarkable of its forty-five churches, is surmounted by a tower which rises to the height of three hundred and seventy-two feet, and is supposed to be higher than any other in Italy. As Cremona is long and narrow, it has been compared to a vessel, of which the tower is the mast.^g

Brescia, at ten leagues to the north of Cremona, is also surrounded with ramparts and ditches; most of its streets are broad and regular, and it contains thirty-two thousand inhabitants. The palace of justice is worthy of notice for its mixture of Gothic and modern architecture; the interior is adorned with fresco paintings. The episcopal palace is

^a Voyage en Italie en 1820, par le docteur Valentin.

^b Name of the river, *Ticinus*; of the town, *Ticinum* or *Papia*.

^c L. XVII. c. 1.

^d Annal. L. III. Hist. L. II.

^e Population, 22,000, M. B. 23,237, Morse. 25,000, Ed. Encyc.

^f Circumference about five miles. (Ed. Encyc.)

^g Millin, Voyage dans le Milanais, tome ii.

a magnificent building; the theatre, which has been lately finished, is remarkable for its elegant peristyle, and the cathedral for its bold arches, and its paintings, statues and rich altars. The town possesses an extensive commerce, and its fire arms are considered the best in Italy.

Mantua, says Millin, recalls many associations; it was the birthplace of Virgil, and it is connected with the glory and liberality of the Gonzagas. Enclosed by immense marshes, formed by the inundations of the Mincio, it has the appearance of an impregnable town; but these marshes are unwholesome, and occasion dangerous diseases, neither do they form an impassable barrier, for Mantua has been more than once taken; many consider it, however, one of the strongest towns in Italy,^a and it is believed to have been built by the Etruscans three centuries before the foundation of Rome.^b It contained fifty thousand inhabitants at the close of the seventeenth century, but its present population amounts hardly to half the number.^c The streets are broad, and most of them straight; the squares are large and regular; the fortifications are kept in good repair. The town boasts of having given birth to Virgil, and the inhabitants take care to remind strangers of that circumstance; his bust is seen on one of the eight gates, and a monument in honour of the poet rises in the principal square—the Piazza di Virgilio.^d The cathedral was built after the designs of Julio Romano, but as a piece of architecture, it cannot be compared with the palace of Te, a very fine building, so called from its resemblance to the letter T. The ashes of Tasso, the modern Virgil, rest in the church of St. Egida. The Austrian government has been at considerable expense in rendering Mantua more salubrious, by draining part of its marshes, and by constructing new fortifications and demolishing the old, by which a passage has been opened for the stagnant waters. Although silk, cloth and leather are made in the town, its commerce is only carried on through the medium of the Jews.

All the towns that have been as yet described, belong to the government of Milan; before we give an account of those under the government of Venice, some remarks may be made on the insalubrity of certain districts in Upper Italy. We have already had occasion to allude to the poverty and wretchedness of the inhabitants in some of the Milanese villages. At the base of the mountains, which form the northern limits of the country, the villagers are exposed to a disease which has been termed *pellagra*, and which, according to physicians, was unknown a century ago. It is a cutaneous affection, and the external characters are brown or blackish spots, that appear on every part of the body except the face. Those that are afflicted with it, says Dr. Valentin,^e are emaciated, weak and melancholy, oppressed by hypochondria, and tormented with pains that extend along the vertebral column. In some cases the same disease is accompanied with alarming symptoms of delirium. The *pellagra* is often fatal, and in many instances it has excited its victims to commit suicide; it breaks out in the spring, increases with the heat of summer, and terminates at the approach of winter. The cause of the disease has not yet been ascertained, but it may probably be attributed to a scanty and unwholesome diet; at all

events it is very uncommon in the government of Venice, a country, in point of climate, much more unhealthy than the Milanese. The effects of the climate begin to be apparent near the banks of the Adige, and according to some statements, the neighbourhood of Peschiera, near the lake of Garda, is so dangerous to strangers, that French regiments used to decide by lot, which of them should form the garrison of the town.^f The story, it may be admitted, does not appear very probable, as it is not customary for soldiers to choose the place of their garrison. Travellers affirm that the territory of Verona is equally unhealthy; it is certain that the ravages of poverty and disease are but too apparent in the town of Rovigo.

The old walls of Verona are commanded on the north by hills covered with vineyards and country houses. The Adige divides it into two equal parts; it is about four leagues in circumference, and the population is equal to sixty thousand inhabitants. Different opinions are entertained concerning its origin, but it is known that it was an important place in the time of Strabo. The fine gates that adorn it, are worthy of a great city, but the interior corresponds ill with the entrance; for although some of the streets are spacious and well paved, the greater number are small and narrow. The townhouse contains several good paintings of the Venetian school, and the museum a valuable collection of antiquities. The venerable remains of its ancient splendour may be still seen near these modern collections; the amphitheatre, the most remarkable of any, and still in a good state of preservation, rises at no great distance from them. It is difficult to observe its ancient monuments without recollecting that Verona was the birthplace of the elder Pliny and Cornelius Nepos. Those who admire the paintings in its churches, will soon be reminded that the modern Verona was the native town of Paul Veronese.

The fruitfulness of the soil in the neighbourhood of Padua, Vicenza, Treviso, and Belluno, forms a remarkable contrast with the poverty of the inhabitants. Indolence and want of education are the principal causes; immorality and every sort of vice, the fatal effects: it is not safe to travel at night in Upper Italy; although the robbers in that part of the country are less formidable than at Terracina or Fondi, strangers are as liable to have their luggage and effects stolen. The remote villages are so many dens of thieves; those who travel from Verona to Venice, never think of passing the night at any other place than Vicenza or Padua.^g The last mentioned town is of a triangular form; it occupies a space of more than three leagues in circumference,^h and contains a population of forty-seven thousand inhabitants. The antiquity of Padua is not doubtful; what is said concerning it by Livy,ⁱ who was born within its walls, and the beautiful verses of Virgil,^k who attributes its foundation to Antenor, prove that it existed twelve centuries before the Christian era. It was called *Patavium* by the ancients, and according to Strabo,^l who extols its commerce and its wealth, it could raise long before his time an army of a hundred and twenty thousand men. The Greek geographer may be supposed to have exaggerated, or more probably, some error may have crept into his text, but different Roman poets attest the prosperity and the wealth of Padua.^m

^a "This city is the strongest place in Italy."—M. B.

^b Rudolph Von Jenny. ^c 23,340. Stat. Tab. p. 816.

^d Piazza Virgiliana.

^e Voyage en Italie, par le docteur Valentin.

^f Simond's Travels in Italy.

^g Simond's Travels in Italy.

^h It is surrounded with a mound and ditch, which are between seven and eight miles in circumference. (Ed. Encyc.)

ⁱ Lib. X. c. ii.

^k Æneid, Lib. I. v. 242.

^l Lib. V. c. 2.

^m "The prosperous state of its manufactures, particularly of woollens."

ⁿ Martial. Epig. Lib. xiv.—Juvenal. Sat. viii.

It is at present adorned with several spacious squares and many fine buildings, but most of the streets are narrow, dirty and ill paved, and bordered with low and gloomy arcades. At Padua, as in every other Italian town, there are many paintings in the churches, and the paintings as well as the churches are the works of great masters. The number of the churches is not less than ninety-six, and it is said that the church of St. Anthony contains the remains of its patron. The village of Arqua, at some leagues to the south-west of Padua,^a is not only remarkable for its picturesque site, but it also contains the tomb of Petrarch, and the house inhabited by the poet, in which part of his furniture has been preserved.

Vicenza, the ancient *Vicentia*, is peopled by thirty thousand inhabitants, and encompassed with a double wall. The streets are irregular, but in point of architecture and fine buildings, it may be compared with any town in Upper Italy. Few antiquities are contained within its walls; some ruins of a theatre, which is supposed to have been built by Augustus, the remains of an imperial palace, and a statue of Iphigenia, preserved by the Dominicans, are all that have escaped the ravages of time, and the devastations of barbarians. Vicenza was the birthplace of the celebrated architect Palladio, who embellished his native city.

The streets of Treviso are not more regular than those of Vicenza; most of the squares are large and surrounded with arcades; the townhouse is a fine building, and the cathedral possesses several valuable ornaments. The population is equal to fifteen thousand souls. Although Belluno is a royal town,^b it contains only eight thousand inhabitants. Udina, another royal town, and the metropolis of Friuli, is built on the canal of Roya. A large guardhouse, one of the principal edifices, is adorned with marble statues and columns. The *Giardino*, a fine public walk, shaded with trees that were planted by the French, is situated in front of the castle.

The lagoons (It. *lagune*) extend along the coasts of the Adriatic Gulf, and their stagnant waters diffuse an unwholesome atmosphere over the scattered habitations that surround them. The sickly and pallid faces of the inhabitants are remarked by the strangers that visit the country. The lagoons are soon confounded with the sea, and Venice is seen rising from the ocean, the element of its former wealth and power. Venice, one of the oldest and most singular towns in Europe, stands on a hundred and fifty islands in the midst of a vast marsh; they are united by more than three hundred bridges, and appear to form only a single island. It is equal to nearly three leagues in circumference; a large canal divides it into two equal parts, and other canals lined with houses, form the streets, in which the monotonous sound of oars may be heard instead of the noise of carriages. The groups of houses that rise between the canals, are divided by narrow streets or lanes for foot passengers. Venice, notwithstanding its position, is not subject to the unwholesome influence of the marshes; the continual motion of the waves agitates and purifies the air. No springs rise from the sandy soil; some cisterns belonging to private individuals, and a hundred and sixty public cisterns, furnish water to its hundred and ten thousand inhabitants. The lagoons and canals of Venice are its chief security; ships of war cannot attack it, and before the French expedition which took place in 1797, it had never been entered by a hostile army.

The church of St. Mark, one of its principal edifices, is by no means the finest or largest in Venice, but it is the most remarkable for its rich and costly ornaments; it has been said, and not without reason, that it resembles nothing else in the world. The broad and low front is divided into five arcades, not unlike the arches of a bridge, and the entrances are formed by five gates of bronze. Above these arcades, a gallery or balcony with a marble balustrade, stretches across the whole front, and in the same gallery are placed the four bronze horses, supposed to have been cast at Corinth. They were removed to Athens; they served to adorn the triumphal arches raised to Nero and Trajan at Rome; they accompanied Constantine to Byzantium, and were transported from Constantinople to Venice in the thirteenth century; lastly, under the imperial government, they were placed in the Carrousel at Paris, from whence they were returned to their present position in 1815. The Parisians deplored their loss, but the day of their arrival was a day of joy to the Venetians; one might almost have imagined that they had recovered their independence with these monuments of their ancient greatness; yet a few days afterwards, when the statue of Napoleon was overthrown, the same people expressed their dissatisfaction. The church of St. Mark is one of the earliest monuments of the middle ages; its foundation dates from the commencement of the tenth century. The upper part of the building is covered with pyramids, statues, spires and crosses; the interior is gloomy and loaded with columns, statues and gildings; the great altar, or that of St. Sophia, was brought from Constantinople with the bronze horses.

The square of St. Mark, the finest in Venice, may bear a comparison with any other in Europe. It is about eight hundred feet long by three hundred and fifty broad; but it ought not to be judged by its dimensions; when seen from the sea, it has a magnificent appearance. Two columns formed by two single blocks of granite, rise near the quay; they were brought from Constantinople, but they appear to be of Egyptian workmanship; one of them supports the statue of St. Theodore, and the other, the winged lion of St. Mark, which, during several years, was the ornament of the Invalids at Paris. The massive architecture of the ducal palace on the right, has something of the Moorish style. The royal palace, a modern edifice on the left, is adorned with arcades and columns. These, together with the church of St. Mark, the mint, the library and several fine buildings, the works of the architect Sansovino, form the enclosure of St. Mark's, the scene of the Venetian festivals, and the place where strangers and the idle citizens assemble. The finest shops and the most frequented coffee-houses in Venice are situated under the arcades of the same square.

The part nearest the quay is called the *Piazzetta* or little square, and at no great distance, is the palace once destined for the sovereign; but little attention is paid to decorum, for from its windows may be seen the place where criminals are executed; the instruments of death are erected between two pillars near the street where buffoons and puppets amuse the Venetians. The ancient residence of the doge, or the ducal palace, where the state inquisitors used to sit, and which, like the seraglio at Constantinople, has been more than once stained with the heads of the victims, that were exposed on the outer balustrade, may prove that an aristocracy armed with republican laws, can be as sanguinary as a despotism armed with the Ottoman scimitar

^a 4 leagues S. W. of Padua, Vosgien.

^b Chief town of a delegation.



مسجد جامع
باصطخر



اصطخر

It requires a day to examine the interior of the edifice: colossal statues are placed on the staircase; the galleries are adorned with the masterpieces of Titian, Tintoretto, Paul Veronese, Corregio and Alberti; and the library consists of a hundred and fifty thousand volumes and a thousand manuscripts. Not the least valuable ornaments are several ancient statues of admirable workmanship.

Strangers admire the fine portal of St. Mary of Nazareth, the front of St. Jeremiah, which resembles a palace rather than a church, the peristyle of St. Simon, and the noble architecture of St. Roche. Almost all the theatres are called after some saint; St. Luke's is one of the largest; operas are acted in St. Benedict's; tragedies, comedies, and other dramatic compositions in St. Angelo; but the finest theatre in Venice, or that of St. Felix, was finished in 1793. Protected by these venerable names, the actors are not exposed to the same unjust prejudices which exist in other catholic countries.

The arsenal, including the dock-yards of Venice, formerly the most celebrated and the largest in Europe, was once filled with ships, materials for building, and all kinds of arms; the outer wall measures between two and three miles^a in circumference, and within these walls, during the republic, two thousand five hundred workmen were constantly employed; stillness and repose have now succeeded the noise and activity of commerce. Two white marble lions placed at the entrance of the arsenal towards the town, were also a conquest of the Venetians; they were transported from Athens. The port of Venice, although at present the most considerable in the Austrian empire, may in time be blocked up with the deposits of sand that are every day accumulating.

One may judge of what Venice has been by the number of its edifices and charitable institutions; thirty-six Catholic churches, two Greek churches, an Armenian church and a Lutheran chapel, seven synagogues, a foundling hospital, two lazarettos, and twenty-three hospitals, serve to recal its past splendour, and render its decay more apparent.

The artisans form at Venice several corporations, and each corporation maintains a school; the number of corporations amounts to sixteen or eighteen, and some of them meet in sumptuous buildings adorned with paintings and statues. It might be inferred from such institutions that the Venetians were better informed and more enlightened than any other people. Such, however, is by no means the case; they can only be said to be less ignorant than the other Italians.

The *gondolieri* are different from the other inhabitants;

they form a distinct population, and the cause may be attributed to the fraternity or union which subsists amongst them; but they are no longer gay sailors singing Venetian airs, or reciting the verses of Tasso; they have discovered in their simplicity that they are without a country. All these men can read and write, and the other workmen in the town can do the same; but the knowledge of the wealthier classes is not much more extensive.

The public libraries are ill attended, and the others^b are made up of novels and romances, so that with the exception of a few gifted persons, the rest are not better educated than the lower orders in the town that gave birth to Algarotti, Gasparo Gozzi, Goldoni, Fra Paolo, Bembo, and other great men. The Venetians have no taste for literature; music, however, appears to be a favourite amusement. According to their own confession, the wealthy classes pass their time in the following manner. "People of fashion rise at eleven or twelve o'clock, pay a few visits, and idle away their time till three, when they dine; they lie down in summer during one hour, at least, after dinner; they dress and go to the coffee-house or *casino* till nine, then to the opera, which is another *casino*, then to the coffee-house for an hour or two. They do not go to bed in summer before sunrise. Many of the most saving dine at the restaurateurs, and the price of their dinner varies from sixteen sous to two francs, or from eightpence to twentypence English money."^c Although there is a wide difference between the past and present state of Venice, it is still one of the greatest marts in Italy. It has its fabrics and manufactures, a chamber and a tribunal of commerce, an exchange and an insurance company. The last doges celebrated in the island of Malamocco, their marriage with the Adriatic, but Venice could hardly then be called a maritime power.

A town was built near the ancient queen of the Adriatic, on the island of Torcello, and its ruins announce that it was once an important city. The remains of a church enriched with mosaics and paintings, the ruins of a palace, once the residence of a barbarian conqueror, a marketplace and a throne raised above it, where Attila, king of the Huns, administered justice, still attract the curious to the island; the town itself has disappeared.

Reduced to the state of a chief town in an Austrian province, what power can prevent the ruin of Venice? Those who saw it forty years ago, can no longer recognise it; such changes have taken place in the capital, which had its navy in the sixth century, which protected Petrarch and encouraged the arts, when Europe was in the darkness of barbarism, and which during nine hundred years, was treated on equal terms with the greatest sovereigns.

^a "More than a league,"—2½ miles (Carter's Letters.)
VOL. III.—NO. 4

^b "Cabinets de lecture."

^c Simond's Travels in Italy.

BOOK CXXXIII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued—Description of Italy—Third Section—Sardinian Monarchy—Principality of Monaco.

THE kingdom of Sardinia consists of the island of the same name, divided into two provinces, and of eight divisions or intendancies, made up of forty small provinces, on the continent. The extent of the latter, from north to south, is about eighty-eight leagues, and the breadth about forty-six, forming a superficies of nearly two thousand three hundred square leagues.^a They are bounded on the north by the lake of Geneva and Switzerland, on the east by the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and the duchies of Parma and Massa, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by France.

The southern shores of Lake Lemman were inhabited by the *Nantuates*, a long time before the Christian era. The banks of the Doria were peopled by the *Salassi*, concerning whom Strabo has left us some particulars.^b According to that geographer, the greater part of their territory was situated in a deep valley—the valley of Aosta; he adds, that they were in possession of gold mines, but it appears more probable that they obtained the metal from washings in the alluvial lands, for he affirms that the *Duria*, the present Doria, supplied them with water for carrying on their works, but as by this means the river was often dried, it gave rise to violent contentions between them and their neighbours, who used the water for agricultural purposes. They made war and peace more than once with the Romans, but in their combats, their defiles and mountains were more serviceable to them than their armies. They were bold enough to impose a tax of a drachma on every soldier in the army of Decius Brutus, whilst he fled from Modena; and they made Messala pay for the firewood and trees necessary for his troops encamped in the neighbourhood. They pillaged on one occasion the imperial treasury, and under the pretext of working at the roads and bridges, they rolled large stones and rocks on the Roman legions. The revolts of the *Salassi* exasperated the Romans, and they were destroyed by Augustus; forty thousand were sold as slaves, and four thousand were incorporated in the prætorian guard. Three thousand Romans sent by Augustus, founded the town of *Augusta*,^c in the very place where Varro their conqueror had encamped with his army. The same town has given its name to the valley of Aosta.^d

The *Taurini* inhabited the country between the Alps, the Po, and the Doria; like the *Salassi* they were of Celtic

origin. The *Statielli*, concerning whom little is known, inhabited the right bank of the Tanaro; but the country on the west, at the foot of the Alps, belonged to a people that were called by the ancients, the *Vagienni*, *Vageni* or *Bageni*.^e The territory of the *Intemelii*, an inconsiderable tribe, extended from the southern side of the Alps to the sea. Lastly, the *Apuani* who derived their name from the town of *Apua*, the present Pontremoli, were settled on the southern side of the Appennines, in the country between Genoa and Spezia. The territories of the four last people made up the Roman province of *Liguria*; the others were included in the two Gauls.^f

The country near Lake Lemman was called Savoy (*Saupaudia*,^g) about the fifth century. It was governed at different times by Burgundian, French and Provençal princes;^h the emperor Conrad the Salic, erected it into a county, and made it over to Count Humbert. Different domains were successively added to it, and in the fifteenth century, it received the title of duchy from the emperor Sigismund.

The house of Savoy ranks among the oldest in Europe. But as its origin is involved in darkness, it is not surprising that genealogists have traced it to Witikind. That Saxon chief may be considered the Japhet of the princes in modern Europe; all claim him for their founder. The house of Savoy, sprung only from Humbert, who reigned in the eleventh century, might prove an antiquity of eight hundred years. Victor Amadeus the Second was the founder of the Sardinian kingdom; wearied with the cares of a throne, he abdicated in 1730 in favour of his son Charles Emmanuel, whose ingratitude brought his father to the grave. The reign of Charles Emmanuel was glorious, but in consequence of the influence which the French acquired from their conquests, his successors lost all their continental possessions, and the kingdom of Sardinia, confined within the limits of the island, did not recover its former rank, before the last treaties by which its continental possessions were restored.

The Sardinian language is not pure Italian; many Latin, Castilian, Greek, French and even German words are contained in it; that mixed language is most diffused in the island of Sardinia. Two very different dialects are spoken on the continent; the Savoyard, which according to M. Balbi,ⁱ offers many varieties, and the Vaudois which is spoken in Piedmont, particularly in the province of Pignerol.

^a Fr. measure.—Superficial extent of the continental Sardinian territories, 18,250 Eng. sq. miles. (Ed. Encyc.)

^b Strabo, Lib. iv. c. 6, sect. 5.

^c *Augusta Salassorum*, or *Augusta Prætoria*.

^d Avosta (Fr. *Avoste* or *Aoste*.)

^e Silius Italicus, l. viii.

^f Transalpine and Cisalpine Gaul, "*Gallia Viennensis* and *Gallia Cisalpina*."

^g Modern Latin, *Sabaudia*.

^h "It belonged successively to the Burgundian, French and Provençal sovereigns."

ⁱ Atlas ethnographique du globe.

The country is divided into twenty bishoprics and six archbishoprics; the Catholic is the established religion; all the rest are merely tolerated. Twenty-two thousand Vaudois,^a residing in the vallies of the Alps, who for at least twelve centuries have professed a worship analogous to the reformed religion, bear in silence the privation of their privileges as citizens. They are excluded from the learned professions; all the scientific or literary situations in the different colleges are shut against them; although a brave and a warlike people, they can never rise in the army. The Jews, still more unfortunate, cannot hold landed property, and have been obliged to give up the possessions which they had acquired under the French government. Confined in the towns, they are only permitted to exercise their industry in particular quarters, and are besides compelled to wear a badge by which they may be known. From these facts relative to the Protestants and the Jews, it may be easy to judge of the spirit that animates the Sardinian government, and the discontent that prevails among the different classes of a people, who were dissatisfied, and not without some cause, under the French government, but who have since been deprived of the advantages which they then enjoyed, without obtaining any redress for their grievances.

When the king of Sardinia was restored to his dominions, the congress at Vienna recommended, relatively to Genoa, something like a liberal government, or at all events the exclusion of an oppressive one. The French civil and commercial codes were retained, but they have been since so far changed that the records of births and marriages are restored to the clergy, and the ancient mode of hereditary succession is at present in full force.^b The penal code and the codes of civil and criminal procedure were set aside, and the old barbarous jurisprudence of Piedmont, (the torture excepted,) is at present the law of the land.

When the united sovereigns of Europe gave new territories to his Sardinian majesty, they stipulated that no new taxes should be raised without the consent of the people, made known by the assemblies in each district; yet new taxes have been levied, and these assemblies have never met. In short, the will of the king is the only law on which the rights and liberties of the people depend. He disposes of their effects by taxes, and of their persons by arbitrary imprisonment. The very attempt to emigrate without leave, is an offence corrigible by fine, confiscation, and even ignominious punishment. The judges appointed and revocable at pleasure, determine the costs of a suit, and as their salaries are very moderate, they do not administer, but sell justice. The prerogative of mercy, the brightest jewel in the crown, is subject to a tax, which has been denominated the *royal emolument*. As the sentence of a judge, says M. Simond, in civil as well as in criminal cases is sometimes set aside arbitrarily, so are private contracts between individuals, however legal, and testaments made in due form. An individual secretly accused may be taken up and kept in a dungeon for years, even for his whole life, without trial. When tried, it is in secret; he is not present at the examination of witnesses, he does not even know who they are; and, finally, the judges decide from the report made by one of them, (the *juge d'instruction*,) assisted by the recorder's clerk. There are no instances of an acquitted prisoner

being liberated without paying costs.^d As if it were not enough that the nobles in the county of Nice, in Piedmont and in Savoy, had recovered with other feudal rights, that of administering justice, the governors of provinces, in the plenitude of their authority, inflict corporal punishment on those under their jurisdiction, and sentence the people to remain hours, nay days, in the stocks. What more could be done at Constantinople?

The towns in the dutchy of Savoy are not important. Chamberry is more agreeable from its position, than remarkable for its buildings. Saint Jean de Maurienne, a small place, although the chief town in the province of Mariana or Maurienne, consists of ill built houses and dirty streets. The country in the neighbourhood of these two towns is picturesque, fruitful, and well cultivated; lofty mulberry trees, scattered in every direction, indicate that the inhabitants derive a great profit from their silk worms.

The stranger has hardly crossed the Arc, which descends from the Græcian Alps, before he observes the excellent road over Mount Cenis, by which he can now travel in a carriage across mountains, that at no very remote period were ascended by means of chairmen and mules. The *ramasse* is no longer used in descending from the highest point on the road to Lanslebourg; a journey of five miles can no longer be made in seven minutes; the traveller need not commit himself to the skill of a guide, whose feet acted as a helm in directing the light *ramasse* along the snow, and which by one false movement might be precipitated into an abyss. Another and less rapid declivity has been cut, and that part of the journey may be performed without danger. But the road over Mount Cenis cannot be compared with that across the Simplon.

In ascending the Doria, the traveller perceives a passage cut through the rocks, between Bard and Aosta, the magnificent work of the dukes of Savoy; farther to the north, at Aosta, may be seen the remains of Roman buildings, and a triumphal arch erected to Augustus. Beyond Mount Rosa, the admiration which was before attracted by the beauties of nature, is concentrated on one of the noblest monuments of human patience and industry. The road across the Simplon surpasses the greatest works of the Romans; it was not only necessary to blow up the rocks with gunpowder, but to excavate numerous galleries, in order to open a road through the mountains practicable for every sort of carriage. Hannibal and Bernard, the uncle of Charlemagne, had crossed the Alps before Napoleon, but a long period may elapse before any conqueror shall imitate him in the great undertaking by which Switzerland is forever united to Italy.

Lake Maggiore forms the limit of the Sardinian possessions; the road which descends from the Simplon, winds along it, and traverses the old and pleasant town of Novara, situated to the south of Oleggio, a place frequented by strangers for its mineral waters. Vercelli is interesting from its antiquities; a manuscript gospel of Saint Mark, written in the fourth century, is preserved in the cathedral. The Cimbri were cut to pieces by Marius in the plains near Vercelli.

Turin (It. *Torino*) is situated at the extremity of the plains of Lombardy, not far from the junction of the Po and the Doria, the latter a small river that has been some-

^a Waldenses.

^b "The sons inherit to the exclusion of the daughters."

^c "Provincial councils."

^d Simond's Travels in Italy.

times confounded with the one that waters the valley of Aosta.^a Turin is a very ancient capital; it was the principal city of the *Taurini*, as its name indicates. It consists of two parts, the old and the new; the one resembles any other ancient and Gothic town; the other has all the elegance of modern cities. But its broad and straight streets are dismal and deserted; they are only animated during festivals. Two large squares separate the old from the new town; the latter is perhaps cleaner than any other in Italy, an advantage which is secured by a great number of fountains that water and purify the streets in summer, and clear them of snow in winter. In order to effect the latter operation, the reservoir at the gate of Susa is opened for two hours, and a torrent rushes from it that carries away the snow and every sort of filth from the town.

A street, a mile^b in length, formed, like all the others in the new town, by houses built after the same model, and adorned with porticos, that afford shelter from the rain and the heat of the sun, leads to the royal castle. The palace is situated in the centre of a square, and surrounded by a moat; it is a sort of *Hermes* in architecture, exhibiting on one side a Gothic front, and on the other, the elegance of Grecian architecture.^c The staircase that leads to the interior of the building is finer than any in Italy, surpassing those at Caserta and in the *Palazzo Reale* at Naples. The number of churches and chapels at Turin amounts to a hundred and ten; the most admired of any is the church of San Lorenzo; the interior is covered with black marble, and several chains hanging down from the ceiling, formerly sustained lamps and candelabras of massive silver, which were taken away by the French; but the same people respected the *santo sudario* or winding sheet of our Saviour, an object of popular veneration. It is supposed to be a true relic, although Genoa possesses another, which is considered equally genuine. The great theatre^d at Turin was for a long time the finest in Italy; it served as a model for the one at Naples. The university is another building, not inferior in its kind to any in Turin; the entrance to it is formed by a large square court encompassed with arcades, and the walls are adorned with basso-relievos and ancient inscriptions.

Coni, although peopled by seventeen thousand inhabitants, contains little worthy of notice; it is situated on the banks of the Stura, to the south of Turin. It was formerly a place of great strength, but was dismantled by the French after the battle of Marengo. Casal, situated on the Po to the east of Turin, is not more interesting than the preceding; it contains an equal number of inhabitants, but its public buildings are more numerous. The fine road which leads to Genoa, passes through Asti, formerly celebrated in the country for its hundred towers, as Thebes was in ancient times for its hundred gates. But its old walls are now falling in ruins, and its population is rapidly decreasing; although in superficial extent, nearly equal to Turin, it does not contain more than twenty-two thousand souls. The inconsiderable trade of Asti is confined to white and red wines, which are said to be better than any others

in Piedmont. Alba Pompeia,^e at some leagues to the south-west of Asti, was embellished by the father of the great Pompey; it is known too as the birthplace of the emperor Pertinax. The road from Asti follows the windings of the Tanaro, and leads to Alexandria. When seen at a distance, Alexandria (It. *Alessandria*) resembles a village in the midst of a plain. Although a gloomy town, consisting of brick houses, it is one of the strongest places in Italy. It owes its origin to the quarrels between the popes and the emperors in the twelfth century; it was founded in honour of Alexander the Third, and bore for a long time the name of *Alessandria della paglia*, because its houses were at first covered with straw. A road extends to the north-east from Alexandria, and leads to Tortona and Voghera. The first, formerly a large and populous town, has now only eight thousand inhabitants; the second contains ten thousand, and is adorned with a fine cathedral of Grecian architecture.

The country assumes a new aspect at the division of the roads to Tortona and Genoa, or at the entrance into the Appennines; the road to the latter winds through a narrow passage, at one place shaded with forests, at another lined with solitary meadows; the habitations of men become gradually more rare, and at last disappear before the stranger reaches the defile of the Bocchetta. On passing the defile, Genoa appears at the base of the mountains, and the Mediterranean is lost in the horizon. It often happens that the Mediterranean is confounded with the mists which cover the country; but in fine weather, its surface, as brilliant as crystal, assumes the azure tint of the sky.

Genoa may be seen to the greatest advantage from the sea; it rises in the form of a semicircle more than three thousand six hundred yards in length;^f two gigantic moles defend the entrance of the port; at one extremity, on the point of a rock, rises a lighthouse of stupendous proportions. The town is encompassed in a circuit of eight miles,^g with a double range of fortifications, that are celebrated from the siege that Massena sustained against the Austrians in 1800, and from the courageous resistance of the inhabitants, who endured for a period of fifty-nine days all the privations of famine. The interior of the town consists of very steep and narrow streets between lofty palaces: many of them are covered in the middle with a brick causeway two or three feet wide, for the convenience of mules and porters, for carts cannot ascend them. Two streets, Balbi and the New Street,^h are accessible to carriages; on both sides of the former are the most magnificent palaces in Genoa. The flat roofs are adorned with shrubs and trees, among which are orange trees twenty-five feet high, rising from a bed of earth several feet deep, conveyed to the roofs, and supported on arches; fountains play among these artificial groves, and keep up their verdure and shade during the heat of summer. The finest edifices are the palaces belonging to the families of Durazzo, Spinola, Doria, Brignole and Serra, the ancient ducal palace and some churches and convents. Among the latter, the church of Santa Maria di Carignano is a building of elegant architecture, and although the inside of

^a These two rivers are the Doria Riparia or Greater Doria (*Duria major*), which flows by Turin, and the Doria Baltea or Lesser Doria (*Duria minor*), which waters the valley of Aosta.—P.

^b "Half a league."

^c The palace consists of two parts, the old ducal palace or royal castle (*Castello Reale*), and the royal palace (*Palazzo Reale*).—P.

^d The Granl Opera.

^e Ancient name, *Alba Pompeia*; modern name, Alba.

^f "1800 toises."

^g "4 leagues."—Genoa is surrounded by two ramparts, one of which incloses the town, and is about six miles in circuit, and the other, which forms a circumference of thirteen miles, is carried round the hills which command the city. (Ed. Encyc.)

^h Strada Balbi and Strada Nuova. The Strada Balbi, Strada Nuova and Strada Nuovissima form one connected street, leading through nearly the whole extent of the city.—P.

the Annunziata is loaded with gilt ornaments, the stranger may regret that its front is still unfinished. The church of San Cyro is adorned with fresco paintings, and the Gothic cathedral is covered on the inside and outside with marble of different colours. There are besides three well built hospitals; one of them, the *Albergo dei Poveri* is a model in its kind; it affords the means of subsistence to fifteen hundred individuals of every age, and the young are instructed in different trades. The theatres in Genoa cannot be compared with others in many parts of Italy. The only public walks are the walls of the port, the alleys of *Acqua Verde*, and the fine bridge of *Carignano*, which is not less than a hundred feet in height; it rises above houses of six stories, and unites two elevated parts of the town.

The exchange where the noble merchants of Genoa formerly assembled to carry on their mighty trade, has lost much of its activity, although Genoa has been declared a free port; still the appearance of decay is less obvious than at Venice. Genoa was so powerful from its commerce in the time of the Carthaginians, that it excited the jealousy of that people, by whom it was reduced to ashes. Rebuilt by the Romans, it repaired the losses which it sustained at a later period by the invasions of the Huns, the Goths and the Heruli, and afterwards by the conquests of the Lombards and of Charlemagne. The famous bank of *St. George*, the earliest in any commercial town, was established at Genoa in the twelfth century.^a The rival of Venice in the thirteenth century, it possessed *Pera*, a suburb of Constantinople. Having become the capital of a powerful republic, it preserved longer than Venice the primitive form of its government, and although repeatedly forced to implore foreign protection against civil commotions, the love of independence was always the cause of its glory and success. It was from convenience, not from compulsion, that it ceded *Corsica* to *Lewis the Fifteenth*. It retained its independence till 1798, when, under the name of the *Ligurian republic*, it received a constitution from republican France; but under the empire, Genoa and its territory were changed into a department. It is difficult to recal these recollections, and not to regret that at the time when so many states claimed and obtained their independence, Genoa was not restored to its ancient freedom.

The lower orders in Genoa are civil and obliging; the nobles, unlike those of *Turin*, are neither distinguished by powdered wigs, gold-headed canes, and a proportionable degree of pomp and solemnity, nor by that sort of etiquette which prevailed in France before the revolution; on the contrary, they are remarkable for the frankness and simplicity of their manners, advantages which must, without doubt, be attributed to their commercial pursuits. The women wear the *mezzaro*, a long white veil, half covering the face, and gracefully thrown round the person; it descends nearly to the feet, but does not conceal light shoes and white silk stockings. All the women in the upper classes have their *cavalieri serventi*, a custom considered scandalous in other countries, but so common in Genoa, that it is adopted by many persons who are irreproachable on the score of morals. The love of the arts, the culture of the

mind, and a certain freedom of opinion, distinguish the Genoese from the southern Italians. The inhabitants long accustomed to commerce, still excel in some departments of industry. Genoa has its silk, velvet, and gold lace manufactories; its jewels, perfumes and artificial flowers are so many articles of exportation. As to the products of the soil, the oils of Genoa are more valuable than its wines.

The eastern coast of the gulf of Genoa has been long called the *Riviera del Levante*.^b *Spezia*, the principal port on that coast, contains six thousand inhabitants. *Savona* on the opposite coast or the *Riviera del Ponente*,^c is twice as populous; it possesses a considerable trade in potash and in the produce of its earthen and porcelain works, but its commerce might be much increased, if the harbour, which is now useless, was rebuilt.^d The town of *Nice*, situated on the same coast, the capital of a province and a bishopric, possesses a finer climate than any other in Italy; the winters are not accompanied with frost, and many strangers, particularly English, are attracted to it by the mildness of its temperature.

The small town of *Monaco*, at two leagues to the east of *Nice*, is peopled by eleven hundred inhabitants. It stands on a rock which braves the fury of the billows, and on the site of an ancient temple erected to *Hercules Monœcus*;^e its territory, which has been styled a principality since the tenth century, is governed by the family of *Grimaldi*, under the protection of his Sardinian majesty.

The island of *Sardinia*, or according to its Greek name, *Sardon*, belonged to the Carthaginians at the period of their first war with the Romans, by whom they were expelled from the island, which became one of the *Roman granaries*; not long afterwards *Corsica* and *Sardinia* formed a single province. While governed by the masters of the world, its population was greater than at present; it then contained forty-two towns, but not more than ten which merit the name, can now be enumerated. The Vandals having made themselves masters of Spain and the coasts of Africa, took possession of *Sardinia* in the seventh century. The Pisans and the Genoese succeeded them in the eleventh; two hundred years afterwards, the popes, who seldom neglected an opportunity of adding to their temporal dominions, endeavoured to unite the island to the territories of the church, and the Pisans were twice constrained to submit. *James the Second*, king of *Arragon*, made himself master of *Sardinia* in the fourteenth century, and it continued under the government of Spain until the year 1708, when the English took possession of it in the name of the emperor of Germany, who gave it up to the duke of *Savoy*, in exchange for *Sicily*.

The Sardinians remained in a state of barbarism after the middle ages, but comparatively at a late period, and under the paternal government of *Savoy*, they have been made to participate in the light of knowledge, and in the benefits of civilization. The arts and sciences are now flourishing, and the house of *Savoy* cannot be ignorant that the present prosperity and improved condition of the inhabitants, are the result of their wise and enlightened measures. The misfortunes of the reigning family have per-

^a The Bank of *St. George* was first regularly incorporated in 1107. Previous to that time, the republic borrowed large sums of money from the citizens, assigning certain branches of the revenue for the payment of interest; and a Board of Management was appointed to conduct the loans, pay the interest and account to government for the funds entrusted to their care. From this circumstance, the Genoese claim the merit of establishing a bank as early as the Venetians. The Bank of *Venice*, the first re-

gularly incorporated bank, was established about the middle of the twelfth century. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^b Eastern Shore.

^c Western Shore.

^d "If the harbour, which has long been filled up, was cleared." It was partly filled up by the Genoese, in order to transfer its commerce to Genoa.—P.

^e *Virgil. Æneid. Lib. vi. v. 830.*

haps contributed to produce these good effects; the conquests of the French deprived them of their other possessions, and the progress of improvement was most rapid when the princes resided in the island.

The inhabitants had for a long time little intercourse with the other Italians; they may still be distinguished from them. The Sardinian is strong, lively, and courageous even to rashness; of quick passions, he is ardent in his affections, and violent in his hatred. Fond of the marvellous from his habits or state of civilization, endowed with a vivid imagination, and prone to enthusiasm, these qualities account for his devotion to poetry and the fine arts.

Cagliari, the capital, stands on the declivity of a steep hill, at the bottom of a gulf on the southern side of the island; a strong castle built by the Pisans rises above it. The population amounts to twenty-eight thousand inhabitants; it is the residence of the viceroy and the principal authorities. The houses are ill built and the streets are narrow and crooked. The palace of the viceroy is the only building worthy of notice; among the others are a cathedral, thirty-eight churches, twenty-one convents, a university, a college for nobles, a mint and a theatre. Among the useful

institutions may be mentioned schools of medicine and mathematics, a library, museums of antiquities and natural history, and different hospitals. The town was founded by the Carthaginians, and still carries on a considerable commerce; the products of its territory are corn, oil, wine, cotton, and indigo. Sassari, the town next to it in importance, is situated in a fine valley on the northwest of the island, and contains fifteen thousand inhabitants. Oristano, a town near the gulf of the same name on the western coast, contains six thousand inhabitants; it carries on a great trade in tunny, a fish which abounds in that part of the Mediterranean. Bosa, a small port at the mouth of the Terno, on the same side of the island, possesses an ancient cathedral and several convents; the walls which encompassed the town, are now in ruins; it is peopled by five thousand souls. Alghero,^a on the same coast, carries on a greater trade in corn than any other place in Sardinia. The population amounts to seven thousand inhabitants; its port cannot admit large vessels, but the spacious and fortified harbour of Porto-Conte, at two miles^b to the east, might contain several fleets.

^a Algheri.

^b "A league."

BOOK CXXXIV.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Description of Italy.—Fourth Section.

—*Dutchies of Parma, Modena, Massa and Lucca.—Grand Dutchy of Tuscany.—Republic of San Marino.*

THE country which forms the subject of the present and of the following book, is divided into a greater number of small states than any other part of Italy. Seven independent states occupy a surface of three thousand nine hundred and seventy square leagues, and, without including the Roman territory, they are the most important from the wealth and industry of their inhabitants.

In ancient times these states comprehended Southern Cisalpine Gaul, Etruria, Umbria, Picenum, and Latium. The *Anamani*, a people of uncertain origin, but who were probably Celtic, inhabited almost all the territory in the dutchy of Parma; their limits were the Po on the north, the Trebia on the west, and the Parma on the east. The *Lingones* to the south of the Po, and the *Boii* on the northern declivities of the Appennines, the latter a tribe of the same origin as the people that have been mentioned in the account of Bohemia, were settled in the territories of Modena, Bologna, and Ferrara. The western declivities of the Appennines in Etruria, were peopled by the *Magelli* and the *Ligures*, tribes that in their customs resembled the Gauls. On the shores of the Adriatic, the *Senones*, a tribe of the Gauls, settled in the country near the present republic of San Marino, about four centuries before the Christian era. They were celebrated for the part they took in the expedition of the Gauls against Rome, in which they were defeated by Camillus. The *Piceni*^a inhabited the declivities of the Appennines, which form the present territories of Ancona, Macerata and Ascoli; they were Sabines by origin. Their country was called *Picenum* from the great quantity of mineral pitch which it contained. *Umbria*, situated on the western side of the Appennines, between the Tiber and the Nera, a feeder of the same river, was inhabited by a people sprung from the Gauls. According to Count de Gebelin, the Sabines,^b their neighbours, derived their name from the Celtic word *sab*, which signifies high or elevated; they occupied indeed the declivities and summits of the Appennines. Ancient writers mention the Sabines in the most favourable terms; they were frank, generous and valiant; their women were modest and virtuous; their marriages, says Mentelle, were civil obligations, entered into in the name of the state; a very extraordinary fact, as in ancient times, religious ceremonies were the bases of social contracts. The power of the Sabines is

proved by the early history of Rome; the *Hernici*, the *Lucani*, the *Samnites* and the *Brutii* were colonies of the same people. Before their country was conquered by the Romans, their simple and metaphysical worship was exempt from the corruption which characterized polytheism. The territory between the mouth of the Tiber and that of the Tolerio or the ancient *Liris*,^c was called *Latium*; it extended eastward to the lake *Lucrino*.^d The inhabitants, or the *Latini*, were the descendants of Pelasgians that migrated from Thessaly, and of another people concerning whose origin so little was known, that they were termed *Aborigines*.^e

When Charlemagne carried his victorious arms into Italy, he made himself master of Parma and Placentia; but it is not proved that he gave them to the Holy Sec, and it is equally uncertain that Parma derives its name from the *parma* or round buckler worn by the *Anamani*. But whether it was the effect of policy or of the influence which knowledge and religion gave the popes over ignorant and superstitious princes, Rome continued long in possession of these two towns. They became republics at a later period; but civil divisions and the quarrels between the Guelphs and Ghibelines were the means of transferring them successively to the Corregios, the Scaligers, the Viscontis, the Sforzas and the popes. When Julius the Second, one of the most intriguing pontiffs, had formed the great league of kings against France in 1512, he made himself be invested in the possession of Parma and Placentia by the emperor Maximilian. Paul the Third made them over in 1547 to his son Lewis Farnese, who was assassinated two years afterwards, but his descendants enjoyed them until Elizabeth Farnese, the heiress of the family, married Philip the Fifth, king of Spain, and brought these two dutchies as her dowry to the house of Bourbon. The Infants Don Carlos and Don Philip, and the son of the latter, governed them in succession, but in 1805 the two dutchies were united to the French empire, and formed the department of the Taro. They were made over in 1814 by the Congress at Vienna, to the Archduchess Maria Louisa during her life; the inheritance is vested after her death, in the Lucchese princes of the house of Bourbon Anjou, and their successors.

The states of Parma consist of the dutchy of the same name, and two others, Placentia and Guastalla; they are bounded on the north by the Po, on the east by the dutchy of Modena, and on the south and the west by the dutchy of Massa and the Sardinian possessions. Parma, the capital the largest town in the dutchy, is situated on the banks of the

^a " *Picentes*."

^b *Sabini*.

^c The modern Garigliano is generally supposed to be the ancient *Liris*.—P.

^d *Lucrino*, in the original. Qu. *Fucino*, (see note ^e, p. 762.) The Lucrine lake was in Campania on the bay of Naples.—P.

^e " Its inhabitants, the *Latini*, were a mixed people, descended from a colony of Pelasgians from Thessaly, blended with a people whose origin was so uncertain that they were called *Aborigines*."

Parma, a torrent that is dry in summer. The old walls and bastions form a circuit of four miles; the streets and squares are spacious, but neither the houses nor public buildings are remarkable for their architecture. The cathedral is a Gothic and imposing edifice; the palaces and other churches are simple and destitute of ornaments, but worthy of being visited from the valuable paintings contained in them. The old Farnese palace, built of brick, resembles a convent rather than the residence of a prince. In the same edifice are the academy of fine arts, the library, and the largest theatre in Italy, the masterpiece of Vignola, admirable on account of its architecture, and the fine proportion of its parts. It is capable of containing 9000 spectators,^a and the interior is so well arranged that the stage is equally visible from every point in the theatre, and an actor speaking in a low tone of voice is heard at the remotest corner of the house. It may be regretted that so fine an edifice has not been used for more than a century; another theatre of smaller dimensions is situated in a different part of the town. A plain building behind the Farnese palace, is the residence of Maria Louisa; in one of the rooms may be seen the cradle of her son, and the toilet and costly furniture, which the city of Paris gave to the wife of Napoleon. Parma has been improved by the same person. Before the year 1822, there was no cemetery belonging to the town; the dead were interred in the churches, and the church of *San Giovanni Decollato* was reserved for criminals. Physicians were aware that the custom had been injurious to the health of the inhabitants, and it was abolished by the reigning princes; a large piece of ground without the walls of the town has been converted into a cemetery. Parma possesses five charitable institutions and a foundling hospital established in 1818 by the archduchess; the management of the latter is committed to a director and to five ladies, one of whom must visit it every day.

Guastalla, the metropolis of an ancient duchy, contains little worthy of notice. Placentia,^b like Parma, is encompassed with walls and ditches, but it is a better built town, and possesses numerous palaces. The ducal palace, although a brick building, still serves to proclaim the wealth of the Farnese, and the talents of Vignola, who planned it. Other edifices may attract the notice of strangers; but, like Versailles, Placentia consists of broad, straight and deserted streets, in many places not unlike roads.^c The square of the palace is decorated with two bronze equestrian statues, representing princes of the Farnese family. It has been supposed that the town owes its name to its fine situation and salubrious air. Two centuries before the Christian era, it was one of the principal cities of the Roman republic; but no traces of its antiquity remain; it was devastated during the war between Otho and Vitellius. It sustained a memorable siege against Totila in the year 545; the inhabitants suffered so much from famine, that they appeased their hunger with human flesh. The same town has given birth to several distinguished men; among others, to Ferrante Pallavicini, an ecclesiastic of the seventeenth century, not less celebrated for his writings than his tragical death, in which Rome had some share;^d to Lorenzo Valla, who contributed in the fifteenth century to restore the Latin language to its ancient purity in Italy; to Gregory

the Tenth, who ordained that on the death of a pope, the cardinals should be confined in conclave until the election of his successor; and lastly, to cardinal Alberoni, who has been termed the Richelieu of Spain.

The burgh of Campre-Moldo is the Campo Morto, near which Hannibal defeated the Romans at the battle of the Trebia. The remains of *Veleia*, a town that appears to have been destroyed by an earthquake, were discovered in the year 1760; they are covered with stones and earth to the depth of more than twenty feet. The great quantity of bones, medals, and other valuable articles which have been from time to time discovered, indicate that the inhabitants, like those of Herculaneum, had not time to escape, but were engulfed with their riches. *Veleia* was the metropolis of more than thirty towns and burghs, of which the names inscribed on a bronze table, still preserved in Parma, resemble the names of many villages in the neighbourhood.

The commerce of Parma is inconsiderable; its manufactures consist of silk, lace, and different liqueurs. Rice and silk are the principal products of the duchy. Workmen collect annually near Salzo Maggiore, at ten leagues to the south of the capital, three hundred thousand hundred weights^e of salt, which form nearly two thirds of the consumption. The petroleum oil, used by the inhabitants, is obtained in great quantities from the same salt springs.

The duchy of Modena, situated between the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, the duchies of Parma and Lucca, and the States of the Church, is about thirty leagues in length and fourteen in breadth. This state, after having belonged to the emperors, the popes, the Venetians, the dukes of Milan, Mantua and Ferrara, and other princes, was added in the thirteenth century to the possessions of the house of Este, that reigned at Ferrara. It was united to the Cisalpine republic in 1796, and formed afterwards a part of the kingdom of Italy. But the archduke Francis, who succeeded by right of his mother to the ancient duchy, took possession of it in 1814.

Modena, an agreeable and well built town, of which the streets are adorned with arcades, contains no remarkable edifice except the vast ducal palace, which stands isolated in a large square. It gave birth to Gabriel Fallopius, one of the most distinguished anatomists of the sixteenth century, and it has contributed to the advancement of science by the labors of its scientific society.^f

Reggio, the ancient *Regium*, which was ruined by the Goths, and rebuilt by Charlemagne, was joined to the dominions of the house of Este, after having been long governed by its own magistrates. It was formerly the chief town in a duchy, of which the title was restored by Napoleon, and conferred on one of his bravest generals. The fortifications are not more important than those of Modena, but the town is well built, and contains a great number of convents; it carries on a trade in silk. Reggio was the birthplace of Ariosto. The country between Modena and Reggio, is pleasant and fruitful; the hills in the neighbourhood are covered with country houses, and vines entwined round fruit trees. The small town of Mirandola, in the northern part of the duchy, was governed by a prince, who at an early age was a prodigy of erudition, and who

^a 10,000, (Ed. Encey.)

^b It. *Piacenza*.

^c "The principal street rather resembles a road than a street."

^d i. e. The Papal government. He was beheaded at Avignon, 1643, by sentence of the inquisition.—P.

^e "30,000 quintals."

^f The Italian Society of Sciences, instituted by Chevalier Lorgna of Verona.—P.

afterwards renounced his principality to devote himself to the sciences.

The dutchy of Massa does not exceed fifteen square leagues in superficial extent ; it is bounded by the Mediterranean, the Sardinian states, and the dutchies of Modena and Lucca ; although a very small district, it is perhaps the finest part of Italy. No valley can be more romantic than that of the *Fiume Frigido*, a stream descending from the mountains, and enlarged by melted snow, forming several water-falls in the higher or narrow part of the valley, shaded by lofty trees, that add to the coolness and freshness of the air even in the midst of summer. But towards its other extremity, the valley becomes broader, and the view from it more extensive ; in spring, when the heat of the sun begins to dry the plains, the snow and the verdure of the meadows, when seen from a distance, form long streaks on the sides of the mountains.

This dutchy depended formerly on that of Modena, but its territory was added to the principality of Lucca and Piombino, which Eliza Bacciochi, the sister of Napoleon, governed in the time of the empire. It was anew made a dutchy in 1814, and restored to the archduchess Maria Beatrice, after whose death it reverts to her son, the Duke of Modena.

The small town of Massa is finely situated in a plain at no great distance from the Mediterranean. The ruins of the cathedral serve to recal an unjust act of power, committed by the last princess, whose government has rendered her dear to the people, but who was not free from the faults to which persons are liable, that rise suddenly from low to high stations. Eliza Bacciochi thought the cathedral too near the palace ; chanting was apt to make her melancholy, and the smell of frankincense made her cough ; for these reasons the venerable building was demolished, although the inhabitants were clamorous, and the magistrates remonstrated.

The small town of Carrara derives its importance from inexhaustible marble quarries, that have been worked for a period of more than two thousand years. The neighbouring mountains are almost wholly composed of marble, to the height of about twelve hundred feet,^a and over an extent of not less than two leagues. The marble does not form beds ; the finest and the whitest sort is united with the kind that the inhabitants use in building their houses. More than twelve hundred men are employed in working the quarries, and the duty levied on the exports from them, makes up a tenth part of the public revenue.

The dutchy of Lucca, situated between the dutchy of Massa and the grand dutchy of Tuscany, was changed into a republic after the death of the countess Matilda in 1115 ; it continued however more or less subject to the emperors, and Lewis of Bavaria erected it anew into a dutchy about the year 1316. Its government was often changed ; but it preserved its freedom from the fifteenth century to the period when it was united to the states of Eliza Bacciochi. It was granted as an indemnity to the ducal family of Parma in 1815, to be afterwards annexed to the grand dutchy of Tuscany.

The Lucchese are one of the most industrious people in Italy, as the state of their agriculture, their trade in olive oil, and their velvet and silk manufactures, sufficiently

evinced. Probity is always the companion of industry, and the honesty of the Lucchese peasants has been commended by many travellers.

The town of Lucca is watered by the Serchio ; it has its ramparts and palaces, but the ramparts are slight fortifications, and the strong walled palaces with their grated windows might be mistaken for prisons. The ramparts are adorned with lofty trees, and form agreeable walks ; the pointed roofs of the houses, and the irregular and tortuous but well paved streets, render Lucca more like a northern than an Italian city. All the churches are too profusely streaked or adorned with different coloured marble. The celebrated baths in the neighbourhood are much frequented ; their temperature is about 45° of Reaumur.

The grand dutchy of Tuscany forms the most important principality in Italy ; it is bounded by the dutchies of Lucca and Modena, the States of the Church, and the Mediterranean. Although the climate is unwholesome, particularly in the part near the sea, Tuscany is noted for its fruitful soil and romantic scenery. The wines of the same country are valuable ; the red resembles Claret, and the white is more delicate than Sauterne. But the labours of the husbandman are sometimes destroyed by winds and inundations, and the burning Sirocco exerts too often its fatal influence.

The Maremma, a territory so called from its vicinity to the sea, is the most unhealthy region in Tuscany, and one not less remarkable for its pestilential humidity, than the other districts for their fertility and for their fine and diversified scenery, of which the description has been given by Addison. The Maremma extends over a space of forty-three leagues in length, to the neighbourhood of Sienna, Pisa and Leghorn. It is equal in superficial extent to sixteen or seventeen hundred English square miles ; the present population does not exceed forty persons for every square mile ; but before the country was conquered by the Romans, it was the most populous region in Italy, for in the Maremma were situated the Etruscan towns of *Rosella*, *Saturnia*, *Populonia*, *Cossa*, and *Ancedonia*, of which walls, baths, amphitheatres and other ancient monuments still remain.^b But the country and the towns have been desolated by the depredations of the Romans, and the successive invasions of barbarians. Destitute of inhabitants, the Maremma is covered with wood, and the waters which an industrious population confined in canals, have formed numerous marshes, and their exhalations occasion dangerous diseases. Before the Etrusci or Rhasenæ were settled in the Maremma, the land was probably in the same state as at present, but they surmounted the obstacles arising from the insalubrity of the soil, and the country became flourishing. Colonies of Greeks, perhaps Egyptians, were settled in the Maremma ; the emperor Claudius had his country houses and gardens in the same region, which was well adapted for the vine and different fruit trees. Every thing like agricultural wealth has now disappeared, and the stranger observes only the wretched cottages of a few peasants^c in the places where a numerous and industrious population devoted themselves to agriculture. The dukes of Tuscany made several vain attempts to repeople these marshy districts. Cosmo the Third introduced a colony of Mainotes^d from the Peloponnesus, but in a short time they were destroyed by

^a " 200 toises."

^b Mémoire de M. Thaon, sur les moyens propres à encourager la culture dans la Maremma. (Florence, 1826.)

VOL. III.—NO. 45.

^c " Shepherds."

^d " Maniottes."

the effects of the climate; colonists from Lorraine were afterwards invited, and they shared the same fate. Much remains to be done before the soil can be rendered useful for agriculture; skilful men must be consulted on the best method of checking the fatal effects of pestilential exhalations; the soil must be drained by government, and experienced agriculturists must determine the plants best adapted for the climate, or the most likely to repay the husbandman for his expenses and labour.

Tuscany was conquered by the Goths in the sixth century, and they kept possession of it during sixty years. Alboin, king of the Lombards, having defeated them, erected the country into a dutchy, and made it a fief dependent on his crown. Charlemagne having conquered Lombardy, appointed counts, who were afterwards entitled marquises, over the dutchy; they were vassals of the empire. The cities in Tuscany retained their prosperity for a long time; they were governed by magistrates appointed by the citizens. Rome, in order to weaken the imperial power, induced these towns to enter into a league similar to the one formed by the towns of Lombardy. The execution of the plan was reserved for Innocent the Third, and the *honour and aggrandisement of the apostolic see*, became the watchword of citizens, who were long faithful to their engagements.^a Pisa, Sienna and Florence were the most important of these republics, and their chiefs were styled *Gonfalonieri*. They had amassed considerable wealth by commerce in the fourteenth century, but as if states that acquire power by usurpation, were destined to submit to usurpers in their turn, Florence, having taken possession of Pisa unjustly, was punished by becoming the domain of the Medici, a family that by fortunate speculations had become the most wealthy in the town. Alexander di Medici was made duke of Florence in 1531 by the interest of Charles the Fifth, and his son obtained from the pope and the emperor, the title of grand duke. After the extinction of the Medici in 1737, the grand dutchy passed to the duke of Lorraine, who ceded that province to France. The same duke was raised to the imperial throne, and his son was appointed his successor in Italy. But the house of Lorraine was deprived of the dutchy by Napoleon, who gave it to his sister Eliza.^b Latly, the archduke was restored to his dominions in 1814, and Elba was added to his states in the following year.

The two principal streams in Tuscany are the Ombrone and the Arno, both of which throw themselves into the sea. The Arno, enlarged by several smaller streams, may be considered a river; it made formerly a long circuit, but its course has been shortened and confined by dikes, and the lands which it inundated are now cultivated. The valley of the Arno,^c in the Appennines, from which the river takes its rise, was in the time of the Florentine and Pisan republics, embellished with the country houses of wealthy merchants; in the same valley, at present peopled by workmen, are manufactured the lined stuffs that form an important article in the commerce of Tuscany, and also the straw hats well known as Leghorn hats, from the name of the port whence they are shipped to all parts of the world.

The Arno traverses Pisa at the distance of about a league from its mouth.^d The town is one of the most ancient in Italy; the streets are broad and well paved. The cathed-

ral, a Gothic edifice, is built of marble; three bronze gates adorn the portal, and seventy-four columns, sixty-two of which are of oriental granite, support the roof. The interior, it must be admitted, is rather gloomy; an old chandelier of rusty metal hangs from the vault. Galileo happened to be in the church, when a workman carrying a ladder, struck the chandelier by accident, and its swinging motion suggested to the philosopher the first notion of the pendulum. The first pendulum clock constructed by Galileo, is still preserved at Pisa. The *Baptistry* is a church reserved for baptisms; its Gothic vault is so sonorous as to produce several effects which guides never fail to indicate to strangers; if the floor or pavement be struck, it resounds for a long time; if a person speaks in a loud voice, an echo repeats several syllables, or if he speaks in a whisper in any corner of the church, he is distinctly heard at the opposite extremity. The *Campanile Torto*, or leaning tower, has been considered the most singular edifice in Pisa. Beautiful columns of white marble rise from its base, and support six tiers of arcades, surmounted by a tower of smaller diameter than the base.^e The height of the tower is not less than a hundred and ninety feet, and the inclination from the ground to the summit, about fifteen feet from the perpendicular. At the sight of so singular a monument, it is difficult to decide whether it was the original intention of the architect to construct it with so great an inclination, or whether, as many professional persons suppose, it may be attributed to the sinking of the ground. Not far from the leaning tower, the cicerones show with veneration the *Campo Santo*, a rectangular court of vast size, surrounded with a sort of Gothic arcade, the walls of which are painted in fresco. It was constructed in the thirteenth century for the purpose of securing an enormous heap of earth, brought from the Holy Land by the Pisans after the third crusade; it is said to be nine feet deep, and as the extent of *Campo Santo* is rather more than two English acres,^f it must have required fifty ships of three hundred tons burthen, and perhaps three times that number of such vessels as were then in use, to transport so great a mass of sanctified mould.^g It is believed that the bodies which are buried in it, are very speedily consumed; the time formerly required, was said to be less than twenty-four hours; the Pisans themselves admit that it takes at present more than two days; their calculations are in all probability incorrect; such miracles must be confirmed by undoubted experiments.

Florence (It. *Firenze*) rises on the banks of the Arno, at a greater distance from its mouth than Pisa. Four bridges are built across the river, and these communicate with four quarters, two leagues in circumference, and three thousand yards^h in length. Florence, if it may be so said, was the cradle of the arts at the time of their regeneration, and the numerous objects of art still contained in the same place render it one of the most remarkable cities in Europe. Michael Angelo thought it impossible for an architect to raise a finer building than the cathedral; an isolated tower at no great distance serves as its belfry, and Charles the Fifth was so much pleased with its finished elegance, that he said it ought to be kept in a glass-case,ⁱ in order to defend it from the wind and the atmosphere. The three bronze gates of the Baptistry are wrought with so much art,

^a Muratori, Dissertatio 48, tom. iv. p. 320.

^b Decrets des 2 et 6 Mars, 1809.

^c Val d'Arno.

^d About five miles from the sea. Ed. Encyc.

^e It consists of eight stories, all of which, except the uppermost, are surrounded with open galleries, composed of pillars and arches.—P.

^f "10,000 square feet."

^g Simond's Travels in Italy.

^h "1500 toises."

ⁱ "Etuï."

that Michael Angelo thought them worthy of being placed at the entrance into paradise. The royal chapel or the tomb of the Medici, begun about three centuries ago, and not likely to be ever finished, is one of the most curious works in Italy; jasper, lapis lazuli, granite, porphyry, alabaster, and the rarest marbles, are collected in such profusion, that it resembles not so much a sepulchral monument as a magnificent mosaic. The church of Santa Croce, a brick building originally intended to be covered with marble, contains the ashes of many illustrious men. The tomb of Michael Angelo supports his own bust by himself; that of Vittorio Alfieri was sculptured by Canova; there too are the remains of Galileo, Aretino and Macchiavelli, the last of whom is represented weighing a sword and a roll of paper in a balance.

The *Poggio Imperiale*, and the *Ricardi*, *Strozzi*, *Corsini* and *Gerini* palaces, are worthy of being described, but it would be necessary to enter into details incompatible with our limits. The ducal palace, called *Palazzo Pitti* from the name of the person who built it in the year 1460, exhibits a character of solidity which promises ages of duration. It consists of three lofty stories divided into nine hundred apartments. Many of them, carved and gilt all over, are furnished in the most costly manner. In one suite are contained a valuable collection of paintings and a number of Florentine mosaic tables, differing from the other mosaics in Italy, by the large pieces of which they are formed. The labour required in these works is hardly credible; fifteen, twenty, and twenty-five years have been spent by a set of artists working together to finish a single table.^a The famous Venus of Canova decorates one of the halls, and the palace communicates with the Florentine gallery by a passage six hundred paces in length. A stranger may there judge of the former magnificence of the Medici; he may admire the Venus that bears their name, other ancient statues which were long the principal ornaments of the Louvre, and several *chefs d'œuvre* by the greatest Italian painters. The Boboli gardens adjoining the palace are in the taste transmitted to us by the ancients; they are praised by the Italians, who admire rectangular walks flanked with cut trees, fashioned into a wall, or arched overhead. The squares in Florence are adorned with more than a hundred and fifty statues. Two obelisks rise on the *piazza* of *Santa Maria Novella*, which serves as a course for chariot races, similar to those of the ancients. Horse races are also an amusement; the race ground is more than two miles in length. The quays in Florence are much finer than any in Paris.

Prato rises on the north of Florence towards the Appennines, on the banks of the Bisenzio; it is a place of some trade; the inhabitants manufacture copper utensils, and its fairs are more frequented than any in Tuscany. Pistoia is situated at the base of the Appennines; there are few towns in Italy in which the streets are so broad or so straight; it formed at one time a republic; it carries on a trade at present in fowling-pieces, silk and straw hats.

At a league to the east of the canal that unites the *Arno* and the *Chiana*, is situated Arezzo, an ancient town of which the Latin name *Aretium*, was derived, according to some, from *Aretia*, a surname of Vesta, and according to others, from the eastern word *Aretz*, which corresponds with its situation, and signifies *an agreeable place on the*

waters. In the time of the Etruscans it was celebrated for its pottery, its wine, and a fountain from which oracles were delivered. It was the birthplace of many great men, of Mæcenas, of the martyr Saint Lawrence, of Petrarch, of Guido Aretino, who invented or discovered anew the notes of music, of Pope Julius the Second, of Pietro Aretino, and of Concini, marshal d'Ancre. On the Appennines, and at eight leagues to the north of the town, stands the famous convent of the Camaldolites, founded in the beginning of the eleventh century.

Cortona to the south-east of Arezzo, rises on the declivity of a hill, which overlooks a fine plain, watered by the Perugian lake. It is supposed to occupy the site of *Corythus*, a town mentioned by Virgil, but which did not exist in his time.^b Walls constructed of very large stones that are not united by any cement, may still be seen at Cortona; they were raised by the most ancient inhabitants of Etruria. Although a very small place, it has possessed since the year 1726, an Etruscan academy, which has been of much use by its researches.

“ Fallen from its former rank, as a republican city containing a hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants, to that of a provincial town having only fifteen or twenty thousand, and with the melancholy title of capital of the *Maremma*, Sienna exhibits no signs of decay, but on the contrary every appearance of active industry. Scarcely any beggars; the streets well paved and very clean; the shops numerous and well supplied; the people well dressed and the women remarkably good looking and graceful even in the ludicrous attitude of riding astride on donkeys, which seems the custom both with ladies and market women, all showing their garters at the top of a well formed leg, and snow white stockings. The cathedral is a nondescript edifice, built in the thirteenth century, when the Gothic style of architecture prevailing beyond the Alps, was with difficulty making its way in Italy. It is therefore half Gothic, half Grecian; slender shafts with Corinthian capitals, and round arches. The most remarkable feature of this singular edifice, is the party coloured marble on the outside; broad stripes of dingy brown and dirty white alternately, like the zebra's skin. Nothing can possibly be in worse taste; but the inlaid pavement done in 1460, is on the contrary very beautiful.”^c

There is only one square at Sienna, the *Piazza del Campo*; it is hollowed in the form of a basin, adorned with a fine fountain, and lined with palaces in the Gothic style. Saint Catherine, the tutelar saint of the town, is as celebrated in the country, as Saint Genevieve in Paris. Born in the fourteenth century, the daughter of a poor dyer, she acted an important part in the ecclesiastical affairs of Italy. She was sent to Gregory the Eleventh, to persuade him to quit Avignon, and to restore the papal throne to Rome. It is said that a society established in 1464 in the house inhabited by the saint, continues to endow every year the daughters of poor artisans, who walk in procession on her anniversary, and on these occasions make choice of their husbands. A number of young men stand near the procession, and each gives a handkerchief to her whom he loves; if she refuses, she kisses the handkerchief, and returns it; if she consents, she ties a knot in it, and then presents it to her bridegroom.

A Roman colony was sent to Sienna by Augustus, and

^a Simond's Travels.

^b Æneid. L. III. v. 170. [*Coritus*].

^c Simond's Travels in Italy and Sicily, page 570.

it was then called *Colonia Senensis*. The Italian language is spoken in greater purity in the same place, than in any other town in Tuscany; the pronunciation of the Siennese is also the most agreeable. It possesses several academies and a university; the inhabitants are gay, lively and well informed; it has produced several celebrated men, among others, seven popes, and Socinus, the chief of the Unitarians, who reject the mystery of the trinity, and believe Christ, although participating in the divine nature, to be inferior to God.

The road from Sienna to Leghorn traverses the Etruscan town of *Volterra*, the name of which remains the same, but the population, which amounted formerly to a hundred thousand, is now reduced to four thousand inhabitants; it was once one of the twelve principal cities in Etruria, but is now almost deserted. The populous and commercial town of Leghorn, a small burgh in 1120, is at present peopled by seventy-five thousand individuals, including the inhabitants of its three suburbs, which contain more than thirty thousand. The streets are straight and well built, the port is frequented by merchant ships, and the town is a place of extensive trade. The principal edifices are the magazines, the arsenal and three lazarettos. The only monument worthy of notice, is the marble statue of Duke Ferdinand the First, in the attitude of a conqueror with four bronze slaves at his feet. The harbour is six hundred yards in length, and seventy-two in breadth; hulks^a are kept for the purpose of taking away the pebbles and alluvial deposits, which are brought by the sea. A great many Jewish and Greek merchants are settled in the town; among the exports are soap, alabaster and coral. Ophthalmia is a disease peculiar to its soil; it has been erroneously attributed to the sandy dust driven by the winds, and to the humidity of the quarter called *New Venice* on account of its numerous canals; it appears on the contrary to arise from the comparative coldness of the night air during the summer season.

Piombino, a sea port to the south of Leghorn, is situated at a short distance from the ancient Etruscan town of *Populonia*, which was destroyed in the ninth century by the patrician Nicias, but of which some remains of walls without cement are still extant. Not far from these walls are extensive ruins, which, according to some, were originally an amphitheatre, while others suppose them to have been part of the ancient *Vetulonia*.^b Piombino stands on a rock, and gives its name to the neighbouring gulf. The air and climate are unwholesome, and the population, which peace and commerce have not augmented, does not exceed two thousand inhabitants.

The island of Elba, not more than three leagues from the continent, may be distinctly seen from Piombino. It was subject in the thirteenth century to the Pisans; it was afterwards taken by the Genoese, and remained at different times in the possession of the dukes of Milan, and the king of the Two Sicilies, who ceded it to France in 1801. The island contains fourteen thousand inhabitants; it was

the residence of Napoleon, to whom it was given in sovereignty by the treaty of 1814, and who by quitting it on the 25th of February, 1815, in order to return to France, brought on that kingdom a second foreign invasion more disastrous than the first. Porto Ferrajo, a fortified town with a harbour on the northern coast, and containing five thousand inhabitants, is the capital of the island. Porto Longone, a small town of 1,500 inhabitants, is defended by a fortress built on a rock; its harbour is called the Marina.

Tuscany owes to Duke Leopold the prosperity which it still enjoys; that prince had corrected many abuses before the year 1772; the convents were not nearly so numerous as in other Italian states; indeed the most useless orders were abolished; the Inquisition was rendered merely nominal; the punishment of death was almost unknown, for it was only once inflicted during his reign; the system of taxes was improved, and they were regularly paid; industry and commerce were freed from their shackles, and education was encouraged among the lower orders, a class of people that are kept in Italy in the most abject ignorance. These improvements, which are honourable to the greatest prince that ever governed Tuscany, prepared the people to adopt without reluctance the French laws; but during the late changes, part of the old system has been amalgamated with the Napoleon code, the lands of religious communities have been restored, new abuses have been introduced, and the Tuscans, whose mildness is proverbial, and who as a people are very easily satisfied, have ventured to complain.

During the fifth century, a Dalmatian stone-cutter, by the name of Marino, whose piety induced him to preach Christianity, built a hermitage on the coast of the Adriatic, near the summit of Mount Titan.^c His religious zeal procured for him the title of saint, and after his death, he received the honours of canonization. A town rose in the year 600, near the hermitage of San Marino, from which it took its name. It was formed into a republic, fortifications were erected, and two or three small fortresses in the neighbourhood, were in course of time acquired. The popes took possession of the republic in 1739, a very insignificant conquest, but the emperor of Germany restored it to freedom. Enclosed by the states of the Holy See, it is at present under the protection of the pope. This little republic, which adopted the following protocol in writing to that of Venice, *Alla nostra carissima sorella, la Serenissima repubblica di Venetia*, occupies a surface of five square leagues; the town of San Marino, and two villages, are contained in it. The wines, which are the principal products of its territory, supply its commerce. The sovereignty is vested in a council of three hundred ancients, and the executive power in a senate composed of twenty patricians, twenty burgesses, and twenty peasants, whose presidents are two *gonfalonieri*, elected every three months. These two magistrates have a guard of thirty men, but if the freedom of the republic is endangered, every citizen becomes a soldier.

^a "Pontons."

^b "— which are believed to be the remains of a temple, or the ruins of the ancient *Vetulonia*."
^c It. *Monte Titano*.

BOOK CXXXV.

EUROPE.

*Europe Continued.—Description of Italy.—Fifth Section.—
Description of the States of the Church.*

ALTHOUGH the subjects of the different princes in Italy, resemble each other in several particulars, we think it proper to describe in a separate book, a state which, in a political point of view, differs from every other in Europe. It is not uninteresting to contemplate an elective monarchy having for its domain the earth, on which it only occupies a point, and for its empire the heavens, from which it looks on kings as its inferiors. It is not easy to define or even to characterize such a power as that of Rome, which passes for the most ancient in Europe. The papal tiara is adorned with a triple crown; he who fills the throne, and wears the diadem, is called the successor of St. Peter; in general, he may be as much entitled from his advanced age as from his rank as prince of the church, to the homage and veneration of his people, but he also claims the homage of kings and all the powers on the earth. Is it as the successor of St. Peter that he is clothed in purple, that he wears the emblems of royalty, that he has his soldiers, that justice is administered in his name, and that he prevents crimes by punishing the guilty? Are not the two powers with which he is vested, incompatible with each other? Can the *servant of the servants of God* appear without inconsistency in royal pomp? Is it necessary that he should be one of the weakest princes in Christendom, in order, as the vicar of our Saviour, to be greater than the kings of the earth? Such are the reflections which naturally occur in considering the pope as uniting the sovereign power with his dignity as chief of the church. But what appears an anomaly at a time when governments and powers are defined, might, in the early ages of Christianity, have resulted from the course of events, and from the force of circumstances.

The supremacy of the apostolic see of Rome over the other churches, dates from a very remote period. Irenæus, bishop of Lyons, in the second century, and Cyprian, bishop of Carthage in the following century, admitted it as an uncontested point, without, however, deducing all the consequences which were afterwards derived. Before the period that Italy was invaded by Pepin, the popes had no political power, no temporal possessions. The pretended donation made by Constantine to Silvester the First, has been considered fabulous by the most able critics and by the Ultramontanes themselves.^a Pepin, mayor of the palace of Childeric the Third, wishing to maintain his usurpation by the consent of the nation, and the authority of the church, consulted solemnly pope Zachary, who answered, like the oracles of old, that the sovereignty belonged to him who exer-

cised the royal power. Such an answer satisfied the scruples of the minister; his master was confined in a convent, and he himself was proclaimed king by the French. But when Pepin had expelled the Lombards from the exarchate of Ravenna, he gave it from a motive of gratitude or policy to pope Stephen the Second. The donation was afterwards ratified by Charlemagne, who added to it the Perugino and the dutchy of Spoleto. The bishops of Rome being raised to the rank of temporal princes, were no longer destitute of ambition; it was not, however, before their spiritual power reached its height, that they extended their dominions. The emperor Henry the Third gave them the dutchy of Benevento in the eleventh century; Matilda, countess of Tuscany, bequeathed to the Holy See, in the twelfth century, the territories of Bolsena, Bagnarea, Monte-Fiascone, Viterbo, Civita Castellana, Corneto, Civita Vecchia and Bracciano, possessions which form what is called the *Patrimony of St. Peter*. Rome, then merely the residence of the popes, belonged to the empire; it was divided by republican factions. Men possessing qualities that were ill adapted to the spirit of the age, attempted vainly to establish a free government. Rome and the contiguous province of Sabina were not included in the domains of the Holy See, until the end of the fourteenth century. Lewis Gonzaga, general of Clement the Seventh, united the March of Ancona to the States of the Church in 1532. The dutchy of Urbino, which belonged to the family of Julius the Second, became the possession of the popes in 1626. The latest conquests the popes made, were the Orvietano, the dutchy of Castro, and the county of Ronciglione. The two last principalities were the inheritance of pope Paul the Third, and he left them to his son Farnese, who became duke of Parma and Placentia; but one of his descendants mortgaged them at the Mount of Piety in Rome, for a sum which he was unable to pay, and Innocent the Eleventh took possession of them.

The part which the pope took, as temporal prince of the church, in the European coalitions against France, was attended with disastrous consequences; it is by no means improbable, that if Napoleon had retained his power, the popes might have been reduced to their ancient condition under the eastern empire. The invasion of Lombardy and the States of the Church by the French, forced Pius the Sixth to conclude a treaty on the nineteenth of June, 1796. It was stipulated that he should cede to France a certain number of statues, vases and pictures, and five hundred manuscripts to be selected by the commissaries of there public, that he should pay a contribution of 800,000^b

^a J. Lesueur, Histoire de l'Eglise et de l'Empire, tom. ii.—Histoire de la

délivrance de l'Eglise, par le P. Morin.—Dictionnaire de Moreri, art. Sylvestre.

^b "21 millions francs."

that he should grant a free passage to the French troops, and that he should open his ports to French vessels, and shut them against the ships of every state at war with the French republic. The treaty was soon broken by the pope himself; fortune seemed to declare against France, and Pius the Sixth took possession of Ferrara on the thirty first of January, in the following year. A letter intercepted by Buonaparte proved that his holiness was treating with the emperor of Germany; but at the approach of the conqueror, new conditions were proposed by the Holy See. The sum of thirty-six millions of francs or 1,500,000*l.* was exacted by the French generalissimo, and the other terms of the former treaty were anew concluded. But the assassination of the French general Duphot, at Rome, at the close of the same year, furnished the Directory with a pretext for overturning the Papal government. General Berthier received orders to march against Rome, and the states of the Holy See were transformed into a republic. When the French left Italy, the ephemeral republic fell of its own accord. The Roman states, in consequence of new political combinations, were united to the crown of Italy in 1808. By a decree of Feb. 17, 1810, they were included within the limits of the French Empire, and Rome and Paris were then fixed as places of residence for the pope. A new revolution was the result of the events in 1814, and Pius the Seventh recovered all the former possessions of the church.

The Roman states are bounded by the Adriatic Sea on the east, by the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom on the north, by the duchies of Tuscany and Modena on the west, by the Mediterranean on the south-west, and by the kingdom of Naples on the south. Their extent is equal to ninety-five leagues in one direction, and to twenty-five in the other; their surface is equal to about two thousand two hundred and forty square leagues. The ancient denominations, such as duchies, counties and others already mentioned, by which the different provinces were distinguished, have been abolished; the country is now divided into three districts and seventeen legations.^a The example of the French administration has been the means of occasioning reforms in the laws, in the administration of justice, and in the distribution of taxes; much, however, still remains to be done, and it is to be feared that the popes will never be able to establish within their dominions, the moral improvement, the love of industry, and other good qualities of which the Roman people might perhaps be susceptible under a different government. To form an idea of the manners and government of the people in the Roman states, it is only necessary to visit the capital.

The ordinary method of life at Rome, may be termed a long lent, so much attention do all the inhabitants pay to the exterior duties of religion. That large city, which might contain three times more than its present population, has a sombre appearance, rendered still more striking by large squares, spacious and deserted streets, numerous monks and priests, and the majestic ruins which are seen at every step. The very market places are almost as much deserted on market days as the rest of the town. But the

stillness is changed into noisy mirth at the time of the carnival; Rome is no longer the same city, all ranks are then confounded, the churches are deserted, and the streets can hardly contain the inhabitants, all of whom leave their houses, and join in the joyous throng. On these days of folly are seen young abbés, grave magistrates, and even prelates, covered with masks, and in quest of pleasures, which may be easily found, for both sexes are persuaded that a few moments of error are fully expiated by the penitence and holy privations of lent. Tumultuous crowds assemble in the Corso, which is on these occasions lined with two files of carriages; pieces of tapestry and other ornaments are suspended from every window; *confetti* or small fragments of puzzolana, dipt in lime water to imitate sugar plums,^b are thrown against the foot passengers and the equipages, followed by the shouts and applause of a multitude in masks of every colour. At a given signal,—the report of a cannon, the middle and the greater part of the Corso are cleared: horses without riders are seen in full gallop; tinsel glittering about their manes and tails; ribbons with burning matches, streaming in the wind; sparks flying from their back, sides and every part of their body; thus galled and tormented, the frightened animals run at full speed.^c The follies of the carnival, which may be compared to the *lupercalia* of the ancient Romans, are accompanied with other diversions on the night of Shrove Tuesday; men, women and children run about the streets with lighted tapers^d in their hands, and pursue each other in order to extinguish them. Every equipage must also be illuminated, otherwise it might be broken by the populace. The same customs were observed in ancient Rome during the festival of Ceres seeking for her daughter Proserpine.

It might be naturally imagined that the police are careless or useless in a capital, where government, instead of punishing, negociates with bandits; it must be admitted, however, that there are few towns where the police are more efficient or better regulated than at Rome; no disturbances in the streets, no robberies, none of the petty larcenies so common in great towns; it seldom or never happens that handkerchiefs and watches are stolen. It cannot be denied that stilettos are sometimes used, but it is from jealousy, not from avarice or desire of gain. The streets of Rome are not sullied by the degraded beings, tolerated in other towns as a necessary evil, and the sight of whom serves to tempt the wicked, and to offend the virtuous. Public women are banished without any scruple, or at all events they can never be distinguished by indecent effrontery. It may be mentioned to the honour of the papal government, that it has done much to suppress licentiousness and immorality by encouraging marriages. Marriage licences, says an author, are granted with as much facility as passports, and as soon as these licences are presented, the curates must read the marriage ceremony, and pronounce the nuptial benediction. He who seduces a young woman, is obliged to marry her, or to pass five years of his life in the gallees.

The church condemns usury, but it permits the cardinals to enjoy the most unjust monopolies. They only are permitted to sell the necessaries of life,^e such as oil, groce-

^a 13 delegations—Statist. Table, p. 819.

^b *Confetti di gesso*, plaster comfits—pieces of *pozzolana* covered with plaster of Paris.—P.

^c “—Horses without riders, goaded by plates of metal covered with points and by a lighted match inserted between the skin and the flesh, start from the *Piazza del Popolo* and traverse the Corso” The goads are balls covered with sharp spikes of metal (Rome in the 19th century).—P.

^d *Moccoletti*.

^e This is not stated in the original, but merely that cardinals are permitted to exercise monopolies in the sale of these articles. Others are not prevented from selling by legal prohibitions, but by the vexatious interference of the cardinals or their agents.—P.

ries, corn, flour and bread. The grocers and bakers are merely their agents, or if any wish to exercise their industry on their own account, they are exposed to vexatious oppression. Besides, government regulates the price of bread for the nominal and ostensible reason that the people may not pay too dear for it, but if any baker attempts to sell it under the regulated price, he may be liable to a severe penalty. Most governments are now aware of the bad effects of lotteries; at Rome, however, that iniquitous tax is not only levied on an ignorant and wretched people, but sanctioned by the ministers of religion, for the tickets are drawn in the presence of clergymen, bishops and cardinals;^a children turn the wheel, but before they do so, they make the sign of the cross. Although lotteries are permitted by the church, the same church prohibits games of chance.

At Paris, *gensdarmes* guard the theatres, and are stationed in the public places during festivals; at Rome, government goes further: while the follies of the carnival last, and while the theatres are opened, an executioner walks gravely near his *cavalletto*, an instrument of punishment, destined for those whose turbulent mirth passes the prescribed rules on festive days, or for the critics who venture to condemn or interrupt a theatrical representation. The *cavalletto* consists of two boards joined to each other, and forming two inclined planes; it is supported on four wooden feet, and the two in front are lower than the others. Delinquents are placed horizontally, and bound to it, so as to prevent their escape, while the executioner inflicts a certain number of lashes. Vintners^b must submit to the same punishment, if animal food, or any dishes that are not permitted, appear on their tables during lent. The strappado is an instrument of punishment for greater offences; the hands of the criminal are tied behind his back, he is raised into the air by means of a rope, and allowed to fall suddenly to the ground. The assassin is punished by death, but not until he has remained several days in a dungeon, the victim of suspense, and ignorant of his sentence; he is then compelled to listen to the exhortations of a priest, to confess and to communicate. Three days after these ceremonies have taken place, the criminal is executed; but if he refuses the consolations of religion, he is beset by all the monks and priests belonging to the different congregations,^c until he confess, and if he persists in his refusal, he cannot be punished without an order from the pope. The torture has been abolished, and the Italian or national language has been substituted for the Latin in the civil and ecclesiastical courts, since the accession of Leo the Twelfth.

The government of the Roman States, consists of cardinals who fill certain offices, and laymen to whom different places in the magistracy and army are committed, all of them subject to the absolute authority of the pope. The principal offices filled by cardinals, are that of the *Camerlingo*, or minister of finance, who presides in the Apostolic chamber, or council entrusted with the revenue of the state; that of the secretary of state, who corresponds with the nuncios and legates, and whose office is similar to that of minister for foreign affairs in other governments; that of the *Datario*, who is entrusted with the nomination to va-

cant benefices, with dispensations and with annats; that of the vicar, who besides the episcopal functions which he exercises in Rome, performs the duties of minister of the police, watches over the inhabitants, punishes transgressors, and enforces the laws against the Jews;^d that of the chancellor, whose office is sufficiently indicated by its title; that of the auditor, who administers justice, decides intricate lawsuits, and examines those that are appointed to dioceses;^e and lastly, that of the secretary of briefs, who is charged with issuing all the papal dispensations. Different assemblies of cardinals are called consistories or congregations. The members of the consistories deliberate concerning the nomination of nuncios, legates and bishops. The members of the congregations pass sentence on murderers, who claim the right of asylum or impunity after having taken refuge in a church;^f they examine the complaints of the people against their governors, the claims of those who solicit titles of nobility, and other questions of a like nature. The congregation of rites regulates the ceremonies of the church, and confers after the usual forms the honours of canonization. The chief of these congregations is the Inquisition or *Santo Uffizio*, which is assisted by the *Index* or council of censors. An assembly of cardinals forms the tribunal called *Segnatura di Giustizia*, a court that reviews the decisions of inferior judges.^g The pope presides in the *Segnatura di Grazia*, a tribunal composed of prelates and cardinals, which examines the petitions of supplicants, and the cases in which the royal prerogative of mercy may be extended with advantage. The *Rota*, a tribunal composed of lay judges,^h takes cognisance of civil cases in the first instance; the administration of justice in criminal cases falls within the department of the governor of Rome. Two *Consulta* or courts of appeal are established in the Roman states, the one in the capital, the other at Bologna. The senator and his four lieutenants form another lay tribunal, and the *conservatori* are magistrates entrusted with whatever concerns the interests of the city; they regulate the distribution of the taxesⁱ in the chief town of every district.

Superstition prevails not only at Rome but in all the States of the Church. The inhabitants observe scrupulously all the ceremonies of religion, omitting nothing connected with form or etiquette, although apparently destitute of true devotion. Confession is a practice which all follow, more from custom than Christian humility, and rather to lull the conscience than to correct vice. A lady meets her lover in a church; they may be alone, and it often happens that the churches are deserted; but she never speaks or even looks at him, until she has counted all the beads in her chaplet. The people kneel and receive the benedictions of the pope; it is not at Rome, however, that the chief of the church is thought to participate in the divine power; what he gains in temporal, he loses in spiritual authority. As soon as Easter is over, the curates demand from their parishioners certificates of communion, and if any do not present them, their names are added to the lists of the excommunicated. Although the subjects of the papal government must rigorously observe the ceremonies of devotion, strangers enjoy the utmost freedom: no processes are

^a "Cardinals and heads of congregations."

^b Restaurateurs.

^c "He is charged with all that relates to the public morals, and the Jews."

^d "— by all the religious congregations."

^e "Who is intrusted with the department of justice, and with the examination of candidates for the episcopate."

^f Those who have committed unpremeditated murder are entitled to

the privilege of immunity if they have taken refuge in a church. The congregation of ecclesiastical immunity investigates the claims of such persons to immunity.—P.

^g It performs the functions of a Supreme Court of Appeal.—P.

^h The civil tribunal called the *Rota*.—The members of the *Rota*, called auditors, are prelates *ex officio*.—P. ⁱ "Les dépenses du budget."

raised against foreigners, who do not deck their houses with tapestry on *Corpus Christi* day, and it is not necessary that they should take off their hats, if they see a cross or the viaticum in the streets. Lastly, whatever a man's religious belief may be, he may be assured of having his body transported to the church after death, provided payment be made, and of being interred with all the honours and pomp used by the Romish communion.

It is needless to make any remarks on the *cicisbei* or *cavaliere serventi*; they are as common in Rome as in the other large towns of Italy; during the residence of the French, these lovers were rendered ridiculous, and intrigues were substituted for the contracts which good natured husbands made with the gentlemen that their ladies loved. Foreigners who have lately returned from Rome, admit that the old custom is again becoming fashionable, a natural consequence in a country where the beneficial effects of education are unknown, and where it does not tend to improve the morals.

A government wholly pacific like that of Rome, might console itself for its political nullity, by encouraging and protecting letters, sciences and arts, but an intellectual deadness seems to pervade the Roman states. The sciences are less cultivated than in the rest of Italy, and the town which contains inexhaustible treasures for the archæologist, possesses no antiquarian worthy of being compared with many in Germany and France. The literary academies in Rome are more obscure than other societies of the same sort in the French provinces. The stage cannot flourish in a town where the tragedies of Alfieri are not permitted to be acted, and where the theatres are only open a few days before and after the carnival; and although prelates appear at theatrical representations, it would be much better to prohibit such amusements, than to sanction a criminal mutilation in the holy city, by substituting *castrati* for singing women. No name worthy the best days of Italian painting exists at present in the Roman school, and were it not for the ancient *chefs-d'œuvre* in which Rome abounds, the French academy of the fine arts might as well be established in any other town. Mosaic painting is the only art in which the Romans excel. The people in the upper classes are as indolent and ill informed as the present Venetian nobles; the reading of the young people is mostly confined to the romances of Voltaire, and the girls, in order to make up for the time lost in a convent, read frivolous and dangerous works. The lower orders in the town can read and write, but such knowledge is by no means common in the rural districts.

Enough has been already said concerning the manners and customs of the inhabitants in the capital of the Roman states; some remarks may now be made on the most remarkable ancient and modern monuments that are contained in the same place. Rome stands in the middle of a large plain, which extends from the Appennines to the sea; that plain was formerly fertile, but it is now comparatively sterile. On first entering the town, one can hardly believe himself in the former capital of the Roman empire, so different is papal from imperial Rome. The ancient city is partly concealed by the modern, but some scattered monuments of the former still remaining, notwithstanding the ravages of time, barbarians and Christians, attest its past

existence. The modern soil is so much higher than the ancient, that the Tarpeian rock does not exceed at present twenty-five or thirty feet in height, and the pavement of a small church, built at the foot of the Palatine hill, is exactly on a level with the roof of an ancient temple^a erected on the spot where Romulus and Remus were supposed to have been suckled by a wolf. It was necessary to remove the soil to the depth of twenty-feet, in order to uncover the base of Trajan's pillar. More than half the pedestal of the triumphal arch of Constantine was covered with earth, which had also to be removed before a correct judgment could be formed of a monument that has suffered little from the effects of time, and which although raised in a period when art was on the decline, is nevertheless highly interesting to the antiquary. The fine Egyptian obelisk loaded with hieroglyphics, and cut by order of Rameses, thirteen centuries before the Christian era, was covered with sixteen feet of earth amidst the ruins of the great circus, before it was disinterred in the time of Sixtus the Fifth, and transported to the square of St. John Lateran. The soil reached to more than half the height of the principal gate in the arch of Septimius Severus. Many monuments that still remain of ancient Rome, were cleared by the French government, which did more in a few years than most of the popes, to restore them to the admiration of modern artists.

The Pantheon, a temple erected by Agrippa to all the gods, is perhaps the finest monument of ancient Rome, and certainly the one in the best state of preservation. The hemispherical dome, is equal in height to its diameter, as if the architect had wished to imitate the rotundity of the celestial sphere. The interior of the edifice is a hundred and thirty-seven feet in diameter, and the light enters it by a circular opening eighty feet in circumference. Adorned with a magnificent portico, composed of sixteen granite columns, and crowned with a pediment supported on eight columns, it was easily changed into a church. The tombs of Raphael and Annibal Caracci, the busts of Palladio, Winckelmann and Nicholas Poussin, are now seen instead of the heathen gods that were formerly stationed in the Pantheon. The Rotonda is the modern name of the edifice, and the stranger ascends by steps to the circular opening in the roof. The dome was covered with bronze in the time of the Roman power; Constantius the Second was the first who took part of it away, and sent it to Syracuse; the rest was employed in constructing the famous *Baldacchino* of St. Peter's, and in making the cannon which defend at present the castle of St. Angelo.

The Flavian amphitheatre which has been called the Colosseum or Coliseum, from its gigantic proportions, is not in so good a state of preservation as the Pantheon, because it was impossible to change it into a church; but the people have had some respect for the edifice, since Pius the Sixth erected a large cross in the middle of the arena, and fifteen altars to the memory of the martyrs, who are believed to have perished within the enclosure. Twelve thousand Jews, whom Vespasian made captives, and brought to Rome after the taking of Jerusalem, commenced the edifice, which cost at first a sum equal to 2,083,500*l.*^b and which was finished by Titus. The outer part of the building exceeds fourteen hundred feet in circumference; the interior is five hundred and eighty in length, and four hun-

^a The cella of the temple is now half buried, and therefore the upper part of the ancient walls forms the lower part of the walls of the church. (Rome in the 19th cent.)

^b "50,000,000 francs."

^c "Exterior circumference 1000 feet." (?) The amphitheatre is above 1600 feet in circumference. (Ed. Encyc.)

dred and eighty in breadth. It is said that it could contain 80,000 spectators, but from calculations which appear to be more accurate, the number has been reduced to forty-four thousand.^a When Titus opened the amphitheatre for the first time, the arena was crowded with an incredible number of wild animals of every sort,—foxes, lions, tigers, elephants, stags and gazelles; more than five thousand were destroyed in a single day. The arena was sometimes changed into a lake twenty feet deep; the water flowed through eighty openings, and the people were thus presented with the spectacle of a naval combat. It is customary to visit the Vatican, when illumined with torches, and the Coliseum by moon light; and certainly, the pale light of the moon heightens greatly the effect of the vast amphitheatre; the imagination may conceive the ghosts of gladiators issuing from the vomitories, or the shades of captives that perished before a people accustomed to barbarous spectacles.

The Vatican, which is contiguous to the church of St. Peter, is said to be built on the site of Nero's palace. It consists of several edifices that occupy a much greater surface than both the Tuileries and the Louvre. The interior is divided into twenty courts, and as many porticos, eight large, and two hundred smaller stair-cases, and twelve hundred apartments.^b The great stair-case, which leads to the gallery of antiques, served as a model for the one in the Louvre, to which most judges give the preference. The chapel of the Vatican, or the famous Sistine chapel, is richly decorated, and its finest ornament is the celebrated painting in fresco of the last judgment, by Michael Angelo. The library contains seventy thousand volumes, and forty thousand manuscripts. In the same palace are seen the school of Athens, and the other fresco paintings of Raphael. A small building which communicates with the Vatican, by two long galleries, and which commands a fine view of Rome, and the neighbouring country as far as the Appennines, has on that account been called *Belvedere*. In the same building, and in a much better situation than in the Louvre, is placed the statue of the Apollo,—the *chef-d'œuvre* of ancient sculpture; the Laocoon, the Torso and the Antinous are seen in adjoining apartments.

The Vatican is the residence of the Pope in winter, and the Quirinal palace in summer. Although the form of the latter edifice may be irregular, it has been much admired for the magnificence of the interior, the fine view from it, and the beauty of the gardens. It was reserved, under the French imperial government, for the young prince who received the title of king of Rome. The palace derives its name from the Quirinal hill, on the summit of which it stands. It has also been called the palace of *Monte-Cavallo*,^c because in front of it are two groups of marble statues, each representing a horse of colossal proportions, and a youth seventeen feet in height, who appears to subdue it. The two groups are ancient, but it is not probable that they are the works of Phidias and Praxiteles, as might be inferred from the names on the pedestals. An Egyptian obelisk of red porphyry rises between them, and a fountain, which discharges its waters into a basin of oriental granite, seventy-six feet in circumference, adorns the centre of the square.

^a Simond's Travels in Italy.

^b Number of apartments 10,000 (Ed. Encyc.)—13,000 (Carter's Letters.)

^c *Monte Cavallo* is the modern name for the Quirinal hill.—P.

^d The column on the left was the first mile stone on the Appian way; the other is a modern one made in imitation of it.—P.

Modern Rome has also its Capitol, but it is no longer the Capitol which the masters of the world ascended to return thanks to Jupiter the Thunderer, whose temple commanded the city; near it rose the *Tabularium*, a sacred edifice in which were deposited the decrees of the senate engraved on tables of bronze. The modern Capitol is an insignificant hill, styled by corruption the *Campidoglio*, and the buildings on it are the residences of the municipal magistrates. A flight of steps, planned by Michael Angelo, leads to the top of the hill. Two antique lions of basalt guard the foot of the stairs, and two naked *colossi* the top; the latter were dug out of the banks of the Tiber, two hundred and fifty years ago. Each holds a prancing horse, colossal too, and yet scarcely reaching to the waist of its gigantic master. These figures, which are but of indifferent workmanship, have been styled Castor and Pollux. On a line with them are two mutilated trophies, two statues of the sons of Constantine, and lastly, at the extremities of the balustrade two milliary boundaries;^d the stone, No. I. on the Appian way, was formerly placed at the end of the first mile, but it stands now at the beginning.^e The square or *piazza*, to which the stair leads, is regularly built on three sides; the palace of the senator occupies the front, that of the *Conservatori* the right side, and the museum of antiquities the left. These buildings are also the work of Michael Angelo, and by his direction the bronze statue of Marcus Aurelius, the finest ancient equestrian statue in existence, and the only one that has been found at Rome, was placed in the middle of the square.

The tower of the senator's palace commands a vast space covered with ruins, now the *Campo Vaccino* or cow-market, formerly the *Forum Romanum*. "From this elevated station, about two hundred feet above the Forum," says Simond, "the eloquent voice of Cicero might have been heard, revealing to his assembled countrymen the conspiracies of a Cataline. He might even have been heard in the tribune of Harangues, situated on the other side of the Forum, and next to the Temple of Jupiter Stator,—taking the oath that had saved the country, and all the people repeating the same oath after him. But the gory head and hand of this saviour of his country, might have been seen from the same station, soon after nailed to the side of the same tribune, and the same people tamely looking on! Instead of contending crowds of patriots, conspirators, orators, heroes and fools, each acting his part, I only saw a few cows quietly picking up blades of grass among the ruins; beggars and monks, and asses loaded with bags of puzzolana, and a gang of galley slaves, lazily digging for antiquities under the lash of a task master."^f The gulf of Curtius may recal the patriotic devotion of a generous Roman, but it does not deserve at present the name of a pond.^g

The Antonine column,^h surmounted with a statue of St. Paul, rises near *Monte Citorio*. The tomb of Adrian on the banks of the Tiber, has become the castle of St. Angelo. The bridge which leads to it, and which bears the same name, was the ancient *Ælian* bridge,ⁱ built by Adrian; the two statues at the entrance are those of St. Peter and St. Paul, the others represent angels.

We may leave these ancient monuments, disfigured by bad taste and religious zeal, and direct our steps to the

^e Simond's Travels in Italy.

^f *Ibid.*

^g The Lake of Curtius, not the gulf.—P.

^h The Triumphal Column of Marcus Aurelius.—P.

ⁱ *Pons Ælius*.

master work of modern Rome, the largest Christian temple in the world. One fault in the church of St. Peter may be mentioned; the principal front instead of resembling that of a temple, looks more like the front of a showy palace. The dimensions of the building are so great that the magnificent cupola does not seem to form any part of it, but appears like the dome of another edifice. The area in front of St. Peter's,^a is not less remarkable than the church; it is surrounded by two semicircular porticos, and terminates in an avenue that extends to the front of the building, thus forming two *piazas*, of which the total length is not less than a thousand feet. The portico is surmounted by ninety-two statues of saints, about nine or ten feet in height; the proportions of the portal accord so well with the objects which surround it, that its great size is not at first obvious, neither do the pillars appear very large, although they are not less than eight feet three inches in diameter. The dimensions of the front^b are equal to three hundred and sixty-six feet; the entrances to the church are five doors, under a portico four hundred and forty-eight feet long, and thirty-nine broad. The extremities of the portico form two vestibules, in one of which may be seen the equestrian statue of Constantine, and in the other that of Charlemagne, both of whom Rome considers its benefactors.

The form of St. Peter's is that of a Latin cross; those who enter it for the first time, are less struck with the size of the building than the profusion of mosaics and marbles; the length, however, is equal to five hundred and sixty-five feet, and the height to a hundred and thirty-six. The ornaments are so splendid as to be dazzling, and they are arranged with more ostentation than taste. It might also be urged that the light is too great; were it less vivid it would be more in unison with the purpose of the building, and more inviting to retirement and devotion; it would also harmonize better with a finely painted window^c at the upper end of the nave. The principal chapels are adorned with mosaics after the models of the great masters. An antique *Giove Capitolino* in bronze, was melted to supply materials for a colossal figure of St. Peter,^d a figure of barbarous workmanship, which has been placed in a recess. The statue is always surrounded by devout persons, who kiss with great fervour a projecting toe of the apostle, and the metal has been actually worn off a full inch, by the kisses of three hundred years.

The *Baldacchino* or famous canopy of bronze which surmounts the high altar may give the stranger an idea of the dimensions of the building. It is nearly ninety feet high,^e exceeding the height of all the palaces in Rome except one; indeed the colonnade of the Louvre at Paris is somewhat lower than the canopy, which in appearance seems a mere piece of furniture that might be pushed into a corner without being missed.^f The bronze used in constructing it, weighed one thousand six hundred and sixty-six hundred-weights,^g and the gilding cost more than 10,000*l*.^h It stands below the cupola, the most remarkable part of the building. The height of the cupola amounts to four hundred and fifty feet, and the inner diameter to a hundred and thirty. The twelve apostles are represented on the vault in mosaics, and separated by groups of angels bearing the instruments of the passion. Care has been taken in the

two most apparent parts of the church, to connect it with the memory of the saint, to whom it is consecrated. Thus, it is affirmed that the gilded balustrade placed before the high altar, covers the tomb and the body of St. Peter, situated beneath it, in a subterranean church more ancient than the Basilica. The upper end of the nave is decorated with a splendid monument,—the pulpit of St. Peter, supported by four colossal figures of St. Ambrose, St. Augustin, St. Athanasius and St. Chrysostom. According to tradition, St. Peter used to sit in the arm chair now placed in the pulpit; it is made of wood, and inlaid with gold and silver. The building was commenced in the year 1450, and finished in 1606. The sum expended on it, was equivalent to 10,291,700*l*.ⁱ

No other church in Rome can be compared with St. Peter's; many, however, are remarkable for their ornaments or antiquity. The Romans consider *San Giovanni in Fonte*,^k not only the most ancient in Rome, but in Christendom; it has also been designated the *Baptistry of Constantine*, but the emperor was not baptized there, although it is not improbable that he enriched it. To give a detailed account of the other churches in the capital of the Christian world, would be a tedious and unnecessary task; suffice it to say that their number exceeds three hundred.

But the number of palaces is still greater; their architecture has for the most part the character of solidity rather than of elegance; Vasi enumerates more than sixty-five that are worthy of being visited. There are few of them in which the emblems of poverty are not contrasted with the trappings of pride. Strangers may admire fine paintings of the Italian school, in a sumptuous hall with broken windows. "A massy gate," says Simond, "opens into the body of a palace, which is not situated in a court; the court, on the contrary, being placed within the palace, enclosing it on all sides. The stairs generally are near the gate, or under an open portico in the court, so that visitors may always alight under cover. The entrance being generally left open, it becomes in consequence a common receptacle for filth. I have heard it suggested," he continues, "that there may be something of the *Grandioso* in the squalid court of a Roman palace; an odd idea, but not perhaps wholly groundless. The noble proprietor occupies but a small part of the edifice, the rest being intended not for private comfort, but for the display of wealth and grandeur, to be enjoyed by an admiring multitude at all hours, and in their own way, which is neither very refined, nor very cleanly."

The country near Rome abounds with the remains of antiquity. Near the gate of St. Paul, the pyramid or tomb of Caius Cestius, announces the wealth of that ancient Roman by its size, and by the paintings and ornaments in the interior. At no great distance from it are the catacombs,—the burying place of unnumbered bodies, and the grotto and the fountain where Numa used to meet the nymph Egeria. It was to *Tusculum* that Cicero, Cæsar and Crassus fled from the noise and political intrigues of ancient Rome; Frascati rises near its ruins. Another Horace might write a satire on Tivoli and its dirty streets, rather than compose songs in their praise. The Roman poet could no longer recognise that Tibur which afforded him such delight, but he might still discover the remains of

^a Piazza of St. Peter's.

^b "Façade."

^c A circular window stained yellow, on which the Holy Spirit is represented in the form of a dove.—P.

^d It is said to be a real antique, not made from the materials of one.—P.

^e "86 feet in height; exactly the height of the colonnade of the Louvre."

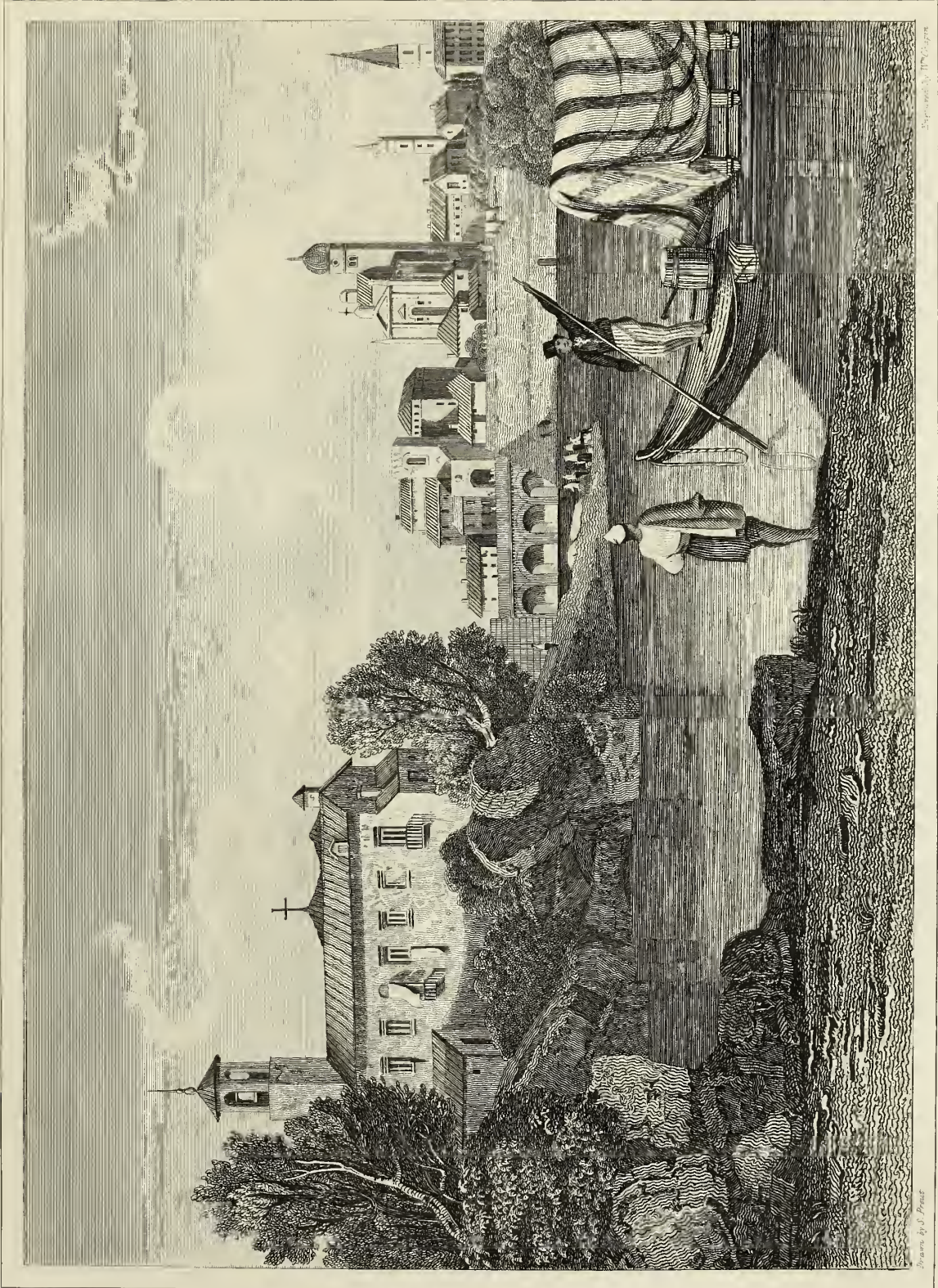
^f Simond's Travels in Italy.

^g "186,392 lbs." Fr.

^h "The gilding cost 210,000 francs."

ⁱ "247 millions francs."

^k St. John Lateran.



Engraved by T. G. Crispin

Drawn by J. P. Fraser

TRIMONI NEAR ROME.

two temples, the one dedicated to Vesta, the other to the Sibyl; he might also admire the situation of the town, and its celebrated cascades, still worthy of his verses. A house near Veletri, the ancient *Velitrae*, a town founded by the Volsci, was sometimes the country residence of Augustus.

The Pontine marshes (*Pomptinæ Paludes*) are now more dangerous by their exhalations than in ancient times. They were traversed by the Appian Way, the work of Appius Claudius, and the first undertaking by which that part of the country was improved. They were partly drained by Augustus, Trajan erected bridges and houses, and many country seats were built there by the wealthy Romans. The causes which rendered the Maremma unhealthy, produced the same effects on the Pontine marshes. The country having been depopulated by the northern barbarians, the waters remained without an outlet, and unwholesome miasms were diffused in the atmosphere. Those who sleep in the open air, on the borders of the marshes, during the heat of summer, seldom or never awake. Several popes have attempted to drain them, and the last attempts have not been wholly useless; but to arrive at satisfactory results, requires a government possessing more resources and energy than that of Rome. The yellow complexions and swollen legs of the inhabitants proclaim the nature of the country; it has been said that the people are never free from fever, but it may be affirmed, without exaggeration, that they are subject to it several months in the year. The lower animals do not seem to suffer from the insalubrity of the air; the stags, wild boars, and buffaloes, are strong and numerous.

Ostia, a town founded by Ancus Martius, the fourth king of Rome, became an important place during the empire, from its port at the mouth of the Tiber; its trade, now insignificant, consists in salt. The insalubrity of the Pontine marshes extends to Ostia, and the cardinal, who is bishop of it, takes care to reside at Rome. Civita Vecchia, a well built town, and the only commercial port which the pope possesses on the Mediterranean, is not so unwholesome as Ostia. The pleasant town of Viterbo is situated to the east of Civita Vecchia; several popes are interred in its cathedral. Orvieto, on the banks of the Paglia, stands on a steep rock; there is a pit near it, to which mules descend and return by inclined planes; it is lighted by a hundred small windows. A number of fine basaltic columns are situated in the neighbourhood.

Spoletto, on the road that leads to Foligno, contains several remains of antiquity, among others, the ruins of a theatre, and different ancient temples; its old walls and towers were perhaps erected by Narses, who drove the Goths from the town. A fine aqueduct, five hundred feet in height, and of Gothic architecture, was probably the work of Theodoric. The industrious inhabitants in the small town of Foligno, carry on a trade in paper, waxlights, and comfits.

Perugia, near the Tiber, was an ancient Etruscan city,^a and an important place long before Rome; it resisted all the power of Hannibal. Placed on the summit of a hill, water is conveyed into it from *Monte Pacciano*, by pipes which descend into a valley, and then ascend to the height

of four hundred feet. Perugia was the birthplace of Pietro Perugino, a distinguished painter, who claims the honour of being the master of Raphael. The view from its ramparts extends over a rich and varied surface. At the distance of three leagues, on the side of a mountain, are seen aqueducts, temples and walls; they are the walls of Assisi, the native town of St. Francis, whose remains are still visited by numerous pilgrims.

We may arrive at Bologna by following the windings of the Appennines; it is the second city in the States of the Church, and the one, after Rome, that possesses the most valuable collections. The concordate of 1515^b was signed within its walls, by which Francis the First reserved to himself the nomination to the principal benefices, and granted to the pope the first year of their revenue. A great many churches are contained in the town; ^c there are besides two old towers, more inclined than the one at Pisa, which threaten destruction to the neighbouring houses. The university, the museum of natural history and antiquities, which occupies twenty-six apartments, the library, consisting of two hundred thousand volumes and many manuscripts, the observatory worthy of being visited on account of its meridian line,^d the botanical garden in which numerous exotic plants have been collected, and two scientific academies, render Bologna little inferior to the most celebrated towns in Italy.

Ferrara, a place of less importance than Bologna, is the most northern town in the States of the Church. The streets are broad and straight, and one of them is equal to two thousand yards in length.^e The most remarkable edifice is the Gothic palace, once the residence of the dukes of Ferrara. Other monuments are connected with the illustrious house of Este. The ashes of Ariosto rest in the Lyceum, and in the hospital of St. Anne, may be seen the place where, (under the pretext of madness,) Tasso was seven years confined by Alphonso duke of Ferrara.

Marine deposits have gradually filled up the harbour, which Augustus constructed at Ravenna; the town is at present two leagues distant from the sea.^f The *Rotonda*, a curious church, was constructed in order that the sarcophagus of Theodoric might be placed in it; that monument was destroyed in 1512 by the French; but the tomb of Dante, near the cloister of the Franciscans, was decorated about forty years ago by Cardinal Gonzaga. Faenza has given its name to the glazed earthen ware, which the French call *faïence*; it was the birthplace of the celebrated Torricelli. Forli need only be mentioned for its cathedral and regular streets. The town of Rimini, built on the shores of the sea, was the place where the Flaminian and Æmilian roads terminated; it contains several ancient remains, among others a fine triumphal arch erected to Augustus, and the bridge commenced by the same emperor, and finished by Tiberius. The church of San Francesco, finished in 1450, was one of the first buildings in which the Roman was substituted for the Gothic architecture. The small town of Urbino boasts of having given birth to Raphael. Ancona is seen to most advantage from the sea; it stands on the side of a hill; the citadel rises at one extremity, and

^a *Perusia*.

^b The concordate between Francis I. and Leo X. was concluded Aug. 16, 1516. The king and the pope had their interview on the subject, Dec. 11 1515. (Moreri).—P.

^c They are said to amount to 200. (Ed. Encyc.)

^d The celebrated meridian line in Bologna is traced on the pavement of the church of St. Petronius.—P.

^e "That of St. Benedict is one thousand toises in length."

^f The port is now filled up with the mud and sand thrown up by the tide, which has formed a tract of land of three miles in extent, which separates the town from the sea. (Ed. Encyc.)

the cathedral at the other. The harbour extends in the form of a semicircle ; the mole, which projects into the sea, is sixty-eight feet in height and two thousand in length ; the streets are for the most part narrow and crooked. A triumphal arch was erected to Trajan, and at a later period, another to Benedict the Fourteenth, by whom the mole and the lazaretto were constructed.

Many, who visit Ancona, are induced to extend their journey to Loretto, a small town on a hill that commands the sea. It rose into celebrity from its statue of the virgin, formerly an object of so great veneration that before the Reformation, more than two hundred thousand pilgrims came to it every year, and deposited their offerings at the feet of the image. Loretto deserves a place in the history of superstition. According to tradition, angels carried away the house of the holy virgin at Nazareth, in the year 1291, and placed it near Tersato in Dalmatia ; three years afterwards, the same angels transported the same house to the coast of Italy, and deposited it a thousand paces from the sea, in the neighbourhood of Recanati. Eight months afterwards, the house, which was solid, stationed itself a thousand paces nearer the town ; it removed next to the lands of a noble lady, called Lauretta, and fixed itself on the very spot where Loretto has been since built. The house, still adored by the people, is thirty-two feet in length, thirteen in breadth, and eighteen in height ; many imagine it to be without any foundation, and that it rests on the ground. It was formerly a mere brick building ; it is now decorated

and incrustated with Carrara marble. The cedar-wood statue of the virgin stands above the fire-place in the eastern walls ; the garments with which the priests clothe the statue, are kept in a chest ;^a one of them, a red camlet gown, is said to have been worn by Mary herself. The earthen vessels which the holy family used, are deposited in another chest ;^b the window opposite the fire-place was the one by which the angel Gabriel entered. The house, which the inhabitants call the *Casa Santa*, stands in the middle of a church, enriched with more costly treasures than any other in the world.

Only four towns of any importance are situated between Loretto and the Neapolitan frontiers, namely, Macerata rising on a hill above a fruitful plain ; Fermo with a harbour much frequented by small vessels ; Camerino with an archiepiscopal palace, a university, and silk manufactories ; lastly, Ascoli, the ancient *Asculum*, and the metropolis of a bishopric.

The popes possess besides two small territories in the kingdom of Naples. Ponte Corvo on the banks of the Carigliano, peopled by five thousand inhabitants, is the chief town of the one, and the seat of a bishopric. Benevento, the metropolis of an archbishopric, contains several fine buildings, and the *Porta Aurea*, a marble triumphal arch raised in honour of Trajan.^c The first of these territories is enclosed by the Terra di Lavoro, and the last by the Principato Ultra.

^a Wardrobe (*armario sacro*.)

^b Cupboard niched in the wall near the Virgin.

^c The *Porta aurea* forms one of the entrances of the town. (Ed. Encyc.)

BOOK CXXXVI.

EUROPE.

*Europe Continued.—Description of Italy.—Sixth Section.
Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.*

THE *Liburni*, a nation that emigrated from the Illyrian mountains, settled in the country between the Alps and the Adige, about sixteen centuries before the vulgar era; but abandoning that marshy soil, fatal to man, and difficult of culture, they advanced southward along the shores of the Adriatic, and established themselves in the region between the mouth of the Chiento and the extremity of Calabria.^a The principal branches of the *Liburni* were the *Padiculi*, the *Apuli*, and the *Calabri*. The names of some of their tribes have given rise to considerable etymological research. Court de Gebelin supposes that the *Marrucini* on the right bank of the Pescara, were so called from the words *mar* and *ru*, the former signifying high or lofty, and the latter, a stream or rivulet. The *Peligni* dwelt in the Appennines, and the word *pal* signifies an elevated place. The *Frentani*, he affirms, derived their name from the word *ren* to flow, because their country was watered by several rivers, which descend to the Adriatic, but they might perhaps have been so denominated from one of those rivers, the ancient *Fronto*, or the modern Termoli,^b in the same manner as the names of different tribes in North America were found to be the same as those of rivers or mountains. According to some writers, the name of the *Calabri* was derived from the eastern word *calab*, which signifies resin, because their country was covered with pines. The territory to the west of the *Liburni*, towards the gulf of Tarentum, was called *Messapia* or *Japygia*. Mazzocchi makes a curious remark on the subject, namely, that the oriental word *massap* signifies wind, and the Hebrew word *japah*, it blew; thus the roots from which the two ancient names have been derived, are applicable even at the present day to the nature of the country. The lands in the Appennines round the lake *Fucinus*,^c which occupies part of an elevated basin, were inhabited by the *Marsi*; their name, says Court de Gebelin, comes from *mar*, a height, and *ci*, water. They were the neighbours of the *Peligni*. The *Marsi*, the *Peligni*, the *Marrucini*, and the *Frentani*, were not numerous, but brave and warlike; they resisted for a long time the power of Rome.^d

Sannium, the country of the *Sannites*, lay on the heights and sides of the Appennines to the south of the territory inhabited by the *Marsi*. The Greek geographer considers the *Sannites* the descendants of the *Sabini*; Court de Gebelin and La Martiniere arrive at the same conclusion from the etymology of their name; they might have been first called *Sabinites*, then *Sannites*, and lastly, *Sannites*. The

cause of their separation from the *Sabini* does not appear improbable; Strabo mentions the tradition. According to the custom of the most remote antiquity, the *Sabini*, (being engaged in a war with the *Ombri*, their neighbours,) vowed to consecrate to the gods whatever was produced within their territory in the course of the year. Their efforts were crowned with success, the animals and the crops were offered a sacrifice to the gods, and a famine was the natural consequence. One of the people remarked, that in order to fulfil their vow, the children born during the year should also be included in the offering; these were accordingly devoted to the god Mars. When arrived at the age of manhood, being compelled to expatriate themselves, they followed the chain of the Appennines, and settled at twenty leagues distance from their native land. They became a warlike and numerous people, being able to put eighty thousand foot soldiers and eight thousand horsemen under arms. Long the rivals of the Romans, they were not wholly subdued, until the dictator Sylla, having vanquished them, was inhuman enough to massacre in the field of Mars, the prisoners who had been induced to surrender themselves by the conditions which he himself had proposed.

"I may mention," says Strabo, "an excellent law of the *Sannites*, one well adapted to excite men to virtue. Fathers have not the right of choosing husbands for their daughters, but judges name twenty young persons, ten of each sex, whom they consider more meritorious than the rest; the most deserving virgin becomes the wife of the most deserving young man, the next is given to the next, and so on until they are all married. But if a husband who has received a prize, changes his mode of life, or from being virtuous, becomes wicked, he is rendered infamous and his wife is taken from him."^e

Campania, a country to the east of Sannium, was celebrated in ancient times for its fertility and diversified scenery; in the same region was situated Capua, of which the luxury was as fatal to the troops of Hannibal, as the plains of Cannæ had been to the Roman legions. The hills of Falernus beyond it, were covered with vineyards, while the neighbourhood of Baia and Pozzuoli was adorned with country houses, in which the degenerate Romans indulged in effeminacy and luxury.

"Vesuvius," says Strabo, "rises above these places, and with the exception of its summit, the soil is very fruitful. The summit, however, is sterile, and in appearance not unlike a heap of ashes. It may be inferred from the cavities in iron coloured rocks, which appear to have been calcined by fire, that the mountain was formerly a volcano,

^a The extremity of Japygia (*Japygium Promontorium*, Capo di Leuca.) Encyc. Method. Géog. Anc. In ancient geography, Calabria was synonymous with Japygia. It has now a very different application.—P.

^b The modern Fortore. De Anville.

^c The modern Celano.

^d Strabo, Book V. chapter 9. ^e Strabo, Book V, chap. 10, sect. 2.

containing fiery furnaces, which were extinguished, when the materials that supplied them, were exhausted."^a It is not a little remarkable to hear the Greek geographer speak of Vesuvius, nearly in the same terms that a person of the present day would apply to the extinguished volcanoes in Auvergne. The fertility of Campania induced different people to settle in it at different periods; it was inhabited by the *Opici* and the *Ausones*, before it was conquered by the *Osci*, who were in their turn expelled by the *Cymæi*,^b a Greek tribe that emigrated from *Æolia*, twelve centuries before the vulgar era. After having built twelve towns, of which Capua was the capital, the *Cymæi* were vanquished by the Samnites, who were themselves subdued by the Romans.

Lucania extended to the south-east of Campania from the gulf of Salernum to that of Tarentum. The *Lucani*, who inhabited the country, were a colony of the Samnites. Justin, after Trógus Pompeius, gives the following account of them. "As soon as the young men among the Lucani, arrive at the age of puberty, they are put out of the towns, and sent to the woods among the shepherds; there, without assistance, without clothing, and without beds, they are early accustomed to a laborious and frugal life; they have no other food than what they kill in the chase, no other drink than the water from the stream."^c Thus, they are inured in youth to whatever is most irksome and painful in the life of a soldier." At the time of their settling in the country, the coasts of eastern Italy, as well as Sicily, were peopled with Greek colonies, and their territory received the name of *Great Greece*.^d The neighbours of the Lucani made war against those new settlers; it was always their policy to oppose their invasions on the maritime districts. It was probably that policy which led to the destruction of *Sybaris*, a town situated at the mouth of the Sybaris, now the *Cosale*.^e It appears to have been of eastern origin, at least Mentelle derives its name from the word *sheber*, which in Hebrew signifies plenty. It is remarkable that when the Sybarites had rebuilt the same place, its Greek name, at first *Thourion*, then changed by the Latins into *Thurium*, and afterwards into *Copia* by the Romans, retained always the same signification. *Thor* in Chaldean signifies an ox, the emblem of agriculture; and *Copia* conveys the same idea of abundance. The country of the Sybarites was rich and populous; it contained no fewer than twenty-five towns, and an army of thirty thousand men could be raised in the event of a war. But the wealth and effeminacy of the inhabitants were the causes of their ruin.

The territory of Calabria was called *Bretium* or *Brutium* by the ancients. According to Strabo, the *Bretii* or *Bruttii* who inhabited it, migrated from Lucania, but Court de Gebelin considers the tradition doubtful, because the name of *Bretium* appears to come from the Celtic word *bret*, a forest. The Syrian word *bruta* signifies a resinous tree; *Brutium* might therefore denote a country abounding with pines. It has been already shown that the root of the word Calabria signifies resin. Some degree of probability may be attached to these etymologies, from the fact that they correspond very exactly with the productions of the soil in different parts of southern Italy.

^a Strabo, Book V. chap. 10. sect. 1. ^b *Cumæi*, the founders of *Cumæ*.

^c "Potus, aut lactis, aut fontium liquor erat." Justin. Lib. xxiii. c. 1.

^d *Magna Græcia* — In the original, the term is applied to the coasts of Eastern Italy; but the whole southern part of Italy, comprising Apulia, Calabria (*antiqua*), Lucania, and the country of the Bruttii, was called *Magna Græcia*.—P.

Sicily was first inhabited by the *Sicani*, a people of Basque or Iberian origin, by whom the country was called *Sicania*. Conquered by the *Siculi* or *Sicili*, a Dalmatian people, that had settled in Latium, the island received the name of *Sicilia* from its new masters. The ancient kings of Sicily were denominated *tyrants*;^f they are celebrated in history by their despotism and their invasions of the coasts of Italy. After the death of Dionysius, one of these princes, the island was at different times subdued by the Greeks, the Carthaginians, the *Mamertini*, who were a tribe of the Bruttii, and, lastly, by the Romans.

The four provinces which composed what is now called the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, were devastated by the Ostrogoths after the fall of the empire. Narses subdued them in the year 553, and compelled the inhabitants to submit to the emperor at Constantinople. Thirty years afterwards, Autharis, king of Lombardy, took possession of those provinces, and founded the duchy of Benevento; Naples, Salerno, Capua and Taranto were within the dominions of its dukes.

Apulia and Calabria continued subject to the Greek emperors. In the eleventh century, some Norman gentlemen, returning from a pilgrimage to the holy land, (at that time pilgrims carried arms along with them,) remained some time at Salerno. While they resided at the court of the Lombard prince Guimar, the Saracens, then masters of Sicily, invaded the port, and exacted contribution from the prince and the inhabitants. The Normans, although much inferior in number, would not suffer infidels to plunder the town without resistance; their courage supplied them with strength, and but few of the Saracens returned to Sicily. The people, grateful to their liberators, loaded them with presents; and, after their return to Normandy, their success prompted many of their countrymen to seek wealth and fortune in Italy. An expedition was accordingly fitted out under the command of Ranulph. That chief after having rendered important services to the Greek and Lombard princes, obtained permission from them to fortify and settle in Aversa, between Naples and Capua. Ranulph's successors were surpassed in their exploits by the achievements of the sons of Tancred. Their alliance was courted by the princes of Great Greece, but the covetousness of the latter occasioned dissensions between them and the Ultramontanes. Manasses, general of the Greek troops, led an army into Sicily, but that army could not vanquish without the French, who gave signal proofs of their valour; whilst they were pursuing the Saracens in their mountains, the Greeks shared the booty taken from the enemy. The Normans deputed Ardoin, one of their chiefs, to remonstrate with their allies against so flagrant an act of injustice. The Norman was scourged, conducted round the camp, and returned covered with blood to his friends. It was difficult to restrain the impetuosity of the soldiers burning to avenge their general, or to prevent them from marching against the Greeks, but Ardoin conceived the bold project of making himself master of Apulia, and his companions seconded him with so much ardour, that the conquest was an easy one. William, surnamed the *Iron Arm*,^g eldest son of Tancred, and after him Dreux and Onfroy, his two brothers, founded several principalities; lastly,

^e Coscile.

^f The word tyrant (*τυραννος*), in its original acceptation, signified merely a prince or sovereign.—P.

^g William, surnamed *Bracchio di Ferro* (*Bras de Fer*. M.B. *Fierabras*, Moreri,) or William with the *Iron Arm*. Guthrie & Gray's Univ Hist. v. X. p. 45.—P.

Robert, the fourth of Tancred's twelve sons, and who from his great cunning was surnamed *Guiscard*, extended these conquests. Master of Apulia, Calabria, and the principalities of Salerno and Benevento, he obtained from the pope the title of duke. Roger, his brother, conquered Sicily with a handful of Normans, and took the title of count. His son Roger, heir of Robert Guiscard's dominions, forced the emperor Lothaire and Pope Innocent the Second to acknowledge him as king; his possessions comprehended almost all the territory, which forms at present the kingdom of the Two Sicilies.^a

It was thus that the Normans established themselves in southern Italy; William the Third, the last of their princes, succeeded to the throne; when too young to reign, his mother Sibylla was appointed regent. The emperor Henry the Sixth, who was related to the same family, had been nominated protector; by his instructions Sibylla was confined in prison, and he condemned her son to perpetual bondage after having deprived him of his sight and virility. Master of the throne of Naples, his ambition might have been satisfied, but his cruelty excited him to new crimes, and all the partisans of the Norman princes were destroyed. His avarice prompted him to other acts of injustice; while Richard *Cœur de Lion* was passing through his dominions, Henry confined him in prison, in order to obtain a ransom. The same emperor seized the possessions of the church, and distributed them among his favourites. The last usurpation brought upon him the thunders of the Vatican; but having been reconciled with the church, he commenced anew his cruelties in Italy with so much atrocity that his wife put herself at the head of the insurgents and confined him in a castle. Not long afterwards the empress believing her husband penitent restored him to liberty, and he was preparing to atone for his crimes by a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, when he was poisoned in 1197, bearing the surname of Cruel, which he had too well deserved. The descendants of Henry reigned at Naples until the year 1265, when the investiture was bestowed by the pope on the conqueror, who had defeated the usurper Manfred.^b

Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Louis, promised to fulfil the intentions of Rome; although it was well known that the nearest heir was alive, reports were circulated concerning his death; the accession of Charles was therefore a new usurpation; indeed he himself used to affirm that his government could only be maintained by an iron sceptre. Conradin, the grandson of Henry the Sixth, laid claim to the throne, but he was defeated and decapitated by Charles, an event that tended to increase the hatred of the Sicilians towards their new master. The severity of his government, and the French garrisons in all the towns, reminded the people of his conquest over them. The French, besides, were dangerous rivals near their wives; these and other causes led to important results. Procida, a proscribed person, conceived the bold design of liberating his country; he was supported by the pope, the Greek emperor, and the king of Arragon. Having disguised himself, he travelled through Sicily, and excited the inhabitants to revolt; the king of Arragon, not unprepared for action, had a fleet on the coast of Africa, under pretext of watching the Moors. In the year 1282, on the day before Easter, a lady of Palermo

was insulted by a Frenchman during a procession, an insult that gave rise to the revolt, which has been styled the *Sicilian vespers*. The tumult might have been soon quelled, had it not been for the conspiracy of Procida; the people rushed to arms, and massacred the French. The conspirators invited the king of Arragon and his fleet to their assistance, and proclaimed him sovereign. The consequence of that event was the separation of Naples and Sicily; the former continued under the house of Anjou until the year 1382, but in the following century, the two crowns were again united. The possession of Naples and Sicily was the occasion of many wars between France, Spain and the Empire. The Spanish branch of the house of Bourbon ruled over the two countries, until the last king fled for refuge to Sicily in 1805. Naples was first given to Joseph Buonaparte by his brother, and afterwards to Joachim Murat in 1808. The old government was restored in 1815.

San Germano, on the side of the Appennines, near the site of two ancient cities—*Casinum* and *Aquinum*, of which some ruins still remain, is the first town of any importance, on the frontiers of the *Terra di Lavoro*. Murat was defeated in 1815, near the fortress that commands San Germano. The abbot of Monte Cassino resides in the town. The abbey or convent, presenting a front of more than five hundred feet, stands on the summit of a steep mountain. A fine library and a collection of antiquities, are contained in the building. The ashes of St. Benedict, its founder, and St. Scholastica are deposited in the church. The Benedictines of Monte Cassino were formerly the proprietors and the lords of all the neighbouring lands, which now belong to the crown. Banditti infest the country round the abbey; the dead bodies suspended at different distances on the branches of trees, announce the punishment that awaits them, but do not intimidate or deter them from the commission of crimes. The Appennines in the same part of the country exhibit a peculiar aspect; snow still lingers on many heights in the month of June, exhibiting streaks of silvery whiteness, which together with the fine walnut trees, render them not unlike the Alps in Switzerland. The peasants do not inhabit the vallies, because they are unhealthy; but in summer they collect the cherries, and employ themselves in other rural labours. The reapers amuse themselves by dancing to the accompaniment of the *zampogna* or rustic flute. Eight men form a circle by taking hold of each other's hands; as many girls leap on their shoulders, and remain while the men dance, pass alternately under one another's arms and make a thousand evolutions; the girls then descend, and dance or sing in the middle of the circle; lastly, at a given signal, every man receives in his arms her whom he carried on his back. The robust appearance of the men, and the slender figures of their partners, together with the motley costume of the latter, have rather a ludicrous effect; two pieces of cloth, the one red, and the other green, encompass their waists; a silver pin binds their long black hair, which sets off their fine complexion.

It has more than once been remarked, that in proportion as nature is prodigal of her treasures, in the same ratio does man become careless and slothful. The truth of the observation may be confirmed by visiting Italy, and by comparing it with other countries. It ought not, however, to

^a Sismondi, Histoire des Républiques Italiennes. A. de la Salle, Histoire des Princes de Normandie en Sicile.

^b Urban IV. published a Crusade against Manfred (*Mainfroy*), and offered the investiture of the Sicilian crown as a reward for his expulsion. This offer was accepted by Charles of Anjou, who arrived at Rome in May

1265, and after having been solemnly crowned, invaded the kingdom of Naples. A decisive battle was fought at Benevento; the Neapolitans deserted Manfred, who was entirely defeated and killed on the field, Feb. 26, 1266.—P.

be concluded that the *far niente*,^a which distinguishes the Italian, is the effect of climate. The people have retained nothing of the activity and energy of their ancestors; it would be more correct to attribute the change to moral rather than to physical causes. Charity, so wisely enjoined by the founder of Christianity, but which when applied, must be directed with judgment by legislators and the interpreters of divine truths, has contributed not a little in countries where industry has not received the necessary impulse from government, to encourage indolence and servility, and to produce corruption and all the vices and crimes which the lower orders of society are tempted to commit. What man has visited Italy without remarking the arrogance with which the mendicant exacts the wages of his importunity? He supposes that his wretchedness gives him a right to what he implores; that notion leads to another; he considers mendicity as a trade,—a sort of industry; shame is then banished from the mind, and if the means of subsistence can be procured by alms, the people choose to beg rather than to work. A person without education and virtue, can perceive little difference between demanding as a supplicant, and exacting as a robber. It is not therefore wonderful that highway robbery should be a profession in countries where mendicity is a trade.

Beggars and bandits, the scourges of Italy, are as common in the kingdom of Naples as in the States of the Church. Between Terracina, on the frontiers of the Roman states, and Fondi, a miserable Neapolitan town inhabited by mendicants, the *banditti* have established their head quarters. Although military posts are stationed at every quarter of a league, a stranger may consider himself fortunate if he escape an attack. Scouts stationed on the rocks that command the road, apprise their chief of a traveller's approach; in a moment, these men, accustomed to descend the steepest heights, intercept the road almost within sight of the soldiers stationed to repel them. Wo to the brave traveller who offers to resist them; he may atone for his temerity with his life. To carry nothing which may excite their avarice is not always a security. The inspection of a passport or other papers suffices to indicate the profession or rank of the person to whom they belong, and he remains a hostage until the sum fixed for his ransom has been paid by a friend or correspondent. They seldom wait longer than the stipulated time for the ransom; if it does not arrive within the limited period, the prisoners are put to death. These men, inured to every sort of crime, are in many instances the fathers of families; they cultivate their fields, and obey implicitly him whom they have chosen for their chief. They wear a particular dress,—buskins or sandals attached by cords that reach to the middle of the leg, a broad girdle bound by a silver clasp, pantaloons and waistcoat of blue cloth, with buttons of the same metal, an open shirt, a conical hat encircled with different coloured ribbons, a short but loose mantle of a brown colour, and a belt, to which are suspended a sabre, a dagger, a spoon and a fork. All of them carry fire arms;^b and wear on their breast an image of the Virgin or the infant Jesus. Saint Anthony is their favourite patron; why they have chosen that peaceful hermit cannot be easily determined.

The dangers one encounters in the six leagues' stage between Terracina and Fondi, and the wretched aspect of the inhabitants, may heighten, by contrast, the beauty of the valley in which the last town is situated. The principal street stands on the Appian way. Bean fields diffuse their fragrance round the neighbouring country; the roads are lined with hedges of aloe, or with orange, lemon and cypress trees. At the sight of such profusion, a traveller may be tempted to ask, why nature has lavished these treasures on a sensual and indolent people. Historical associations give new charms to the varied and picturesque scenery, and to the fine views that, in the neighbourhood of Mola,^c are bounded by the Mediterranean. Near that town, Cicero had his country house, and on the very road by which strangers travel at present, the assassins suborned by Anthony, seized the Roman orator.

Gaeta, which rises like an amphitheatre on the shores of the sea, was the ancient *Caieta*; its harbour was repaired by Antoninus Pius, and its present walls were built by Charles the Fifth; within these walls may be seen the tomb of the Constable Bourbon, whose body was deprived of the rites of sepulture from the year 1528 to 1757, because he had been excommunicated.

Capua has nothing in common with the luxurious *Capua* of the ancients, but the name. It is situated half a league from the ancient town.^d It was founded by the Lombards in the year 856; and the streets are as dirty at present, as they were in the time of those barbarians. Caserta, which owes its origin to the same people, contains only one remarkable edifice,—the magnificent palace built in 1752 by Charles the Third of Spain. These places lead to Naples, the *Neapolis* of the Romans, and the *Parthenope* of the Greeks; the last of whom, in their brilliant fictions, attributed its foundation to the siren Parthenope, to indicate the safety of its harbour, and its maritime importance.

Naples stands on a gulf, of which the outline is equal to fifty miles in extent; the town and the suburbs are not less than eight miles in circumference. The broad quays; the castle of the Egg (*Castel dell' Uovo*) on an insulated rock; that of Saint Elmo which protrudes into the sea;^e the island of Capri, rising like a sterile rock from the water; the blackish colour of Vesuvius, which menaces the town with its destructive fires, its sides covered with the richest verdure, and dotted with white points or so many country houses; the blue mountains that terminate in the promontory of Massa; the town of *Castel a Mare*, built on the ruins of the ancient *Stabia*, near which the elder Pliny perished, while contemplating the eruption by which Pompeii was destroyed; lastly, Sorrento on the sea shore, the birth place of Tasso, form together a landscape, of which the magnificence surpasses the most gorgeous description. He who sees, for the first time, the splendid panorama unfolding itself before him, may be ready to exclaim with the Neapolitan, *Vedi Napoli e poi muori*.^f

The crowded quays announce a populous city, but to judge of Naples, one must repair to the street of Toledo.^g No street in Paris is so noisy, none exhibits so much confusion; the crowds on a Sunday are so great as to render it almost impossible for foot passengers to proceed, and yet three hundred carriages pass along it with great velocity,

^a "The propensity to idleness"—(*far niente*, to do nothing.)

^b "Muskets."

^c Mola di Gaeta.

^d The ancient city of Capua stood about two miles S. E. of the present town.—P.

^e The castle of St. Elmo stands on the highest point of the mountain overlooking the whole city—the *Castel dell' Uovo* projects into the sea.—P.

^f See Naples and then die, or in plain English, there is nothing worth seeing after Naples.—P.

^g Strada di Toledo.

and cross each other in every direction. The Tolcdo may be called a perpetual fair; the *Aquaiolo* distributes his refreshing beverage, the lazzarone sells his figs, the mountebank exhibits his wonders, and mixing the sacred with the profane, gives his hearers some notion of future bliss from the pleasure they experience in eating his macaroni. Sometimes, a funeral procession advances in the midst of the throng, with all the pomp of a triumph. The coffin is deposited in a sort of ark or chest, resplendent with gold and silver, and resting on a bier covered with crimson velvet.

The motion and the bustle which distinguish Naples, are no proofs of industry or labour. The Neapolitans agitate and torment themselves without doing any thing, as they quarrel and menace each other without ever coming to blows. It may be readily conceived that these remarks are only applicable to the lower orders, but in such classes the national character is most easily observed. The general hatred against those who hold the balance of Themis, may proceed from the conviction that the laws are unjustly administered. If a person, caught in the act of picking another's pocket, be beaten or scourged, the people approve of the correction, but if he be conducted to the tribunal, they murmur,—they are dissatisfied. If a crime has been committed, the people pity the man who has suffered from it; but if the criminal be apprehended, he then becomes an object of sympathy. Let not the reader confound in these characteristic traits, pity for the man who is justly punished, with the jealous hatred that the people bear towards the wealthy or privileged classes, who are too often suffered to commit offences with impunity. There is no town where the inhabitants make such use of their canes as at Naples; if an individual were to strike a hackney-coachman in London or Paris, he might be repaid with interest, but the hackney-coachmen of Naples submit to castigation with the greatest patience.

The Lazzaroni lead a very monotonous life. Idle from choice, and servile from indolence or want of energy, they rarely disturb the tranquillity of the town where the police does little or nothing for the public safety. They have only evinced their hostile intentions on a few great occasions, and under a government odious to every class of the community. These men who obtain as much macaroni as they can eat for three halfpence, and quench their thirst with iced water for a farthing, may easily satisfy their most urgent wants. Ice is as much an article of necessity at Naples, as bread is in temperate regions, and government takes care that the people have it at a cheap rate. It has been said that a day without ice might make the Neapolitans revolt, and there is more truth in the saying than many are apt to suppose. Mendicity assumes all its varied forms to deceive the stranger, or move the pity of the passenger; theft, too, is very common; if a person does not use great precautions, he is in continual danger of losing his watch or his handkerchief. So great is the dexterity of the pickpockets, that one might believe the ancient Parthenope had been founded by a colony of Spartans.

The revolution by which Joseph Buonaparte, and afterwards Joachim Murat, were raised to the throne of Naples, was attended with the inconvenience of removing some favourites, and of giving a new direction to royal favour. But it had the advantage of bringing forward superior men, and such as were animated with good intentions, and even the present government has profited by the useful lesson, which

the usurpation afforded. Good roads were made into remote provinces, and industry was encouraged; order was introduced into the administration, and a regular code of laws was substituted for the inextricable confusion of ill-digested and contradictory precedents; assassins were disarmed; and the revenue, although almost doubled by oppressive taxes on the rich, was at least expended among the poor and stimulated their industry. Public schools for the lower orders were established at the expense of government, and the teachers received a fixed salary of fifteen ducats a month. Although these schools were ill attended at first, the number of scholars increased gradually, and they are still increasing, for they have not yet been abolished. The rising generation among the lower orders in the town can now read and write, a degree of knowledge which is by no means common in the country. Murat, in the year 1807, established fourteen royal colleges, and appointed able professors; they were attended by six thousand students, but the number has decreased. Boys of noble or rich families are rarely sent to college; some have private tutors, or receive lessons at home from the professors of colleges; but a great many, brought up among servants, receive no education, and few instances are to be found of young men, who are devoted to literary or scientific pursuits. Of the women, comparatively few are now sent to a convent to be educated. Queen Caroline, the wife of Murat, established, at the expense of government, a seminary for young ladies of noble families, something like the one at St. Denis in France, and the present authorities keep up the institution.

Among the rich, pride and vanity are the motives of every action. Women above the lower ranks, seldom or never walk in the streets; those who cannot afford a carriage, doom themselves to perpetual imprisonment in their own houses, or only go to church with one or two poor lazzaroni, hired for the occasion, who put on an antiquated livery, and carry a book and a cushion. Good natured husbands sometimes perform the office, thinking, probably, that they cannot be recognized in the disguise of a footman, and choosing to gratify vanity at the expense of pride.^a The luxury of the rich is displayed in their horses and carriages; as to their morals, they do not think it necessary to sacrifice realities to appearances; a lady talks of her intrigues as she would of her domestic duties, and of her lovers as of her husband.

The largest and most commodious houses are situated in the Chiaja, the finest of the five suburbs that communicate with Naples. It extends westwards, and is terminated by a long quay or rather a public walk planted with orange and lemon trees, and adorned with lawns and fountains. It is there that the Farnese bull, a *chef-d'œuvre* of antiquity, has been placed; near it may be seen the bust of Tasso, for which the French erected a rotundo supported by white marble columns. The finest coffee-houses in Naples are situated in the same walk, which is crowded every evening with carriages. The different quarters of the town are embellished with fountains, and the water is supplied by an aqueduct, that extends from the base of Mount Vesuvius. All the squares in Naples, with the exception of that in front of the royal palace, are small and irregular; the dark and narrow streets near the centre of the town are lined with lofty houses; the smooth black pavement is formed by large blocks of lava from Vesuvius.

The theatre of San Carlos, which communicates with the royal palace, is more remarkable than any other from its dimensions and elegant structure. None of the palaces can be compared with the one inhabited by the sovereign. The architecture is modern; the front extends to the distance of six hundred feet, and contains twenty-two windows and three doors adorned with granite columns, which support balconies.

The cathedral is also called the *Vescovado* and the church of San Gennaro or St. Januarius, a personage held in veneration by the people, and whose blood, preserved in two small vials, excites the joy or despair of the populace according as it dissolves or remains coagulated on the nineteenth of September, the birthday of the patron saint. The church is of Gothic architecture, and it stands on the ruins of a temple consecrated to Apollo. Of the other two hundred churches in the town, there are hardly any worthy of Italy.^a

Naples, says Doctor Valentin,^b had not before the last century, a number of charitable institutions, proportionate to its population. There are at present twelve hospitals, including the hospital of Invalids, the Foundling Hospital, and the *Recluserio*. The hospital of Incurables is the largest and best kept in the town; nearly a thousand patients are confined in it, but it might contain double the number. Four clinical chairs dependant on the university are attached to the institution; the first relates to medicine, the second to surgery, the third to midwifery, and the fourth to diseases of the eye.

The industry of the Neapolitans is confined to a few manufactures, such as silk stuffs, ribbons and silk stockings; many are also employed in making macaroni and different kinds of pastry. The perfumed soaps and the musical strings of Naples are exported to different countries. The confits of the same town, particularly the *diavolini*, are said to be the best in Italy.

We have already spoken of the catacombs at Rome; those near Naples are more extensive. They occupy the cavities in a height situated to the north of the town. The galleries, cut in a sandy volcanic rock, which was worked at a very remote period, are in several places eighteen or twenty feet broad by fourteen high. These galleries were used as cemeteries during the first centuries of the Christian era.

Pompeii^c is the most interesting object of antiquity in the vicinity of Naples; it was buried by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius, the fires of which have hitherto spared Naples, although both places are situated nearly at equal distances from the mountain, the first in a westerly direction, the other towards the north.^d When the volcano which had ceased to burn, at a date anterior to the historical period, commenced anew in the year seventy-nine of the Christian era, Pompeii was overwhelmed by a deluge of ashes, water and mud. The greater number of the inhabitants had in all probability full time to escape with their most valuable effects,—a fact that may be inferred from the inconsiderable number of skeletons which have been hitherto discovered,—not one hundred in all,—and from the small quantity either of jewels or money. They might have returned after the catastrophe to collect whatever was of value, for it is very

remarkable that the lowest stratum appears to have been pierced or broken, while the upper do not. Eight strata of volcanic deposits succeed each other; from which it may be concluded that eruptions have taken place at different times in the same direction. Scoriæ and pumice, but no lava, are found among the igneous products. A modern may walk in the streets, and enter the houses of Pompeii. The high road that leads to it, is paved with huge pieces of lava, irregularly shaped, but arranged so as to fit each other, and presenting a tolerably flat surface; from the narrowness of the road, however, the wheels run constantly in the same track, which is deeply marked on the stones. The walls of the town were first cleared, and the whole circumference is now exposed to view. These walls which from certain ancient characters on many parts of them, appear to have been founded by the *Osci*, long before the foundation of Rome, are about twenty feet in perpendicular height on the outside, but they form inside an inclined plane with narrow steps for the soldiers to ascend to the top. The barracks are in a good state of preservation; they resemble a cloister for monks, being a quadrangular court with high walls and small rooms without windows, under a projecting roof supported by pillars. The indecent sketches and writings on the walls by the Roman soldiers,—the fruits of their idleness,—have excited great curiosity. The rubbish has been taken away from two theatres, an amphitheatre, and most of the houses in the town. It may be thus seen that it was customary for the ancients to write the names of the proprietors^e above the doors of the houses.

Herculaneum, buried under torrents of lava, above which a town is built,^f has only been explored in order to collect the treasures, which give so much interest to the museum in the royal palace at Portici. The excavations which were made have been since filled up, with the exception of the theatre. The town was larger and more important than Pompeii; it may be regretted that it cannot be seen.

The finest views of Naples are from the palace of Portici, and from the *Capo di Monte*, where one may count its palaces and churches, and observe the islands which rise at the entrance of its gulf, and the sea lost in the horizon. But the garden of *Camaldoli* is not less celebrated; situated on the summit of a volcanic hill twelve hundred feet in height, near a convent in which the monks are so insensible to the magic of a natural landscape, that they wonder why so many strangers visit them. The view extends towards the north, over the vast plains of Campania, bounded by the mountains of the *Abruzzi*, and Naples appears on one side between *Pozzuoli* and *Vesuvius*. From the same gardens are seen the lake of *Avernus*, no longer exhaling the noxious vapours mentioned by *Virgil*, and no longer suffocating the birds that fly above its surface; the *Solfatara*, anciently called the valley of *Phlegra*, or the *Forum Vulcani*; the lake of *Agnano*, from whose bubbling waters streams of hydrogen escape; the *Fusaro*, the *Acheron* of the poets; and lastly, *Baia*, the ancient *Baia*, of which the soil is now arid and sterile, but its enchanting sites induced *Cæsar* and *Nero* to build palaces near the temples of *Diana*, *Venus* and *Hercules*.

We may now descend from *Camaldoli*, and direct our

^a "Of the two hundred churches in Naples, there is none whose portal is worthy of Italy."

^b *Voyage en Italie.*

^c "*Pompeia.*"

^d Pompeii is situated on the south-western slope of *Vesuvius*; Naples to the north-west.—P.

^e "*Locataires,*" tenants.

^f *Portici.*

steps to the hill called *Monte Pausilippo*,^a a promontory that separates Naples from the Phlegrean fields. A subterranean road, supposed to be the most ancient work of the kind, passes through the hill. "The road," says Strabo, "extends through the mountain situated between *Neapolis* (Naples) and *Dicæarchia* (Pozzuoli.) The breadth is so great, that carriages pass each other without inconvenience, and the light of day is admitted in many places by apertures, dug to a great depth from the surface of the mountain."^b The account given by the Greek geographer, is a very correct one, of the grotto of Pozzuoli,^c which is equal to eighty or ninety feet in height, to twenty-four or thirty in breadth, and to two thousand one hundred and eighty in length. The excavations were not attended with much difficulty, as the mountain is wholly composed of volcanic tufa, or peperino. Although paved, it is always covered with dust; the light enters at the two extremities, and by two apertures near the middle. The servants of the wealthy carry torches before them; but foot passengers are contented with lanterns, and the feeble glimmerings that pass through the openings. Twice a year, in October and February, the last rays of the setting sun penetrate through the long vista.

Temples, amphitheatres, and other ancient ruins, are scattered along the coast, between the subterranean passage and Cape Miseno. The small town of Pozzuoli, after having been exposed to the devastations of barbarians, was overturned in 1538 by an earthquake. The cathedral stands near the ruins of a temple dedicated to Augustus. Some parts of its ancient amphitheatre remain; but at no great distance from the town is seen the temple of Serapis, a monument worthy to fix the attention of the antiquarian and geologist. It stands on the shore, at fifteen feet above the level of the sea; it was, at a period beyond the reach of tradition, buried under volcanic ashes. About seventy years ago these deposits were removed; the pavement of the temple was uncovered, and there were found marble vessels to receive the blood of the victims, brass rings to fasten them, broken statues and columns. But what is very extraordinary, pholades had pierced those parts of the marble columns still standing, with innumerable holes, that reach to the height of five or six feet. These marine mollusca are very common in the European seas; they are bivalvular, and armed with teeth and several accessory parts, which, by a rotatory movement, penetrate the hardest calcareous rocks.^d But the marble of which the columns are formed, exhibits no other traces of these animals; it must be supposed, therefore, that the holes have been made since the catastrophe by which the temple was covered with volcanic ashes. To explain the phenomenon, it has been supposed that the sea had risen at least to the height of the marks left by the pholades. But the fallacy of such an opinion may be easily shown; in the first place, the event must have happened since the commencement of our era; secondly, several ancient towns, situated on the coasts of the Mediterranean, and Naples itself, must have been destroyed by such a cala-

mity. It is true, that during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, as Simond remarks, the coast of Baiæ was exposed to several volcanic shocks, and the ruins now submerged prove that the ground has sunk in many places. But if it be attempted to explain the phenomena connected with the temple of Serapis by such facts, it must be supposed, what is inadmissible,^e that the land has risen after having been once submerged, for the pavement of the temple is still higher than the level of the sea. Thus, it happens, that vague conjectures are the consequence of careless observation. When the volcanic deposits were removed, and the edifice was uncovered, a small lake, formed after the outlet of a stream had been closed by the deposits, watered its base. The lake might have become salt by the hydrochlorate of soda,^f contained in certain products of Vesuvius; and if it be supposed, what is not improbable, that the waters of the lake communicated, for some time, at least, by a subterranean passage with the sea, the presence of these pholades, and their long continuance in the lake, may be classed among the number of those physical facts, which, however extraordinary, are by no means irreconcilable with the laws of nature.

A monument, on the opposite side of Mount Posilippo, formed by a large square base, constructed of stones and bricks, on which a circular tower rises, commands the respect and admiration of travellers; it is the tomb of Virgil. The interior consists of a square and vaulted chamber, and the tomb is covered with earth, on which many shrubs grow: it is shaded by evergreen oaks, but the laurel planted by Petrarch exists no longer. The people say that the roots are still to be found—that they are immortal like the ashes of the divine poet, and that they bud, if the soil be moistened with rain, but that travellers pull the leaves as soon as they appear.

It has been seen that the small province of Naples contains many places of great celebrity. We shall now proceed to the other provinces of the kingdom. Salerno, the ancient *Salernum*, is situated in the *Citerior Principality*;^g it was fortified by the Romans, that they might be better able to control the *Picentini*, who had embraced the party of Hannibal.^h One part of the town extends along the sea shore, and the other rises in the form of an amphitheatre to the castle that commands it. The cathedral, surrounded by a portico supported by ancient pillars of porphyry, contains the tomb of Pope Gregory the Seventh, and, according to tradition, the ashes of St. Matthew the evangelist. The port, situated at the bottom of a gulf, was the most frequented on the coast before Naples rose into importance. But the celebrity of Salerno, in the eleventh century, depended principally on its school of philosophy and medicine; several precepts, which emanated from the school, were long obeyed as oracular.ⁱ The ruins of Policastro, formerly *Palæocastrum*, rise at the extremity of a gulf; near it may be seen the remains of the three temples of *Pæstum*, now Pesto; they were built by the Sybarites.

Part of the Appennines are situated in the *Uterior Prin-*

^a Posilipo, Posilippo, Pausilypo.

^b Strabo, Book V. chap. 10. sect. 1.

^c Grotto of Pausilippo.

^d Simond is mistaken in supposing that the pholades exude a chemical acid, and thus perforate the rocks in which they are found. It is known, besides, that they make holes in wood; and if their physical structure enabled them to secrete a solvent as powerful as nitric acid, it is certain that epicures would not consider them a great delicacy, or give so much for them as they do at present.

^e How inadmissible? Might it not have been submerged by one convulsion, and elevated by another?—P.

^f Muriate of soda, common salt.

^g Il Principato Citra.

^h Strabo, Book V. chap. 10. sect. 3.

ⁱ The *Schola Salernitana de conservanda valetudine*, or a collection of precepts on the preservation of health, in Latin verse.—P.

cipality.^a Avellino, its capital, was the ancient *Abellinum Hirpinorum*. The streets, though broad, are irregular; the public walks are shaded with fine trees. The produce of its territory consists in chestnuts, and in the large filbert called *avellana*, from the name of the town. The Val di Gargano occupies the site of the Caudine Forks (*Caudinæ Furculæ*;) where the Romans passed under the yoke of the Samnites. Ariano, a place of more importance than Avellino, is built at a greater height on the Appennines.

Near the summits of the same mountains, and at some distance from the last town, is situated Aquila, the metropolis of the *Second Ulterior Abruzzo*;^b it carries on a considerable trade in saffron, and four great fairs are held in it every year. The town has been more than once injured by earthquakes, and a small fort is the only part of its old fortifications that now remains. The antiquities which are contained in it, were discovered in the neighbourhood, on the site of *Amiternum*, the birthplace of the historian Salust. To the northeast, in the *First Ulterior Abruzzo*,^c Teramo rises in the middle of a plain, between the Appennines and the Adriatic Sea; it possesses some woollen manufactories, and, in proportion to its size, an extensive trade in grain. Proceeding towards the southeast, the traveller reaches the banks of the Pescara, a river which descends from the Appennines to the Adriatic, and waters near its mouth a small town, to which it has given its name. Chieti, the chief town of the *Citerior Abruzzo*,^d stands on its right bank; it is pleasantly situated, well built, and contains several fine edifices, among others a cathedral, and a very large seminary. It was the chief town of the *Marrucini*, and the *Teate* of the Romans, from which the *Theatines*, a celebrated religious order, have derived their name. The order of the *Theatines* was founded in 1524, by Caraffa, the archbishop of the town, who was afterwards Pope Paul the Fourth. Lanciano carries on a considerable trade in muscadine wine.

Campobasso, once famous for its cutlery, is situated in the province of *Molise*.^e The adjoining province of *Capitanata* forms the greater part of Apulia.^f It is divided in the direction of southwest to northeast, by a chain of calcareous heights, that terminates at Mount Gargano (*Garganus Mons*;) their declivities and the surrounding hills form a large promontory on the Adriatic. The summits are covered with forests, in which are collected, as in ancient times, manna, turpentine and pitch. A large sandy plain extends on the south of the chain to the sea. The port of Manfredonia is the most important harbour in the province, although large vessels cannot enter it. The town was built in 1256 by Manfred, who gave it his name. Foggia, the chief town of the *Capitanata*, was destroyed by an earthquake in 1732, but it has been rebuilt with elegance and regularity. The *Candelaro*, which flows beneath its walls, facilitates its trade in grain. The people have long been in the habit of preserving their corn in vaulted and subterranean magazines, buildings not unlike the ancient *silos*.

Near the limits of the *Terra di Bari*, not far from the banks of the Ofanto,^g is situated the *Campo di Sangue*, or field of blood; it is there that the famous battle of Cannæ

was fought. The village of Cannæ, on the right of the river, stands on the site of the ancient Cannæ. The town of Canosa, the ancient *Canusium*, founded by Diomedes, was destroyed by an earthquake, in 1694. The pope had a palace there, and the emperor Henry the Fourth stood at its gate during three days, in the winter of 1077, imploring pardon from Gregory the Seventh, by whom he had been excommunicated.

The *Terra di Bari*, a province destitute of wood, but abounding in salt, forms part of the ancient Apulia. Altamura, the largest town beyond the Appennine chain, which traverses the province, contains sixteen thousand inhabitants. If Bitonto be excepted, a place that carries on a great trade in an excellent wine, called *zagarello*, the principal towns on the eastern side of the mountains are situated on the sea coast. Trani, one of them, forms an enclosure round its harbour, which scarcely contains sufficient water for ordinary boats. It is related, that in 1502, a time when people talked more of national glory than at present, eleven Frenchmen, and as many Spaniards, fought under the walls of Trani, to support the respective honour of the two countries. The combat continued until six of the Spaniards remained against four of the Frenchmen, when the latter dismounted and defended themselves behind their horses, until night put an end to the contest, and left the victory undecided. Barletta, another sea port, about two leagues to the northwest of Trani, was founded by one of the Norman chiefs who conquered Apulia. Several moles serve to protect the harbour against the billows, and an ancient citadel may defend the town in the event of a foreign attack. Bari, the chief town of the province, was thrice destroyed, and as often rebuilt; but its narrow and crooked streets, and the absence of any thing like a fine building hardly entitle it to its rank as capital. It possesses a harbour which, although small, offers a safe asylum for ships.

The *Terra di Otranto*, a continuation of the *Terra di Bari*, forms what the ancient geographers called the heel of the Italian boot. *Brundisium*, now Brindisi, was the port in which Julius Cæsar blockaded his antagonist Pompey, who made a passage for himself through the midst of the besiegers, and fled for safety to Greece. The town has been much injured by earthquakes, and the harbour was destroyed in the fifteenth century, by a method which the prince of Taranto adopted, in order to close the entrance against the Venetian fleet. Several vessels were sunk at its mouth;^h the sands and other deposits being thus arrested, were consequently accumulated, and the port, thus changed into an unwholesome marsh, engenders every summer pestilential diseases, by which the population has been reduced to a third of what it was formerly. The town does not contain at present more than six thousand inhabitants. Lecce, between Brindisi and Otranto, at three leagues distance from the sea, is not only the capital, but the finest and largest town in the province; its inhabitants are held in the same repute at Naples, that the Bœotians were at Athens. The valley that separates Lecce from Otranto, has been called the paradise of the country. The small sea-port town that has given its name to the province,

^a Il Principato Ultra.
^c Abruzzo Ultra Primo.

^b Abruzzo Ultra Secondo
^d Abruzzo Citra.

^e Il Contado di Molise.
^g The ancient *Aufidus*.

^f It. *Puglia*, Fr. *Pouille*.
^h "In the middle of the entrance."

stands on the site of the ancient *Hydruntum*, which received, with the benefits of civilization, the first lessons in philosophy from Pythagoras.^a

Gallipoli, the first port in the gulf of Taranto, after passing Cape Leuca, owes its activity to its tunny fisheries and its manufactures, the last of which consist principally in cotton stockings and muslin. Taranto, the ancient *Tarentum*, situated at the northern extremity of the gulf, was in ancient times a place of great importance; Strabo commends its fine and spacious harbour, but at present the town only occupies the site of the ancient citadel, in which the Romans resisted Hannibal. It was principally from the gulf of Taranto that the ancients obtained the molusca that supplied them with their purple. A cavity below the neck of the animal is filled with the liquid that yields the colour; but the quantity contained in each cavity is so small, as to account for the excessive price which the ancients gave for the dye. Taranto has given its name to the tarantula (*Lycosa tarentula*), an insect well known from the fables concerning the effects of its sting. It was long believed that those who were stung by it exhibited very different symptoms; some laughed, others wept; one person was mournful and silent, another continued singing from morning till evening; many were seized with drowsiness, others could not be prevented from dancing: music was found to be the most effectual remedy for all. The sting of the tarantula, although not without danger, yields readily to different remedies. The animal, a species of spider, is of a black colour, with red and black streaks on the abdomen;^b it is about an inch in length. The web of the tarantula serves only to envelope its eggs, and to line the cell which it digs in the earth. It feeds on different insects, and lies frequently in ambush for them near the entrance of its den. It often makes excursions into the fields, and sometimes into the houses, but it always carries its prey home. "The eggs of the same animal," says an able naturalist,^c "are like the seeds of the white poppy; when they are hatched, the mother tears open the covering which incloses them, and carries her young on her back, until they are able to provide for themselves. The male and female are only seen together at the season of coition; at other times they kill each other. It is not easy to make it leave its cell; but if it be once dislodged, and return afterwards, it allows itself to be destroyed, rather than be removed a second time."

Potenza, the capital of the *Basilicata*, is situated at the foot of the Appennines. The same town, and Matera, at twelve leagues from it towards the southeast, although ill peopled, are the most important in the province, which derived its name in the tenth century from Basil the Second, emperor of the east, who conferred, probably, some privileges on the inhabitants. It is at present one of the poorest provinces in the kingdom of Naples.

Mount Pollino separates Basilicata from the two provinces of Calabria—provinces destitute of important towns, and inhabited by a poor and wretched people. Bathed on the east, the west, and the south by the sea, and traversed by a branch of the Appennines, the two Calabrias are indented with large gulfs, cooled by the sea breeze, and wa-

^a "The first lessons in philosophy given by Pythagoras"—but Pythagoras is said to have taught philosophy in Greece before he retired to Italy.—P.

^b "—lower part of the abdomen red (crocus yellow, Ed. Encyc.) with a transverse black band."

M. Latreille, Member of the Academy of Sciences.

tered by heavy dews, and by springs and rivers, which increase the fertility of a black and rich soil. *Citerior Calabria*^d terminates at Mount Calistro, and at the banks of the Neto.^e Cosenza, the capital, is situated at the confluence of the Crati and the Bussento;^f the streets are narrow and crooked, with the exception of one large street, which traverses the town; it possesses, however, several useful establishments, such as hospitals, a college and two academies, besides a fine cathedral and a palace of justice, edifices which strangers are surprised to see in so small a town. The only other important towns in the province are Cassano, Rossano, Bisignano and Cariati, none of which possesses any remarkable edifice, and the most populous of which contains hardly nine thousand inhabitants. The making of olive oil is almost the only kind of industry in which the inhabitants of Rossano are engaged, and the sale of it constitutes the principal branch of commerce. Bisignano is noted for its silk worms, and the best manna in Calabria is produced in the neighbourhood of Cariati.

More important towns are situated in *Uterior Calabria*,^g some of which were celebrated in ancient times. The walls of the famous *Crotona* are seen on the eastern coast, and its ruins encompass the modern town of Cotrone. Crotona, rich and populous, could recruit an army of a hundred thousand combatants within its walls and its territory; Cotrone contains hardly six thousand souls. Not to mention the robust Milo, it is known that the inhabitants of Crotona were renowned, the men for their symmetry and strength, the women for their beauty; but their descendants have greatly degenerated. Crotona contained many fine edifices; its gymnastic games, and the schools of philosophy founded by Pythagoras, rendered it the first of the Greek colonies; Cotrone contains at present six churches, two hospitals, two convents, and a seminary, but no buildings worthy of notice. Catanzaro, although possessing little or no trade,^h contains a greater population than Cotrone.

Pizzo is situated on the western side of the Appennines, on the gulf of Saint Eufemia. Joachim Murat landed at its little harbour on the eighth of October, 1815, and attempted to regain his throne. Taken prisoner and ill treated by those who had long acknowledged him as their king, condemned as a common malefactor, and interred in the very church which he had rebuilt, his death may be considered not only as one of the catastrophes which result from political revolutions, but as a characteristic trait of a people, who afterwards showed themselves incapable of enjoying the institutions which they apparently desired.

The wretched town of Gierace, built on the ruins of the second *Locri*, and at some distance from the ancient city of the Locri, does not contain four thousand inhabitants. Bova, a still smaller town, was destroyed by the earthquake in 1783, and afterwards rebuilt and improved by Ferdinand the Fourth.

The country in the neighbourhood of Reggio abounds with figs and ananas, and the town is the capital of Uterior Calabria; the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in the essence of citron, orange and bergamot. As a town,

^d Calabria Citra.

^f Busiento.

^h Catanzaro possesses the most important silk manufactures in Calabria.—(Ed. Encyc.) It has a considerable trade in corn, silk and oil.—(Vosgien.)

^e Neto. (Ed. Encyc.)

^g Calabria Ultra.

Reggio is nowise remarkable ; its name indicates its position on the site of the ancient *Rhegium*, once, according to Strabo, a powerful city, but afterwards wholly destroyed by Dionysius the elder. The tyrants of Syracuse were dreaded on the coasts of Italy. The inhabitants of Rhegium formed a league against Dionysius ; but when hostilities had ceased, and a peace had been concluded, the tyrant declared to the magistrates that he intended to choose a wife among the daughters of the most distinguished families in Rhegium ; the latter not wishing an alliance with their enemy, answered that they could only give him *the daughter of the executioner*.^a Indignant at such an answer, Dionysius laid siege to the town, and after a series of cruelties, the details of which are mentioned by Diodorus Siculus, his vengeance was so complete that, notwithstanding all the efforts of Dionysius the younger, the place could never be restored to its ancient splendour. The city which was built on its ruins fell at a later period under the power of the Romans. It was destroyed by an earthquake, and rebuilt by Cæsar, whence it was called *Rhegium Julii*. Barbarossa reduced it to ashes in 1543 ; between that period and the year 1593, it was twice pillaged by the Turks, and injured by earthquakes ; but the one which happened in 1783 was attended with more disastrous consequences than any other. That formidable earthquake, by which all Calabria was devastated, was so extraordinary both from its duration and effects, that it may be proper to give some account of it.

The first shocks were felt about noon on the fifth of February, and were renewed at short intervals during several months. They were not preceded by any of the ordinary indications, and in a few minutes all the plains in Ulterior Calabria were laid waste. Those who witnessed the frightful calamity, declared that the oscillations were so frequent and so violent that nothing could resist them,—neither the works of nature, nor the most solid works of man. Edifices were overturned, and their fragments thrown to a distance. The materials of the small town of Sciglio, built on the promontory of Scylla, overwhelmed two thousand seven hundred persons that had fled to the coast for refuge. The ruins of villages rolled from the hills. Some of the mountains opened, others sunk, and the upheaved earth formed new heights. In one part, the plains were changed into lakes, and their waters covered the harvests ; in another, rivers issued from their beds, and changed the direction of their course. Movements similar to the undulations of waves were seen on the land. Masses of earth in different places were raised into the air and fell, as if they had been blown up by gunpowder. On some parts of the coast, the sea rose above its ordinary limits, and many who ran for safety to the shore or to their vessels were destroyed. Some pressed the expiring bodies of their friends, and in a few seconds shared their fate. Lovers rushed into the gulf that had swallowed up the object of their affections ; mothers, recalled to life by the care and good offices of relatives, sought their children amidst the ruins of their houses, and were buried with them in the same grave. More than three hundred towns or villages were destroyed in the two Calabrias, and most of the places that have been already mentioned, were much injured ; forty thousand individuals perished, and twenty-thousand were the victims of contagious diseases, occasioned perhaps by putrid carcasses in

stagnant water, or under the ruins and rubbish of buildings. To add to the misfortunes of the people, the fires, left in the houses, communicated with the combustible materials, and the flames destroyed what the earthquake had spared. Lastly, the little that remained was seized by banditti, who, in the general consternation, massacred the inhabitants, and carried off whatever was of value. The inhumanity and intrepidity of these men, who rushed from several parts of Italy into Calabria, cannot be considered extraordinary by persons acquainted with the character of the Neapolitan bandits. But several examples of courage and disinterestedness might be mentioned to the honour of the Calabrians and the rest of the nation. The inhabitants of districts far removed from the scene of these calamities, rivalled each other in mitigating the misfortunes of an impoverished people ; the custom-house officers of Naples and the Lazzaroni employed in loading the vessels which conveyed the supplies sent by government to Calabria, refused to receive any reward for their services.

Earthquakes are not the only evils to which the two Calabrias are exposed ; there are others which are periodical, such as the blast of the sirocco, which prevailing four months in the year, produces diseases and destroys vegetation, and the miasms rising from the stagnant waters in summer, which compel the inhabitants to leave the low plains and to reside on the mountains.

The vegetation of the two Calabrian provinces varies according to the exposure of the soil. The grape might yield excellent wine, if the inhabitants bestowed any care on its culture. The echinated liquorice (*Glycyrrhiza echinata*), a variety not inferior to the Spanish kind,^b grows naturally ; and the leaves of the mulberry nourish an immense number of silk worms. The olive, a tree that may be seen almost in every part of Calabria, produces so much oil that the inhabitants keep it in large cisterns ; the maniferous ash (*Fraxinus rotundifolia*), indigenous to these provinces, grows without culture in the plains and on all the hills ;^c it is during the greatest heat of summer that it yields the concrete juice so useful in medicine ; the palm, the cotton plant, and the sugar-cane flourish. The fruits of the orange and the lemon tree add to the amount of the exports, and the different kinds of grain are sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants. Larches and other resinous trees afford great quantities of pitch ; the *Bretian* pitch, which was considered very valuable by the ancients, was obtained from the forest of Sila, on the summits of the Appennines, which, according to Strabo, was seven hundred stadia or twenty-three leagues in length. The thick leaved aloe crowns the arid rocks ; the rose laurel shades the banks of the rivers, and mingles its flowers and its foliage with the leaves of the *arrundinaria*, a sort of grass that is converted into cordage, mats, nets and baskets.

Spirited horses, large and hardy mules, numerous herds and flocks, and woods abounding with game and wild buffaloes, may be enumerated among the natural advantages of the two Calabrias. The ancients said that the dews of the evening renewed the grass which the cattle had browsed during the day,—a metaphor not so improbable, as those who live in northern latitudes might be apt to suppose.

The natural riches of the country are increased by the fish that are taken on the coast ; the tunny fisheries are the

^a Strabo, Book 6. chap. 11.

^b “— which is used for the same purposes as the officinal liquorice (*Glycyrrhiza glabra*).”

^c “Dans tous les bois et sur le penchant des collines.”—The manna ash grows spontaneously on the lower parts of the mountains. (E. J. Encyc.)

most profitable; the sword-fish (*Xiphias gladius*) serves as food to the Calabrians. The last animal has derived its name from a hard or bony substance that extends from its muzzle, and with which it defends itself against its enemies. The sword-fish grows to the length of eighteen or twenty feet, and weighs sometimes four hundred pounds. It is difficult, and even dangerous to take it, on account of its great activity, and the weapon with which it is armed; it often breaks the nets of the fishermen, who are obliged to harpoon it. The corals that line the bays are valuable from their fine colour; and the fishermen take the *Pinna nobilis*, the largest of the bivalvular mollusca, furnished with the long red silk, that the people at Reggio weave into different stuffs of admirable delicacy.

The Calabrians delight in idleness; the *far niente* has more charms to them than to the other Italians; wearing loose mantles like the Spaniards, they resemble the same people in their black eyes and dark complexion. Suspicious and vindictive, a Calabrian seldom leaves his house without being armed. Tall or strong men and handsome women are equally rare in the province; the latter marry at an early age, and soon lose their looks. Notwithstanding the great number of marriages, and the fruitfulness of the women, the country is ill-peopled, and the cause may partly be attributed to the custom of relatives marrying with each other; the inhabitants of almost every village and of many small towns in Calabria are so many kinsmen and kinswomen. The children, it is known, are unhealthy, and the consanguinity of the parents may tend to perpetuate diseases. The dowry of a peasant girl consists in a small piece of ground, in a part of a vineyard, or even sometimes in a single mulberry tree. Little has been done to improve the condition of the peasantry; most of them are small farmers or day labourers; the land is divided among the nobles, the clergy, and some burgesses, who let it on short leases. Thus, it happens that agriculture is still in a very imperfect state, and that a fruitful soil nourishes a poor and sickly population, scattered in wretched hovels, in dirty villages, or deserted towns.

We had occasion, in treating of Hungary, to make some remarks on a people of uncertain origin, who in that country are called *Zigeunes*; the same people are found in Calabria, where they are styled *Zingari*. They are distinguished from a poor population by their greater poverty, and by their squalid appearance and dress. The men shave their beards, but suffer their hair to grow; they gain a subsistence by buying and selling horses, and by working iron; many of them are conjurors; they collect crowds in the public places, and perform their different feats with great skill and address. The women wander about the country, and live by pilfering, or telling fortunes. Without any fixed habitation, living under tents, where men, women, children, and animals are crowded together, they form a distinct people from the other inhabitants; they marry only among themselves. According to travellers, the *Zingari* are more ignorant and dissolute than the Calabrians; all of them can speak Italian, but many words in their own dialect indicate its eastern origin. Their religion is a compound of Christianity and different superstitions; they admit the divinity of Jesus Christ, but they have no veneration

for the Virgin. As to marriages, funerals, and baptisms, they conform readily to Catholic ceremonies, but if the clergymen refuse to celebrate them, the *Zingari* have no scruples in substituting other rites which were probably derived from paganism.^a

A distance of a hundred and ten leagues forms the greatest length of the continental provinces in the kingdom of Naples; their mean breadth varies from twenty to thirty, but they are upwards of seventy in some parts.^b

A phenomenon similar to the mirage in the deserts of Africa, and one that can only be accounted for by the refraction of light, has sometimes been observed on the coasts of the strait, which separates Reggio from Messina. A few minutes before the sun issues from the waves in summer, a spectator on the shores of Sicily, looking in the direction of Reggio, may see forests, towers and palaces in the air, the whole forming a panorama of Messina, its hills, woods and houses. If a spectator on the Italian coast, looks towards Messina, he sees also in the clouds the image of a city similar to Reggio. The illusion has hitherto been imperfectly explained; it would be less extraordinary, if a person saw the town that bounded the horizon, instead of the one near which he was placed. The phenomenon has given rise to the following fable in Calabria and Sicily, for the people have inherited from the Greeks, the love of marvellous and brilliant fictions. The *Fata Morgana*, a powerful fairy, rules over the Strait of Messina; she displays her aerial palaces to mariners, that they may be shipwrecked on the rocks where the modern Circe waits to destroy them.

Sicily possesses more than two hundred and thirty leagues of coast, and several important harbours, such as Messina, Palermo, Syracuse and Catania. It is divided into seven *intendancies*, and twenty-three districts. It was once the country of the arts; such was its prosperity in ancient times, that the inhabitants in the single town of Syracuse were almost as numerous as the whole present population. The same island, during the zenith of Napoleon's power, was the only state in Europe governed by a prince of the house of Bourbon. It retained its feudal customs with the parliament of the *Three Arms (Tre Bracci)*,^c until Lord William Bentinck, the English ambassador, induced his Sicilian majesty to grant his subjects a representative government framed after the model of the British constitution. "The advantages of the new system," says the Count Fedor de Karaczay,^d "must ere long have been felt by every class of the community. The privileged classes were to be put on an equality with the others, in order that they might contribute to the prosperity of the country. The epoch of the hundred days, the treaty of Paris, and the defeat of Murat by the Austrians, enabled Ferdinand to regain the throne of Naples. The selfish and limited notions of the Sicilian barons,—the ancient feudal proprietors, were carried into effect. It was thought that the times of the three *bracci* were to return, and with the parliament, the feudal rights. All the nobles united to overturn the constitution, but they little imagined that they were to gain nothing by the change. The constitution was indeed abolished by a decree published at Messina, but the privileges of the nobles have not been restored. Ferdinand the First took the title of king of the Two Sicilies on the eighth of December, 1816,

^a There are several colonies of Albanians in Calabria, who still retain their language, and some few of whom adhere to the Greek church.—P.

^b "Their greatest breadth is 70 leagues."

^c The Parliament before its reformation in 1810, was composed of three

branches, viz. 229 nobles, 66 prelates, and 43 deputies from cities, universities and crown estates. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^d Manuel du Voyageur en Sicile, published in French at Gotha 1826

and Sicily was declared a province of the kingdom.^a The nobles acknowledge their errors while it is too late to correct them; taught by the past, they may not perhaps be again so easily deceived."

While a Frenchman reigned over Naples, the Sicilians possessed a considerable inland trade, and Palermo was the residence of a king and a numerous court; but the Sicilians are now governed by the lieutenant of a viceroy, and the circulating medium, attracted to Naples, is daily becoming more scarce in the island. No manufacturing industry tends to bring back the money, which the Sicilian courtiers spend at Naples. Different objects of luxury, muslins, linens and other articles, are imported from England or France, and in order to satisfy factitious but urgent wants, the island furnishes only raw materials, of which the production affords employment to but a small number of hands. The most important of these materials are raw silk, averaging one year with another, not less than £180,000;^b different sorts of wines, among others those of Syracuse and Marsala,^c of which the quantity exported to Boston exceeds two thousand pipes, and the value £39,000;^d grain to the amount of £372,000,^e a quantity much less considerable than in ancient times, when Sicily and Sardinia were called the *granaries of the Roman people*; fruits that are sold for £80,000;^f olive oil, equal in value to £84,000;^g soda, of which great quantities are exported to Marseilles; and the produce of the tunny fisheries, yielding £15,000.^h Sicily carries on, besides, a trade in mercury, sulphur, alum, nitre and rock salt. Such are the only sources of wealth, and they may be mentioned to the disgrace rather than to the credit of the Sicilian government. Although there is not a more fertile soil in Europe, not a fourth part of the surface is cultivated; treasures are contained in the depths of the earth, but its gold, silver, copper, iron and lead mines have been long neglected. The gypsum, with which Sicily abounds, might be used in building, or as a manure, and it might even form an article of exportation, but the inhabitants derive no advantage from it.

If agriculture, industry and commerce were encouraged, Sicily might contain, as in the time of the Romans, three times the number of its present population. But many obstacles must be removed before it can attain such a degree of prosperity; the nobility must show an example of disinterestedness, that can hardly be expected from their character and habits. The indolent and slothful would suffer from the change, and the number of monks would be diminished. There are no manufactories in the island, but it would be of advantage to establish some in the different convents, as their number is out of all proportion with that of the inhabitants. Twenty-eight thousand monks and eighteen thousand nuns, in all forty-six thousand, are contained in a population of one million six hundred and fifty thousand individuals, which gives one recluse for every thirty-five inhabitants. The secular clergy might not perhaps be averse to such a reform, for they are said to be tolerant, from which it may be inferred that they are enlightened and well informed. They possess a third part of the land, but their influence depends as much on their knowledge as on their wealth. The nobles, still more wealthy, possess almost

all the rest of the country; they are composed of a hundred and twenty princes, eighty dukes, a hundred and forty marquises, thirty counts, three hundred and sixty barons, and a great many knights, who are also included in the aristocracy. The abolition of their privileges has tended to diminish their revenue, but they may imitate the Russian nobles, and add to their riches by building manufactories, and encouraging agriculture, which might be done without difficulty in a country where nature invites man to labour by repaying him a hundredfold.

Sicily, from its situation between Europe and Africa, might easily be rendered the most commercial island in the Mediterranean; but before such a change can take place, good roads must be substituted for rugged and inconvenient paths: so long as there is no other roadⁱ in the island than the one between Montreale and Alcamo, the difficulties of communication are likely to prevent every improvement in agriculture. Lands yield less than four per cent. to the proprietor; he advances the seed to the farmer, who returns it after harvest, and pays his rent in produce, according to the rates that are determined in every parish.

While an eternal winter reigns on the summit of Etna, the rest of Sicily enjoys a perpetual spring. In April, Reaumur's thermometer stands at about seventeen degrees in the shade at noon, but when the sirocco blows, the same thermometer rises to thirty-five or thirty-six degrees. The other southern winds, or the *Libeccio*^k from the southwest, and the *Austral*^l from the south, are more or less accompanied with the unwholesome effects of the sirocco. The months of November and December are mild; people seek the shade in January; but the cold winds of March compel the Sicilians to have recourse to their portable fires.^m

The Sicilian wheat grows to an extraordinary height; the ears seldom contain less than sixty grains; both the grains and the straw are of a golden or bright yellow colour, by which it may be distinguished from the wheat of northern countries. The finest crops in France or England present to the Sicilian the image of sterility, so much do his own exhibit that of abundance. The aloe rises to the height of thirty feet; most of the roads are lined with the *Cactus opuntia*,ⁿ and its purple fruit, in shape not unlike a fig, serves as food for the poor. The water melons are perhaps finer than in any other country in Europe. The fruits of the date tree arrive at maturity; their sweet juice forms a seasoning for certain dishes, or they are dried, and served on the tables of the wealthy and the burgesses. The pomegranate, brought from Carthage into Italy by the Romans, who gave it the name of *punica*, yields a vinous and acid juice, very agreeable to the people in the south of Europe. The sugar cane is indigenous to the coast opposite Africa, and the coffee shrub has been discovered in a wild state in the same part of the island. So great a variety of plants in addition to those of northern climates, might tempt the indolent Sicilian to bestow more attention on agriculture.

Messina is situated nearer the Calabrian coast than any other town in Sicily. It was founded, according to the common opinion, ten centuries before the vulgar era. The Siculi, says Thucydides, called it *Zanclé*, from a word in

^a According to a decree of the month of July, 1824, Sicily is governed by the same laws as the other Neapolitan states.

^b "Annual value 4 millions francs."

^c "The most esteemed are those of Syracuse and Marsala."

^d "Total value about 900,000 francs." ^e "9 millions francs."

^f "Lemons and oranges for 1,800,000 francs."

^g "2 millions francs."

^h "More than 250,000 francs."

^k It. *Libeccio*.

^l It. *Austral*.

^m Brasiers.

ⁱ "Chaussée."

ⁿ It. *Austral*.

^o Nopal, Indian fig.

their language which signified a scythe or pruning hook, probably on account of the crooked form of its harbour.^a Three or four centuries after its foundation, Anaxilas, the chief of the Messenian colony at Reggio, defeated the *Zanclai*, took possession of their town, and gave it the name of *Messana* or *Messene*. It was taken at a later period by the *Mamertini*, a people of Campania. The town was wholly destroyed by the earthquake that happened in 1783; it has since been rebuilt according to a regular plan, but although it has been declared a free port, it is not so important as it once was: it contained before the last catastrophe, more than a hundred thousand inhabitants; the present population is about seventy thousand.^b It rises in the form of an amphitheatre at the base of the mountains, the branches of which extend throughout the island, forming in our opinion the continuation of the Appennines. The sides of these heights are intersected by ravines; they are covered with a thousand varied plants, that rise above the palaces of Messina. The agitated waters of the strait, where Scylla and Charybdis were the terror of ancient navigators, are seen under the walls of the city. Built on uneven ground, Messina is about six thousand yards in extent;^c a promontory of rocks and sand protrudes in the form of a semicircle on the right, and forms a safe and spacious anchorage for ships. A large citadel, together with several forts and batteries, defends the entrance into its harbour, which may be considered one of the finest in the Mediterranean. The streets are broad and regular, and paved with large pieces of lava. The well built quays are lined with low houses, probably that less danger may accrue in the event of earthquakes. Four or five large but irregular squares or *piazas* may be remarked rather for the profusion than the taste or selection of their ornaments; they are all decorated with marble fountains and bronze statues of ordinary workmanship. The royal palace, in point of architecture, the finest building in the town, is not yet finished. The churches may vie with others in Italy, in the number of their paintings and images, which are placed together without much judgment. The cathedral built by Count Roger, is decorated with twenty-six columns of Egyptian granite, and they have a very singular effect near Gothic ornaments of the twelfth century. The people are ill educated in Messina; few among the lower orders can read, and still fewer among the nobles are well informed. The different places of education are a royal college and six gratuitous schools, two of which are reserved for young nobles; there are besides a seminary for four hundred pupils, and forty-six convents for men or women. Among other institutions, may be mentioned a bank, several mounts of piety,^d a lazaretto and a large hospital.^e

Taormina stands on a hill near the shore, about twelve

leagues to the south-west of Messina. Although not peopled by more than three thousand inhabitants, it contains a great many churches and convents. The Roman way that leads to it, and the vast remains of a theatre, prove it to be the *Taurominium* of the Romans, formerly a considerable town, which Arabs and earthquakes have destroyed. The edifice already mentioned, the most remarkable of any in Taormina, is more than two hundred feet in diameter, and it serves to give the moderns a correct idea of ancient theatres; although of so great dimensions, the space allotted to the actors was only a few feet in depth, not more than the space in modern theatres between the curtain and the orchestra.^f The sculptures that adorned the theatre, now decorate the monasteries in Taormina; their profane origin was no protection against the pious zeal of the Norman princes.

The river Cantara, which still retains the name of *Alcantara*, given it by the Arabs, separates the plain below Taormina from the last declivities of Etna or *Gibello*,^g the latter a name also of Arabic origin, and one that signifies a mountain. A pyramidal rock forms the summit of the great volcano, of which the crater is more than a league in circumference, and seven hundred feet in depth. Many strangers visit the mountain, but few ever reach its frozen summit, so much do the difficulties and dangers increase after having passed the first region of snow.^h Not many years ago an English traveller, who reached the crater, was rash enough to descend it by means of ropes attached to his waist; he was drawn up suffocated, after having given the signal to his guides, but they were unable to restore him to life.ⁱ The lava and scoræ of Etna are as useful in fertilizing the ground as the same substances on Vesuvius; thus, the base of Etna, which some writers consider equal to a hundred leagues in circumference, affords the means of subsistence to a hundred and eighty thousand inhabitants. The plants in the same part of Sicily reach to an extraordinary size; near the volcanic promontory of Aci, a place connected with the fable of Acis and Galatæa, old chestnut trees, the silent witnesses of political revolutions and natural convulsions, extend to a great distance their wide spreading branches. One of them is twenty-four feet in diameter,^k another is fifteen, but the most remarkable of any, and one that many consider a sufficient inducement for strangers to go out of their way to examine, is the *Castagno dei cento cavalli*, not an inaccurate designation, for according to Simond, a hundred horses may find shelter under its shade;^l the circumference is not less than a hundred and twelve feet.^m

Catania, the ancient *Catana*, is situated at the foot of Etna, on the sea-shore; it was founded seven centuries before the vulgar era, but it has been often destroyed by lava

^a Strabo adopts the opinion of Thucydides: see book vi. chap. 3. § 5. Thus, it might be easy to prove the Greek origin of the Siculi, for the Greek word ζαγκλη, which is pronounced *zanclæ*, signifies also a scythe or pruning hook.

^b Between eighty and ninety thousand. Ed. Encyc. c "3000 toises."

^d "Three mounts of piety." ^e The public hospital.

^f "L'avant-scène." ^g It. *Monte Gibello, Mongibello*.

^h The silence of Homer concerning the fires of Etna, render it probable that it was in the same inactive state in his time, as Vesuvius was in the time of Strabo. The number of its eruptions from the earliest period of history to the present day amounts to eighty-one; namely,

Recorded by Thucydides*	3
In the year 122 before Christ	1

* The three eruptions recorded by Thucydides, happened A. C. 565, A. C. 476 and A. C. 425.—P.

In the year 44 of the vulgar era	1
252 —————	1
During the twelfth century	2
During the thirteenth	1
During the fourteenth	2
During the fifteenth	4
During the sixteenth	4
During the seventeenth	22
During the eighteenth	32
Since the commencement of the nineteenth	8

^l Manuel du voyageur en Sicile, par M. le comte Karaczay.

^k "24 feet in one direction, and 12 in another."

^l "— and in its interior."(?) The trunk, near the ground, separates into five great divisions, forming a large cavity, and appearing as if five trees had grown into one.—P. ^m Simond's Travels in Italy.

and earthquakes, and it does not cover at present more than a fourth part of the surface which it occupied when Hiero, tyrant of Syracuse, changed its name into Etna, and peopled it with new inhabitants. The town is large and well built: its fine edifices, which render it not unlike Turin, are so many proofs, not of its prosperity, but rather of its misfortunes; for in Catania, houses never become old, they give way either to lava or volcanic shocks. It is to the earthquakes of 1693 and 1783, that it owes its magnificence; almost wholly destroyed, it was rebuilt with greater regularity. Most of its edifices have been since injured by the shocks in 1819. The cathedral is one of the finest; the walls of the sacristy are covered with fresco paintings, which represent the ravages of the eruption in 1669; during that period, a torrent of lava, a league in breadth, was accumulated behind the walls of the town, which were more than sixty feet high, but the burning stream flowed over them into Catania, traversed the city, and formed a lofty mole in the sea, which adds at present to the safety of the harbour. The people, however, are persuaded that the town owes its preservation to St. Agatha, the tutelar saint of Catania, who suffered martyrdom in the same place under the reign of Decius. It is true that they attribute to their own sins, the misfortunes which the protection of the saint cannot avert. The convent or rather palace of the Benedictines, forms a striking contrast, by its magnificent architecture, with the simplicity that is so well adapted to a house of devotion. The monastery may be considered a museum of the antiquities that have been discovered in the neighbourhood; it possesses, besides several valuable paintings, a collection of natural history, a large library, and gardens made at much expense on a bed of lava. A great many antiquities are contained in the Biscari museum, which was founded by an opulent nobleman of the same name, who employed his wealth in exploring or digging for antiquities in the territory of Catania. The ancient theatre and amphitheatre, the old walls, baths and temples were buried under several layers of lava and alluvial deposits, that were removed by the same individual; lastly, the town is indebted to him for several ancient statues, and a basaltic elephant carrying an Egyptian obelisk on its back. Although the religious houses in Catania are richly endowed, sufficient funds are not wanting for the university. The professors are distinguished by their attainments, and their classes are attended by five hundred students; those among the nobles, who are educated in the same institution, are in general well informed. A convent in the town, serves as a residence for the knights of Malta, whose predecessors were for a long time the terror of the Crescent.

The territory of Catania produces plenty of corn, wine, flax, olives and silk. Much amber, and some pieces of a bright red colour, are collected on the coast near the mouth of the Giaretta, formerly the Simæthus,—a river celebrated by the ancient poets. These products maintain the industry and commerce of the town; the inhabitants carry on a trade in olive oil; some manufacture linen and silk stuffs,

while others are employed in making amber crosses and chaplets.

The road from Catania to Syracuse is not nearly so pleasant as the one from Messina to Catania; indeed the former extends along the sands on the sea-shore. But the Phrygian bonnet, still worn by the inhabitants, recalls some associations not without interest, and the traveller passes through a country embellished by the brilliant fictions of the Greeks. The banks of the Simæthus are still covered with the fragrant flowers, which Proserpine was gathering, when she was carried away by Pluto,—the god of hell and of Etna, who shared with her his empire.

The fountain of Arethusa issues from a rock near the ancient Syracuse, which the Greeks called *Pentapolis* from its five quarters; the fountain serves to recal the story of the nymph Arethusa, flying from Alpheus, but her metamorphosis availed her little, for the ancients pretended that the Alpheus passed under the sea, and united his streams with the fountain—a notion sufficiently poetical, but contrary to physical geography, by which the impossibility of such a communication may be easily demonstrated.^a The fountain, which Cicero describes as of very great magnitude, and abounding in fish,^b can no longer be recognised; it is, at present, only a small and narrow stream, where the women of modern Syracuse are employed in washing clothes. The modern town scarcely occupies one of the suburbs of the ancient city; the latter did not long survive the decline of Athens. Modern Syracuse is built on the island that the ancients called *Nasos*; the circumference of the town, including the large and small harbour, is hardly equal to a league, while that of the ancient city amounted to nearly eight. Some idea may be formed of its great population in past times, from the extent of its catacombs; they are situated in the plain where the old church of St. John stands at present, and they are cut in a sort of sandy limestone. Long and regular galleries, extending in every direction, are interrupted at different distances by large circular halls, covered with stucco, and open at the roof so as to admit the light and air. Niches and tombs are hollowed in the sides, and in some of them twenty coffins, placed one above another, were found, and pieces of money, the fare for the ferryman of Acheron, have been observed near several skeletons.^c It was in the same place that Cicero discovered the tomb of Archimedes.^d One may still trace the enclosure or outer wall which Dionysius built round the town, and examine the remains of a large theatre and amphitheatre, cut in the rock. The celebrated prison, called *the Ear of Dionysius*, is not a building, but a cavern, perhaps the quarry out of which old Syracuse was built;^e its form is most favourable to the repercussion of sound, high, narrow, pointed above, and presenting a singular curve in its horizontal depth. It is so sonorous that Dionysius might have placed himself near the opening above it, and heard whatever the prisoners said in a whisper. The tearing of a piece of paper makes a noise not unlike that occasioned by knocking a heavy stick

^a Strabo refutes triumphantly the common opinion that existed in his time, concerning the junction of the Alpheus and Arethusa. Book VI. Chap. iii. sect. 5.

^b *Incredibili magnitudine et plenissimus piscium.*

^c "The piece of money, intended as the fare &c., was observed in the mouth of several skeletons." A small coin (*triens* vel *abalus*) was put in the mouth of the deceased, that he might give it to Charon for his freight. [Adam's Antiq. p. 515.]

— nec habet, quem porrigat, ore trien tem.—Juvenal, Sat. iii. v. 267.—P.

^d This is not in the original. The tomb of Archimedes was found by Cicero near one of the gates of Syracuse, (*est enim ad portas Agrogianas magna frequentia sepulchrorum.*) overgrown with thorns and brambles. It could not, therefore, have been in the catacombs.—P.

^e This is not in the original. The perpendicular height of the Ear of Dionysius is about 90 feet (58 feet M. B.) and its length 250 feet (Brydone)—scarcely large enough to supply materials for such a city as ancient Syracuse. The *Latomie*, an extensive quarry, now converted into a garden, is better entitled to that distinction.—P.

against a stone, some notion may thus be formed of the effect produced by the discharge of a pistol, an experiment with which the *ciceroni* are not unwilling to gratify strangers.

Modern Syracuse has been much injured by earthquakes; the one that happened in 1693, did not last more than four minutes, but it destroyed almost all the houses, and a fourth part of the inhabitants. Although now an insignificant town, it possesses a theatre and a very valuable museum, in which may be seen a statue of Venus Callipygia, supposed to be the one described by Athenæus, and given to the Syracusans by the emperor Heliogabalus. The cathedral is the ancient temple of Minerva; it was transformed into a church towards the end of the second century; its most precious ornament is a Madonna of solid silver, as large as life; the lady appears in a robe, covered with diamonds and other precious stones, on certain solemn occasions, such as the day of an annual visit which she makes, in procession and with much ceremony, to another Madonna in the neighbourhood.

Mount Laura, which rises to the west of Syracuse, is one of the highest points in the three chains that traverse Sicily. Calatagirone, an industrious and commercial town, is situated on the southern side of the mountains, at a considerable elevation; the inhabitants are engaged in commerce, agriculture and the useful arts. It contains many churches and priests, convents and monks, besides a royal college and several hospitals. Two or three fairs are held every year in the town; and according to different authors, the population amounts to nineteen thousand six hundred inhabitants, but it is not improbable that the number has been overrated. It stands on the site of *Hybla Minima* or *Heræa*, as it is called in the Itinerary of Antonine. A bad road passes through Calatagirone from Catania to Castro-Giovanni, a town of eleven thousand souls, which from its position on a hill, and from some remains of antiquity, was probably the ancient *Enna*, a place mentioned by Strabo; within its walls, about a hundred and fifty years before the Christian era, a number of revolted slaves maintained a long and obstinate siege against the Romans. The neighbouring country was and is still very fruitful in corn. Ceres had a magnificent temple in the town, which is said to have been the capital of her dominions; at no great distance from it may be seen the grotto, by which Pluto returned to the infernal regions, when he carried away Proserpine.

A road from Castro-Giovanni leads to Girgenti, but by following the course of the Salso, one may reach Alicata, a town of twelve thousand inhabitants, situated on the sea coast; it is protected by two forts, and well known in Sicily for its pastry and macaroni. The harbour, although small, is much frequented, and the ruins on Mount Serrato in the neighbourhood, are, according to some antiquaries, the remains of *Gela*, the birthplace of the poet Apollodorus, of the philosopher Timagoras and the tyrant Gelon. At a short distance from the same place stood the tomb of *Æschylus*.

Girgenti, of which the streets rise like steps one above another, on one of the highest mountains near the coast, is a dirty, ill-built and by no means commercial town.

It possesses an orphan hospital, a lyceum with a library and a collection of medals, an episcopal palace, and a seminary; it contains also forty-six churches and fifteen monasteries, although its population does not exceed fifteen thousand souls. It rises on the site of the citadel, that *Dædalus* built at the request of king *Cocalus*, to defend *Agrirentum*. The ruins of the ancient city are situated about a mile and a half to the south-east, at a place called *Girgenti Vecchio*. Several convents rise within its enclosure, which consisted of rocks cut in the form of walls. *Agrirentum*, which Strabo calls *Acragas*, from the name of the stream that watered it, was founded six hundred years before the vulgar era; *Amilcar* destroyed it two hundred years afterwards; having been rebuilt, it was taken by the Romans. The population amounted to two hundred thousand souls, and it was a considerable town, at comparatively so late a period as the year 941, when the Arabs or Saracens laid it in ruins. If the inhabitants were unable to resist their enemies, it was owing to their luxury and effeminacy. The long tyranny of *Phalaris*, and his cruel and dreadful tortures, compelled them at last to shake off the yoke. While Carthage was in its splendour, the people of *Agrirentum* were menaced with an attack from that naval power. The magistrates decreed that the citizens in rotation should watch the ramparts during the night, and in order that the service might not be attended with too much inconvenience, every man on duty was permitted to have a tent, a woollen coverlet and two pillows. But even this indulgence was not sufficient to satisfy the citizens, and the decree occasioned much discontent. The philosopher *Empedocles*, who perished in the crater of *Etna*, was born at *Agrirentum*; he said that his countrymen indulged in luxury as if they were to die the next day, and erected temples and edifices as if they were to live for ever. The public buildings were magnificent; strangers admire the temple of Concord, which, with the exception of the roof, is still entire; among the other ruins that exist at present, are the temples of *Castor* and *Pollux*, *Juno Lucina*, the Olympian *Jupiter*, *Ceres* and *Proserpine*, *Hercules*, *Apollo*, *Diana*, and *Æsculapius*.

It is unnecessary to mention the towns in the interior of Sicily; all the industry of the country is concentrated in the different places on the coast, and it is there too that the stranger finds subjects for meditation, in the historical recollections connected with them. *Timoleon*, at the head of six thousand Syracusans, defeated an army of seventy thousand Carthaginians, near the *Calatabellota*, a river twelve leagues in length, to which the ancients gave the name of *Crimisus*. An arid plain beyond it,^a extends to the sea-shore, where the town of *Sciaccia* rises; its wretched appearance is so much the more remarkable as it contains twelve thousand inhabitants, and because great quantities of grain are exported to foreign countries from its harbour. Few vestiges of the town called the Baths of *Selinus* (*Thermæ Selinuntia*,) now remain;^b a town celebrated in ancient times for its warm springs, for its fine earthen ware, incorrectly denominated Etruscan, and also as being the birth-place of *Agathocles*, who from a potter, rose by his talents to the throne of Syracuse. *Selinus*^c was situa-

^a In the original,—"beyond the Platani and the Calatabellota." The translator appears to have considered the two names as belonging to the same river, but they are in fact two distinct rivers entering the sea on the western coast between Girgenti and Sciaccia, the Platani on the south,

nearest Girgenti, and the Calatabellota on the north, near Sciaccia. The mistake of the translator is corrected in this edition.—P.

^b It occupied the site of Sciaccia.

^c *Selinuns*.

ted in the territory of Castel Vetrano on the right bank of the Beliefi, but the ruins of ancient temples and other edifices, that the inhabitants call the *Giants' Pillars* (*Pilieri dei Giganti*), are all that remain of the ancient town. The tempest, says a traveller,^a sometimes sweeps away the deposits that now cover the port of Selinus, and reveals for a few moments, quays, columns and rings, which the billows conceal anew under heaps of moveable sand. Innumerable lizards sport about the ruins, the aloe sends up its tapering shoot, and the wide spreading opuntia covers them with its shade. A deserted but fruitful plain extends beyond them to Mazzara, a town peopled by eight thousand inhabitants. Marsala is situated on the other side of a hill, near the sea-shore; the neighbouring country is famous for its wines;^b the plants were originally imported from Madeira. The town stands near the ruins of *Lilybæum*, a Carthaginian city that maintained a five years seige against the Romans, and in which the latter, according to Livy, kept a garrison of ten thousand men after the ruin of Carthage. Trapani, an agreeable town to the north of Marsala, stands on a peninsula at no great distance from the site of the ancient *Drepanum*. The islands of Favignana, Levanzo and Maretimo may be seen from its ramparts. It was near these islands that the consul Claudius Pulcher was defeated in a naval engagement by the Carthaginians; before the engagement, the consul ordered the sacred chickens to be thrown into the sea, exclaiming—let them drink, if they will not eat; on the same coast, Caius Lutatius gained a victory over the same people, which enabled the Romans to make themselves masters of Sicily.

The sterile country between Trapani and Alcamo may render the stranger better prepared to contemplate one of the finest monuments of antiquity—the only remains of *Ægesta* or *Segesta*. It stands on a height at the base of Mount Eryx, celebrated in ancient times for the temple of Venus Erycina, which was deserted and almost in ruins at so early a period as the time of Strabo.^c All the travellers who have examined the temple are unanimous in its commendation. The effect it produced at a distance, says Simond, increased as I approached. Such is the magic of its proportions, and the beauty of its form, that whatever side it may be viewed, it is equally admirable. It has braved the influence of time,—the edifice stands entire, columns, entablature, pediment, all except the cella and roof, which have disappeared. The columns of the Ionic order are about seven feet in diameter at the base, tapering towards the top, and only four diameters in height, but they form with the front^d a total height of fifty-eight feet. The dimensions of the interior are about a hundred and seventy-four feet by seventy-two;^e six pillars support the front, and fourteen each of the sides.^f

The country round Alcamo is fruitful and romantic; the name of the town indicates its Arabian origin; it was founded in the year 828, by Alkamah, a Saracen prince. When seen from the heights that rise above it,^g its towers and its walls give it the appearance of a Moorish town. The women have preserved the eastern costume; they never walk the streets without being covered with a large black mantle,

that conceals part of the face. The town contains thirteen thousand inhabitants, and most of them adore their Madonna, which has already performed unnumbered miracles; indeed the people maintain that there is not a better Madonna in all Sicily.

Montreale or *Morreale*, a town of eight thousand inhabitants, is also situated on a hill. The church and the convent of the Benedictines, which were founded in the twelfth century by the Norman prince William the Good, have served as a nucleus for the town; houses have at different periods been grouped around them. The abbot of the monastery has the title and the rank of an archbishop; the monks of Mount Cassino form his chapter. The church was much injured by a fire in 1811; its principal entrance is formed by a bronze portal covered with reliefs; the columns are of granite, the walls are incrustated with mosaics, and the pavement consists of porphyry and different coloured marbles; within the same building are contained the mausoleums of William the Good, and of his father William the Bad. The convent is adorned with an admirable painting by Pietro Novelli, the Sicilian Raphael.

An excellent road leads from Montreale to Palermo; country houses are scattered in the neighbourhood, and arid rocks, rising apparently from the sea, are heaped above each other in a fruitful valley, covered in some places with the spiry aloe and the cactus. Palm trees and tall bamboos wave their verdant tops in the air, and the light breeze that sweeps over the corn fields, agitates the undulating surface. The bright foliage of the orange and lemon trees, the smooth branches of the olive, the large-leaved vine and the graceful rose laurel, form a varied landscape of the richest verdure.

Palermo, the capital of Sicily, and the ancient *Panormus*, town founded by the Phœnicians, is encompassed with walls, and rises in the form of a circle on a gulf. It appears smaller than it really is; two streets which intersect each other transversely, divide it into four nearly equal parts.^h The breadth of these streets is about forty or forty-five feet, and the length from twelve hundred to fourteen hundred paces. One of these streets, the Cassaro, derives its name from the Arabic word *Cassar*, which signifies a palace; the other is called the Macqueda or Strada Nuova. The place where the two streets cross each other, forms an octagonal square; at no great distance from it, is situated the Pretorian square, which is much larger. A fountain loaded with ornaments, and of such dimensions that the eye cannot embrace the whole,ⁱ rises in the centre of the last mentioned square; it consists of several basins placed above each other, and separated by galleries covered with statues and animals, that throw out the water in different directions. The piazza of Bologni is adorned with an equestrian statue of Charles the Fifth, king of Sicily,—the best work of Volsi, a Sicilian sculptor. The gates of the town are shut at night; the two finest are the *Porta Felice*, a triumphal arch that forms the entrance from the harbour into Palermo, and the *Porta Nuova* at the extremity of the Cassaro, and contiguous to the royal palace. The architecture of the latter building is by no means creditable to

^a M. le comte Fedor de Karaczay.

^b Sicily Madeira.

^c Book VI. chap. iii. § 8.

^d "Fronton," pediment.

^e "Length 30 toises, breadth 12."

^f See Simond's Travels, and also the Manuel du Voyageur en Sicile, by Count Fedor de Karaczay.

^g "When seen from below the height on which it rises."—The Saracens erected a fortress on Mount Bonifati. Frederik of Swabia having

driven out the Saracens, destroyed the fortress, and built Alcamo at the foot of the mountain. (Ed. Enyc.) It is situated on high ground. (Cyc.)—P.

^h The two principal streets, the Cassaro and the Strada Nuova, traverse the city, and intersect each other at right angles in the centre. (Ed. Enyc.)—P.

ⁱ "—et d'une dimension qui ne permet point d'en saisir l'ensemble de l'extrémité de la place, qu'elle obstrue."

the good taste of the Palermitans ; constructed at different periods, the different parts are not in harmony with each other. The most remarkable part of the edifice is the chapel built by king Roger in 1129 ; and it too is only remarkable for its grotesque paintings,^a its coarse mosaics, and an architecture in which the Gothic and the Græcian style of the middle ages are united. The highest part of the palace, or the observatory, was finished in 1791 ; it was there that the celebrated Abbé Piazzzi discovered in 1801, the planet which he called Ceres. The oldest fresco painting in Europe may be seen on the walls of the great hospital ; it was painted in the fourth century ;^b the triumph of Death forms the subject, one that cannot be very consolatory to the patients who are confined in the hospital.

The Vicaria or palace of justice, is at once the tribunal and the prison ; the guilty and innocent, criminals and accused, are confined together, and remain sometimes ten or fifteen years before the court condemns or acquits them. "I shall give an example," says Simond, "of the manner in which the prisons are filled, as I am sure of the fact. A few months ago, two men were quarrelling in the street with knives in their hands, when a third person interfering, was stabbed, and the murderers fled. The *sbirri*, who happened to be at hand, seized three of the bystanders, and conducted them to prison, where they are now detained, without any evidence whatsoever against them ; and unless they have powerful friends or money, they may remain there half their lives. In the meantime, no measures have been taken to bring the real murderers to justice." An epidemy lately carried off eighty individuals in confinement. The original cause of detention, often trifling, is forgotten, witnesses are gone away, nobody thinks of prosecuting ; it is hopeless for a prisoner to expect a trial ; he may look forward to a gaol delivery, to which an arbitrary government has sometimes recourse, when the prisons are too full. The indifference as to the fate of prisoners, encourages the powerful to persecute and oppress the poor. The number of prisoners^c amounted to about seventeen hundred in the year 1818. The prisons in a district nine times more populous than the province of Palermo, namely, those under the jurisdiction of the royal court at Paris, did not contain at the same period more than thirteen or fourteen hundred persons.

Several articles of considerable value have lately been added to the museums of antiquities and medals ; and the paintings, which are now collecting in the galleries of the university, are likely to be of use to those who devote themselves to the fine arts. Two edifices of Moorish architecture are situated in the suburbs of Palermo ; the one is the palace of Ziza, the property of an individual, and the other, the palace of Cuba, which has been changed into barracks for cavalry ; they were built by an emir, who called them after the names of his two daughters. The town contains, besides the buildings already mentioned, twenty-seven principal churches and several others of a smaller size, sixty-seven, convents, five hospitals, eight charity schools, a seminary, three public libraries, four barracks, two theatres, and two mounts of piety. The *Duomo* or cathedral, one of the finest Gothic monuments in Sicily, was founded in the year 1166 ; it may bear a comparison with the most magnificent buildings in Cordova and Granada, but the interior, although profusely adorned, does not correspond with

the exterior ; marble, granite, jasper, porphyry, alabaster and lapis lazuli are lavished in the same way as in other Italian churches. Next to the cathedral, the church of Jesus is the most remarkable, not only for its architecture, but for its precious ornaments, its paintings and its basso relievos.

The catacombs cut in the rock below the church of the Capuchins, possess the singular property of converting into mummies the bodies that are deposited in them. The dead, placed upright in niches, are sumptuously attired ; their arms hang downwards, or are crossed on the breast. The nobles attach much importance, to this method of sepulture, and purchase very dearly the right of obtaining it ; indeed, the revenue that the Capuchins thus derive, forms the principal source of their wealth. On certain festivals, these bodies are clothed in gorgeous apparel ; relatives, friends, perhaps lovers, are then admitted to see those who were dear to them. But the magnificent dresses of the dead form surely a painful contrast with their shrivelled skin,—the contracted lip no longer concealing the teeth,—the disagreeable grimace on some countenances,—the smile on others, as if they looked in pity or contempt on the vain grandeur and fleeting pleasures of the world.

Palermo boasts of having been the birthplace of St. Agatha, who received the palm of martyrdom in the third century ; the same town claims the honour of having given birth to another personage in the legend, to another object of veneration to a credulous people. A Sicilian poet places St. Rosalia above all the saints in paradise, nay more, above the Virgin herself. According to tradition, she was the niece of William the Good ; at fifteen years of age, she renounced the world, and lived in complete solitude ; she withdrew to the mountains on the west of Palermo, where she died unknown. While the plague depopulated the town in 1624, a hermit declared that he had seen a vision, in which God revealed to him a cavern on Mount Pelegrino, where the bones of St. Rosalia were to be found ; these bones it was necessary to carry in procession round the walls of Palermo, in order that their sacred virtue might drive away the plague. No one, until that period, ever heard of St. Rosalia ; no one knew that such a person ever existed. It was rather too much to expect that her remains could be found five centuries after her death. The magistrates paid little attention to the story of the visionary, but the people believed it, and to satisfy them, a deputation of monks, with the hermit at their head, was sent to the cavern. The bones were found, and the plague in the course of time disappeared. The remains of St. Rosalia are now enclosed in a magnificent shrine on the very spot from which they were first removed, and to which pilgrims from Italy and every part of Sicily resort.

A festival that commences on the fifteenth of July, lasts several days, and those who have seen it, affirm that there is a greater display of pomp and pageantry on these occasions, than during the holy week at Rome. The shrine of St. Rosalia is then carried in procession through the streets of Palermo. Fifty-six mules richly caparisoned are attached to an immense vehicle seventy feet long, thirty broad, and eighty high, containing a numerous orchestra, and adorned with orange trees, shrubs and flowers. The holy chariot,^d if it may be so called, terminates in a dome, supported by six Corinthian pillars, and beneath it is placed the gigantic statue of St. Rosalia, which consists of massive

^a Arabesques."

^b Manuel du Voyageur en Sicile.

^c In the prisons of the Vicaria.

^d Triumphal car.

silver. The saint with her numerous suite and her guard of cavalry, return home in the evening, when every house is illuminated, and when every priest or monk that accompanies her, holds a lighted torch in his hand. Fire works are then discharged from every part of the town, and the *corso*^a is crowded with carriages from midnight until two o'clock. Horse races commence on the morning of the second day; in the forenoon, the saint and her retinue pass through different parts of the town, and in the evening the same illuminations are renewed, and the fire works are more brilliant; the same amusements are continued during the third day. There are three races on the fourth, and the cathedral is lighted in the evening with thirty thousand wax tapers. Lastly, the saint is accompanied with a very numerous procession on the fifth day, for all the priests and monks in the town must attend; they pass round the Pretorian square, and the fountain is changed in an instant into a fountain of fire. The festival attracts to Palermo nearly a fourth part of the population of the island, and costs the municipality about sixty thousand ducats. The interest that the Palermians of all ranks and all ages take in the vain show, the luxury that prevails, and the importance attached to trifles, seem to indicate that the blood of the ancient Greeks, who were so devoted to ceremonies and religious festivals, flows still in the veins of the Sicilian people.^b

The Marina is the finest public walk in Palermo; it extends along the sea-shore, and leads to the Flora, a large garden tastefully planted, which communicates in its turn with a botanical garden, containing upwards of four thousand exotic plants. The fine edifice in the centre of the last garden, the work of a French architect,^c is now set apart for lectures on botany and natural history.

The Gulf of Palermo cannot be compared with the Gulf of Naples; mountains scorched by a burning sun, proclaim the vicinity of Africa. Mount Pelegrino, the *Eveta* of the Romans, is the highest of the different mountains that rise like an amphitheatre round the town; their sides are adorned with gardens and country houses, in the midst of which may be remarked the *Favorita*, a royal park, stocked with an innumerable quantity of hares and pheasants. The position assigned in the Itinerary of Antonine, to *Hyccara*, a small town mentioned by Thucydides and Plutarch, and the birth-place of Lais, the celebrated courtesan, is sufficient to prove that the present village of Carini stands on its site. The wretched town of Termini, well known in Sicily for a wealthy convent of Benedictines, built by pope St. Gregory, is situated on the coast near the site of *Himera*, a town founded six hundred and fifty years before the Christian era, by a colony sent from Messina or Zancle. Gelon defeated Amilcar under its walls, but his defeat was avenged by Hannibal, who razed the town, and put its inhabitants to the sword. The other towns and villages on the coast, are too insignificant to require notice. Melazzo,^d built on a promontory at eight leagues from Messina, is the ancient *Mylæ*, where the Romans gained the first naval victory over the Carthaginians.

The islands round Sicily may now be mentioned in order to complete the account of the Neapolitan states. Opidolo, the chief town in Pentellaria, an island on the south-

west, contains three thousand five hundred inhabitants. The town of Santa Maria; a place defended by a fortress, contains the greater part of the population in Ustica, which lies to the north of the Gulf of Palermo. Felicudi contains eight hundred individuals. Aliendi or Alicuri, an island somewhat smaller than the last, does not contain more than two hundred and fifty. Salina, which has been already mentioned, is peopled by four thousand inhabitants. The population of Lipari amounts to eighteen thousand; the town of the same name is fortified, and the island produces excellent malmsey wine. Two hundred inhabitants reside in Panaria, the ancient *Didyme*. Stromboli is the ancient *Strongyle*; its fruitful and volcanic soil did not contain more than two hundred inhabitants about twenty-five years ago, but at present, more than two thousand are collected in a single town. The other islands dependent on Sicily, are not inhabited.

The climate of Sicily exerts its influence, not only on the physical, but moral character of its inhabitants. The Sicilians are gay, lively and intellectual, of ardent imaginations and impetuous passions; the same people are generous, hospitable and faithful observers of their word. But neither are their good qualities improved, nor their bad passions subdued by education. A man commits murder, not from covetousness, but from vengeance. To avenge one's self is by all considered a right, by many a duty. The lower orders in Sicily do not submit to injuries so tamely as the people of Naples; the higher classes never venture to strike their inferiors; a blow, says Simond, might be repaid with a stab. Although they pass their time in indolence, their mental activity puts them in possession of many resources; indeed if they were well educated, they might perhaps be superior to the people of any other country. But they are kept in ignorance; influential men consider knowledge a fatal or dangerous present; it is supposed to make the people discontented; they have not yet learnt that the object of general education is not so much to teach the sciences, as to inculcate the moral truths, that are so closely connected with those of religion. Elementary education, by diffusing the use of writing, might introduce a love of order and economy among the lower ranks, enable them to profit by the perusal of the books within their reach, dispose them to consider their engagements to the state, and their other duties, more obligatory, and render the husbandman and the artisan better able to inform themselves in their respective departments of industry. What danger can result from such changes in the manners and habits of the people? The bulwarks that defend the palace against popular tumults, are not impregnable; a well informed person capable of respecting the laws, may be more easily kept within the limits of a reasonable obedience, than another who knows only the sovereignty of force, and the submission that results from fear.

We have attempted to describe the fondness of the people for religious festivals. The Sicilians require a worship that addresses itself to the senses; they must have flowers, perfumes, noisy music and images; incapable of receiving Christianity in its native purity, they introduced the machinery of polytheism into the religion of Jesus. The national vanity, which is common to the Sicilians with their

not in the forenoon as in the translation. No fire works are mentioned on the 2d day, but in the evening of the 3d. In these points the original agrees with Brydone.—P.

^c M. Dufourny.

^d Milazzo.

^a The *corso* is the procession of carriages in the Cassaro.
^b The description in the text differs in many particulars from the original, which corresponds very nearly with the description in Brydone's Tour. In the original it is stated that the great car enters the city in the evening of the 1st day, and that the procession is renewed in the evening of the 2d,

ancestors, makes them suppose themselves superior to other people, and the same sentiment produces some degree of jealousy between the different towns. Athens and Lacedæmon claimed political supremacy, and Messina does not yield to Palermo the title of capital.

The Sicilians are exemplary for their sobriety; in that virtue, at least, they are not inferior to the ancient Spartans. Some customs of the Greeks are still preserved among the peasantry; thus, the shepherds choose a judge to hear their songs, and to award the prize to him who deserves it. The country women retain a part of the Greek costume, such as the long veil and the wide cineture.

Conversazioni are as general in Sicily as in Italy; people meet in each others houses, or in public places to which they subscribe; in the latter, rooms are set apart for the purpose of conversation, and other apartments for those who consider gambling more attractive. But what appears very strange, a lady in confinement never fails to hold a *conversazione*, and, the day after delivery, all her friends repair to her chamber. The pains by which women purchase the pleasure of being mothers, are not felt in Sicily, an advantage that nature has bestowed on warm climates.

Sicily has given birth to several distinguished writers; and their works form frequently a subject for criticism or conversation to the present Sicilians. Poetry is the language of love and gallantry; there is not a tender swain that does not express the cruelty of his mistress in rhyme. Amorous intrigues are the pastimes of all the ladies; they never walk the streets; they are only seen in the theatre, at mass, or in their houses. They adopt, and often improve the French fashions, and they are perhaps as adroit as the Parisian ladies in heightening the effect of fine features and arch eyes. The women of Messina are pleasant and agreeable in their manners, at Palermo they are handsome, at Syracuse they are distinguished by the freshness of their complexion, and at Trapani, one may discover the regularity of the Greek profile. In Naples the men are handsomer than the women; in Sicily the women are better looking than the men.

The principal sources of public corruption are an inextricable labyrinth of laws, and a host of advocates and attorneys, encouraging, more than anywhere else, the mania for lawsuits. Justice is venal, and the judges do not blush to acknowledge it; the agents of government are the greatest smugglers; monks educate youth and govern families, while their own conduct is not more exemplary than that of their predecessors in the sixteenth century.

Sicily was formerly as much infested with robbers as the Neapolitan territory is at present, and some parts in the island were emphatically styled dens of thieves. Such, however, is no longer the case, for strangers may travel without danger, from one end of the country to the other, Resolute *Capitanos*, appointed in each district, are chosen from the most influential proprietors. Each *Capitano* has a guard of fourteen horsemen, well mounted, well armed, and well paid, and it is the duty of their chief to enforce the law in his district, preserve the peace, and ensure the safety of the inhabitants, for which he is made responsible. The horsemen were originally selected from the most intrepid banditti, and they have performed their duty so well that travelling is as safe in Sicily as in England.

Strangers have some difficulty in understanding the man-

ner of computing time in Sicily and in every part of Italy, except Turin, Parma and Florence. The first hour of the twenty-four, or the *Ave Maria*,^a begins half an hour after sunset; therefore, at the equinox, what is twelve o'clock at noon in the rest of Europe, is thirty minutes after seventeen in Italy, and it is one o'clock on the same day and in the same country at half past seven in the evening. One inconvenience attending the Italian method, is that the clocks must be regulated every day at noon, and advanced or retarded according as the days are becoming longer or shorter. The watches of the Italians are made in foreign countries, and the dials do not correspond with their mode of counting the hours, which they however maintain, has many advantages over the ordinary method.

Italy, once the country of flourishing colonies, the centre of the most formidable empire in ancient times, the theatre of the most powerful republics during the middle ages, has remained without influence and without glory, during the political changes to which Europe has in modern times been exposed. Divided into kingdoms and principalities of the second and third order, it is without any central point, every part is consequently vulnerable. During the last fourteen centuries, Italy has been an object of ambition to the princes beyond the Alps, and late events have too clearly proved that its different states may easily become the prey of an ambitious monarch. One or two victories enabled Napoleon to make himself master of the country. Had he secured its independence by giving it a chief, in place of dividing it into prefectures, governed under his influence by princes of his family, France and Italy might have resisted the coalition of Europe. Napoleon acknowledged his error, when it could not be repaired; what that emperor did not attempt, time and the interests of Europe may perhaps accomplish. The influence of manners, religion and language, tends to unite all the people in Italy; the intrigues of some princes, and the ambition of different powers, have hitherto prevented the union. The successive conquests of the greatest empire in Europe, may at no distant period occasion reasonable alarm for the safety of the western nations; in the event of any such calamity, it might be well to secure the independence of Italy. Additional resources might be obtained in the alliance of a country possessing on a surface of 97,200 square miles,^b a population of 16,560,000 individuals. But if commerce and industry were encouraged, Italy might easily contain twenty-four millions, so great are the fertility of the soil, and the advantages of its climate. The Italian nation is defended by the Alps on the north, by the Appennines in the centre, and in other directions by the sea; it might add to the natural strength of its position by fortresses, strongholds and arsenals; it might maintain an imposing army, enlarge its ports, create a navy, avail itself of its islands to acquire a maritime superiority, and thus be raised to an equality with the greatest nations in Europe. One of the present thrones in Italy may probably govern the whole country; but if the different states be excited to revolt by local interests or unforeseen causes, Italy may become a federative republic; Milan, Venice, Florence, Rome, Naples, Cagliari and Palermo might then be the six principal towns in the New United States,—participating perhaps at the extremity of the European continent, in the wealth and prosperity that distinguish the American federation.

^a The *Ave Maria* is twenty-four o'clock.

^b "16,200 sq. leagues." 117,090 Eng. sq. miles. (Morse.)

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF ITALY.

LOMBARDO-VENETIAN KINGDOM, divided into two governments and seventeen delegations, including forty-one Towns, a hundred and seventy-six Burghs, and five thousand four hundred and eighty-one Villages and Hamlets.*

GOVERNMENT OF MILAN.

CHIEF TOWNS.	Population of the chief towns.	Surface in German square miles.	Population of the Delegations.	Population for every Ger. sq. mile.
1. Sondrio	3,374	62.05	83,451	1,316
2. Como	7,669	60.61	335,060	5,761
3. Milan	124,647	47.90	463,477	9,861
4. Pavia	21,351	24.40	146,368	6,098
5. Lodi	14,882	34.10	197,532	5,809
6. Bergamo	29,469	66.10	315,186	4,775
7. Brescia	32,911	57.80	323,738	5,679
8. Cremona	26,876	22.60	175,815	7,991
9. Mantua	23,340	27.30	239,436	8,868

GOVERNMENT OF VENICE.

10. Verona	60,000	68.40	277,849	4,086
11. Rovigo ^b	7,000	20.72	135,625	6,781
12. Padua	47,000	39.80	290,514	7,474
13. Vicenza	30,000	41.20	297,547	7,257
14. Belluno	8,000	61.90	122,840	2,013
15. Treviso	15,000	35.60	232,732	6,649
16. Venice	109,927	51.26	249,157	4,885
17. Udina ^c	18,000	130.20	350,974	2,699

Total superficies in German square miles, total population, and average population for every German square mile	851.94	4,237,301	4,979
Surface in square geographical French leagues, and average population for each league	2,368.39		1,789

Population according to the origin of the Inhabitants.

Italians	4,163,700
Germans	66,500
Jews	5,600
Greeks	700
Armenians	500
Total	4,237,000

Statistics of the Press, 1824.^d

Number of volumes printed	1,040,500
Engravings and music—Number of copies	143,600

Periodical Works.

The Milan Gazette—Number of copies	1,900
Ladies' Courier	700
Royal Almanack	690
Law Bulletin	1,750

Besides these works, each delegation has its separate journal.

Scientific and Literary Journals.

At Milan	8
At Padua	1
At Treviso	1
At Pavia	1
Total	11

Libraries.

	Volumes
At Belluno, the advocates' library contains	45,000
At Bergamo, the largest contains	30,000
At Brescia <i>Id.</i>	60,000
At Mantua <i>Id.</i>	50,000

* The above table indicates the population according to the census of 1825, contained in the Alphabetisch-topographisches Postreise-Handbuch, published by Max. Fried. Thielen, Vienna 1827.

^b Chief town of Polesino, an ancient province, now a delegation.

^c Chief town of Friuli.

^d Taken from the *Biblioteca Italiana*, February, 1825, January and February, 1826.

At Milan, the Ambrosian library	90,000
<i>Id.</i> the Brera library	140,000
At Padua, the university library	70,000
<i>Id.</i> the Benedictine library	52,000
At Pavia, the university library	33,000
At Venice, library of St. Mark	150,000
<i>Id.</i> the Narri library	40,000
At Vicenza	20,000

Universities and Colleges, in 1822.

Government of Milan	11
<i>Id.</i> Venice	7

University of Padua founded in 1221, attended in 1822 by 300 students.
University of Pavia *Id.* 1361, 750

Number of pupils who attend the colleges and schools	132,000 ^e
In 1815, the pupils attending the different schools in the delegations of Brescia and Bergamo, were as one in	14
In the delegation of Venice, in the year 1823, they were as one in	27
<i>Idem</i> , 1826, one in	23 ^f
Number of convents in 1822	19

KINGDOM OF PIEDMONT AND SARDINIA.

Divided into eight Intendancies, and into forty continental and ten insular Provinces; containing in all ninety-four Towns, two hundred and sixty-nine Burghs, and three thousand three hundred and fifty-six Villages and Hamlets.

DIVISION OF SAVOY.^g

Provinces.	Population.	Chief Towns.	Population.
Savoys Proper	119,910	Chamberry†	12,000
Upper Savoy	35,140	L'Hôpital	1,500
Carouge	37,960	Saint Julien	1,000
Chablais	45,030	Thonon	3,000
Faucigny	68,100	Bonneville	1,200
Genevois	71,850	Anney	5,500
Maurienne	49,770	Saint Jean de Maurienne	2,500
Tarentaise	39,320	Moutiers	2,500

DIVISION OF TURIN.

Turin	315,480	Turin††	114,000
Biella	91,700	Biellat	7,700
Ivrea	136,200	Ivreat	7,000
Pignerol ^h	106,990	Pignerolt	4,000
Susa ⁱ	65,470	Susat	2,000

DIVISION OF CONI.

Coni	143,780	Conit	16,500
Alba	99,380	Albat	7,000
Mondovi	118,370	Mondovit	17,000
Saluzzo	127,600	Saluzzot	10,000

DIVISION OF ALESSANDRIA.

Alessandria	90,530	Alessandriat	30,000
Aequi	76,940	Aequit	6,500
Asti	107,670	Astit	21,000
Casal ^k	102,820	Casalt	16,000
Tortona	47,580	Tortonat	8,000
Voghera	84,770	Vogherat	10,000

DIVISION OF NOVARA.

Novara	115,780	Novarat	13,000
Lumellina	101,330	Vigevanot	15,000
Ossola	30,420	Domo d'Ossola	1,500
Pallanza	60,040	Pallanza	1,500
Val-Sesia	31,320	Varallo	3,300
Vercelli	101,130	Vercellitt	16,000

DIVISION OF AOSTA.

Aosta	64,640	Aostat	5,500
-----------------	--------	------------------	-------

^e According to Hassel.

^f According to M. Balbi. See his work entitled, *The World compared with the British Empire.*

^g The population of the provinces is taken from the census of 1826. The signs † and †† indicate bishoprics and archbishoprics.

^h Pinerolo.

ⁱ Suza.

^k Casale.

DIVISION OF NICE.			
Nice	85,220	Nicet	15,000
Oneglia	51,360	Oneglia	4,000
San Remo	36,650	Ventimigliat	5,500
DIVISION OF GENOA.			
Genoa	208,290	Genoa††	80,000
Albenga	50,860	Albengat	4,000
Bobbio	31,490	Bobbio†	3,500
Chiavari	91,380	Chiavari	8,000
Levante	64,450	Spezia	4,000
Novi	56,540	Sarzanat	3,000
Savona	36,310	Novi	8,000
		Savonat	10,000

Total 3,399,600, on a surface of 2,635 square leagues, giving on an average 1290 for every square league.

Population of Turin at the end of 1825.^a

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Different classes	39,514	43,094	82,608
Working classes	7,744	4,405	12,149
Ecclesiastics	663	—	663
Servants	2,659	4,874	7,533
Jews	777	776	1,553
Individuals in the congregations	275	—	275
Id. in the monasteries	7	215	222
Id. in religious houses ^b	15	848	863
Id. in the seminaries, colleges }	995	—	995
and military academy			
Id. in the hospitals	1,098	1,556	2,654
	53,747	55,768	109,515 ^c

ISLAND OF SARDINIA.

Population of the Provinces in 1821.

1 Cagliari	95,780
2 Busachi	63,270
3 Iglesias	36,680
4 Isili	44,170
5 Lanusei	21,540
6 Nuoro	47,900
7 Sassari	54,710
8 Alghero	26,660
9 Cuglieri	30,110
10 Ozieri	38,130
	461,950

Population of the Dioceses in 1823.^d

Names of the Dioceses.	Towns.	Villages or Burghs.	Population.	Number of Parishes.	Population of the Dioceses.
Cagliari	Cagliaritt	Quarto	27,356	79	109,888
		Sanluri	5,320		
		Sinnai	3,301		
		Gergei	2,643		
Ogliastra	Sassaritt	Villaputzu	2,055	28	25,982
		Seni	2,150		
		Lanuseit	1,814		
		Sorso	1,379		
Sassari	Iglesias†	Bonorvo	19,368	32	77,467
		Ittiri	3,285		
		Osilo	4,253		
		Ploaghe	4,000		
Iglesias	Gastella and Nuoro	Carloforte	4,988	23	22,803
		Nuorot	3,000		
		Dorgali	4,591		
Gastella and Nuoro	Nuoro	Fonni	2,486	25	33,570
		Oliena	3,349		
			3,049		
			3,000		

^a See Annal. Univers. di Statistica, February, 1826.

^b "Lieux de retraite," houses of refuge.

^c The population of 1824 amounted to 107,388
Increase at the end of 1825 2,127

109,515

The increase from the end of 1825 to the end of 1826 was more than double that of the preceding year.

Alghero	Algherot	6,924	26	32,965	
		Villanova			3,176
		Bolotona			2,180
Bosa	Bosat	5,553	20	23,017	
		Santo Lussurgiu			4,022
		Cuglieri			3,405
Bisarcio	Bisarcio	7,766	24	29,760	
		Ozierit			3,019
		Pattada			2,100
Ales	Ales	Budduso	3,307	41	42,093
		Guspini	5,571		
		Villacidrot	3,125		
Oristano	Oristanoff	Gonnos Fanadigo	5,356	73	65,894
		Cabras	2,600		
		Tonnara	2,136		
Castelsardo	Castelsardo	Isili	2,062	21	26,648
		Tempiott	1,964		
		Nulvi	7,057		
Ampurias and Civita	Ampurias and Civita	Sedini	3,009	21	26,648
		La Maddalena	1,343		
			1,758		
		Total	392	490,087 ^e	

Population of the Sardinian states.

	According to their origin.	Catholics	According to their religion.
Piedmontese	3,010,000	3,864,000
Savoyards	386,000	22,000
Sardinians	490,000	3,700
Jews	3,700	
	3,889,700		3,889,700

Population of Sardinia according to their Classes.[§]

Families.	Individuals.
1,600 Noble families	6,200
16,500 Husbandmen ^h	85,000
16,300 Citizens	65,200
66,161 Workmen and Peasants	330,805 ⁱ
Ecclesiastics	1,757
Monks	1,125
	490,087

Congregations and Convents in the Island of Sardinia.

Occupations.	Orders.	Congregations and Convents.	Individuals.
Teachers	Jesuits	2	11
Id.	Teachers of Religious Schools ^k	6	74
Superintendents of Hospitals	St. John ^l	5	28
Proprietors	Different Orders	30	317
Mendicants	Id.	47	695
		90	1,125

Number of Murders in the Island of Sardinia.

The proportion is as one to every 490 inhabitants.
Total number about 1,000^m

Table of Cattle existing in the Island of Sardinia in 1824.

	In a domestic state.	On the mountains
Oxen	91,800	28,500
Cows	17,900	106,000
Swine	30,000	156,000
Horses	29,300	17,800
Goats		314,800
Ewes		669,600
Rams		61,400
		1,523,100

^d The above table has been derived from details furnished by M. Cibrario. See Bulletin des Sciences, section de Géographie, tom. ii.

^e The above population, on a surface of 1,100 square leagues, together with the adjacent islands, gives the small proportion of 445 individuals for every square league.

^f Waldenses.

^g According to an approximation.

^h "Shepherds."

ⁱ According to an approximation. ^k "Pères des écoles pies."

^l "St. Jean de Dieu —" *Fratres Joannis a Deo.*

^m J. Manno, Storia di Sardegna, 1825.

Places of Education in the Sardinian States.

Towns.	Universities.	Number of Students.	Libraries.	Number of Volumes.
Turin	1 ^a	1,200	University	110,000
Genoa	1 ^b	420	S. Carlo	30,000
			Beria	20,000
			Franzoniana	30,000
Cagliari	1 ^c	350	University	70,000
Sassari	1 ^d	120	Id.	15,000
Different Towns	} Gymnasiums } Seminaries	41 37		

BUDGET OF THE SARDINIAN STATES IN 1825 AND 1826.

Revenues of the Island of Sardinia.

	Pounds.	Francs.	Cent.
Cense	200	4,800	
Domains of the Crown	3,504	84,082	73
Direct taxes	38,194	916,647	08
Indirect taxes	71,830	1,723,901	56
Contingencies	857	20,568	63
	114,585	2,750,000	
Revenues of the continental provinces	259,400	62,250,000	
Total	373,985	65,000,000	
Public debt	4,200,000 ^e	100,000,000	

ARMY.

Sardinia.

Infantry	10,000
Cavalry	6,000

Continental Provinces.

Infantry and Cavalry	10,000
----------------------	--------

NAVY.

Sardinia.

Ships of the line	2
Frigates	3

Continental Provinces.

Smaller vessels	7
-----------------	---

PRINCIPALITY OF MONACO.

Population.	6,500
Revenue	16,700 <i>l.</i> (400,000 francs). ^f

DUTCHY OF PARMA.

Containing six Towns, thirty-one Burghs, and eight hundred and fifteen Villages or Hamlets.

Surface in geographical square leagues. g	Population in 1826.	Average Population to every sq. league.
288	440,000	1,180
The population in 1823 amounted to	437,400	
Increase	2,600	

Population of the Towns.

1 Parma	30,000
2 Placentia	28,000
3 Guastalla	5,000
4 Borgo San Donnino	5,000
5 Fiorenzuola	3,000
6 Nibbiano	2,300

^a Founded in 1406.

^b Founded in 1803.

^c Founded in 1704.*

* 1764. *M. B.* 1606. *Ed. Encyc.*

^d Founded in 1765.

^e The Sardinian debt amounted in 1816 to £3,600,000 (86,400,000 francs.) M. Adrian Balbi (*Balance politique du Globe*) makes it equal in 1826, to £4,200,000 (100,000,000 francs.); he admits that his calculation may be inaccurate, but it is certain that the public debt in 1826, was considerably greater than in 1816.

^f M. Ad. Balbi—(considered doubtful.)

^g Twenty geographical leagues are equal to a degree, consequently a geographical square league is equal to nine geographical square miles. Tr. [This is a mistake on the part of the translator. Twenty five geographi-

Principal places of Education.

Towns.	Universities.	Number of Students.	Libraries.	Number of Volumes.
Parma	1 ^h	250	1	110,000
Placentia			1	20,000
Revenue.		Public Debt.		Army.
191,667 <i>l.</i> ⁱ		187,500 <i>l.</i> ^k		1,320 men.

DUTCHY OF MODENA.

Containing eight Towns, sixty Burghs, and four hundred Villages and Hamlets.

Surface in geographical square leagues.	Population in 1826.	Proportion of the population to the sq. league.
260	350,000	1,346

Population of the Towns.

Modena	27,000
Mirandola	6,000
Reggio	18,000
Castel Nuovo di Garfagnana	3,000

Principal places of Education.

Towns.	Universities.	Number of Students.	Libraries.	Number of Volumes.
Modena	1	200	1	60,000
Reggio			1	30,000
Revenue.		Public Debt.		Army.
150,000 <i>l.</i> ^l		50,000 <i>l.</i> ^m		1,680 men.

DUTCHY OF MASSA.

Including two Towns, three Burghs, and thirty-seven Villages and Hamlets.

Surface in geographical leagues.	Population in 1826.	Ratio of the population to the square league.
12	29,000	2,416

Population of the Towns.

Massa	7,000
Carrara	6,000
Revenue.	21,000 <i>l.</i> ⁿ
	Public Debt.
	12,000 <i>l.</i> ^o
	Army.
	100 men.

DUTCHY OF LUCCA.

Containing two Towns, twenty Burghs, and two hundred and seventy Villages and Hamlets.

Surface in geographical leagues.	Population in 1826.	Ratio of the population to the square league.
54	143,000	2,648

Population of the Towns.

Lucca	22,000
Viareggio	2,000

Principal places of Education.

Towns.	Universities.	Number of Students
Lucca	1 ^p	120
Revenue.	Public Debt	Army.
82,000 <i>l.</i> ^q	35,000 <i>l.</i> ^r	800 men.

cal leagues and twenty marine leagues are equal to a degree, consequently a geographical square league is equal to 5.76 geographical square miles, and a marine square league to nine geographical square miles. See Table X. Tab. Math. Geog.—P.]

^h Founded in 1606.

ⁱ "4,600,000 francs."

^k "4,500,000 francs."

^l "3,500,000 francs."

^m "1,200,000 francs."

ⁿ "500,000 francs."

^o "300,000 francs."

^p Founded in 1802.

^q "1,900,000 francs."

^r "800,000 francs—considered doubtful."

GRAND DUTCHY OF TUSCANY.

Including thirty-six Towns, one hundred and thirty-five Burghs, and six thousand and seventeen Villages and Hamlets.

Surface in geographical square leagues.	Population in 1826.	Ratio of the population to the square league.
1,098	1,275,000	1,161

Population of the principal Towns.

Florence	80,000
Prato	10,000
Pistoia	9,000
Arezzo	7,000
Cortona	5,000
Pisa	20,000
Lcghorn	66,000
Piombino	1,500
Pontremoli	3,000
Sienna	18,000
Grossetto	2,000
Volterra	4,000

Provinces.

Compartimento of Florence	596,250
Id. of Pisa	295,640
Id. of Sienna	128,060
Id. of Arezzo	201,290
Id. of Grossetto	53,730

1,275,000

Principal places of Education.

Towns	Universities.	Number of Students	Libraries.	Number of Volumes.
Florence	1 ^a	300	Ducal	80,000
"	"	"	Laurenziana	20,000
"	"	"	Maglia Becchiana	130,000 ^b
"	"	"	Marucelliana	50,000
"	"	"	Ricordiana	20,000
Pisa	1 ^c	660	University	40,000
Sienna	1 ^d	280	University	25,000

Elementary Schools.

Towns.	Lancasterian Schools	Public Schools. e	Army.
Florence	4	8	4,000 men.
Revenue.	Public Debt.		
708,500 ^f			

REPUBLIC OF SAN MARINO.

Containing one Town and four Villages.

Surface in geographical leagues.	Population in 1826.	Ratio of the population to the square league.
3	7,000	2,233

Revenue.	Military forc.
2,920 ^g	40 men.

STATES OF THE CHURCH.

Containing ninety Towns, two hundred and six Burghs, and three thousand three hundred and eighty-seven Villages.

Surface in geographical square leagues.	Population in 1826.	Ratio of the population to the square league.	Number of Jews.
2,257	2,590,000	1,147	15,000

New division into thirteen Delegations.^h

Names of the delegations.	Population of the towns.	Population of the delegations.
1 Bologna	65,000	295,000

2 Ferrara	24,000	250,000
3 Ravenna	24,000	150,000
4 Forli	16,000	170,000
5 {	Pesaro	14,000
	and Urbino	11,000
6 {	Macerata	12,000
	and Camerino	7,000
7 {	Fermo	7,000
	and Ascoli	12,000
8 {	Spoletto	7,000
	and Rieti	7,000
9 {	Viterbo	13,000
	and Civita Vecchia ¹	7,000
10 Ancona	30,000	160,000
11 Perugia	30,000	190,000
12 {	Frosinone	6,000
	and Ponte Corvo	6,000
13 Benevento	14,000	20,000

2,590,000

Principal places of Education, Religious Houses and Hospitals.

TOWNS.	Universities.	No. of Students	Colleges.	Libraries.	No. of Volumes.	Convents.	Different Hospitals.
Ancona	0	0	1	0		16	2
Albano	0	0	0	0		5	0
Ascoli	0	0	1	0		8	1
Benevento	0	0	1	1		14?	4
Bologna	1 ^k	550	0	{ University Magnani	200,000 30,000	6?	4
Camerino	1 ^l	200	0	1		19	0
Civita Vecchia	0	0	1	0		6?	1?
Civita Castellana	0	0	1	0		3	0
Fermo	1 ^m	200	0	1	15,000	3	0
Ferrara	1 ⁿ	300	1	1	80,000	22?	1 ^o
Forli	0	0	1	1		10?	0
Frosinone	0	0	1	0		3?	0
Frascati	0	0	0	0		4	0
Fondi	0	0	0	0		4	1
Macerata	1 ^p	200	1	1	20,000	3	0
Perugia	1 ^q	200	0	1	30,000	20	1
Pesaro	0	0	1	0		10	1
Ponte Corvo	0	0	1	0		3?	0
Ravenna	0	0	1	1	30,000	4?	1?
Rieti	0	0	1	0		3?	0
Rimini	0	0	1	1	25,000	7	0
Spoletto	0	0	1	0		6?	1
Tivoli	0	0	1	0		14	1
Urbino	0	0	1	1	10,000	10	1
Viterbo	0	0	1	1		10?	1
Rome	1 ^r	600	4	Albani Angelica Barberini Corsini Ghihi Of Minerva Of Science Of the Vatican	40,000 100,000 6,000 4,000 25,000 80,000 35,000 70,000	300?	9
	7	2250	22	21		513*	30

^a Founded in 1443.
^b It contains 11,000 manuscripts.
^c Founded in 1339.
^d Founded in 1330.
^e "Ecoles communales."
^f "17,000,000 francs."
^g "70,000 francs."
^h The States of the Church were divided into eighteen provinces in 1824; but the divisions were afterwards changed. We are indebted to M. A. Balbi for the above table.
ⁱ The ninth delegation comprehends the town and territory of Rome.

^k Founded in 1119.
^l Founded in 1824.
^m Founded in 1824.
ⁿ Founded by Leo the Twelfth.
^o The MSS. of Orlando and Jerusalem Delivered, in the handwriting of Ariosto and Tasso, are preserved in the library.
^p Founded by Leo the Twelfth in 1824.
^q Founded in 1307.
^r Founded in 1248.
^s We have not enumerated all the convents in the Roman states; there are few towns or villages without them.

Trapani	147,000	Trapani	24,000
Girgenti	291,000	Girgenti	15,000
Caltanissetta	156,000	Caltanissetta	17,000
Syracuse	194,500	Syracuse	15,000
Catania	292,500	Catania	45,000
Messina	240,000	Messina	60,000

1,730,000

*Population of the islands near Sicily, in 1826.**

Alicudi	260
Basiluzzo	20
Felicudi	820
Lanipedosa	150
Lipari	18,200
Panaria	200
Pentellaria	5,000
Salina	4,200
Stromboli	2,100
Ustica	700
	<u>31,650</u>

Principal places of Education in the Kingdom of the two Sicilies.

University Towns.	Number of Students.	Libraries.
Naples ^b	800	3
Salerno	300	1
Palermo ^c	600	1
Catania ^d	500	1

Marriages, Births and Deaths in the Kingdom of Naples during the year 1824.^e

Provinces.	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
Naples	5,588	29,258	20,722
Terra di Lavoro	4,432	23,168	18,570
Principato Citra	2,860	16,917	9,776
Principato Ultra	2,587	13,572	9,558
Abruzzo Ultra 1 ^o	1,507	10,038	6,012
Abruzzo Ultra 2 ^o	1,533	9,667	6,578
Abruzzo Citra	2,177	10,908	8,836
Capitanata	2,289	13,554	9,457
Sannio or Molise	2,630	14,187	12,636
Terra di Bari	3,144	18,936	11,320
Terra di Otranto	2,824	15,763	10,414
Basilicata	3,816	20,978	13,166
Calabria Citra	2,513	15,717	9,750
Calabria Ultra 1 ^o	1,936	9,381	6,353
Calabria Ultra 2 ^o	2,969	12,966	10,284
	<u>42,805</u>	<u>235,010</u>	<u>163,432</u>

* The inhabitants of the islands are included in the population of the Intendancies.

^b The university of Naples was founded in 1224.

^c University founded in 1447.

^d University founded in 1445.

^e Giorn. del regno delle due Sicilie, July, 1825.

^f Exclusively of strangers.

Population, &c. of Naples in 1824.

Males	Population. f	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
	165,015		7,584	6,455
Females	184,175	2,970	7,407	6,021
	<u>349,190</u>		<u>14,991</u>	<u>12,476</u>

Longevity in 1824.

Both sexes	From ninety to a hundred years of age.	Above a hundred years of age.		Total
		Males	Females	
	132	1	9	142

Suicides.

In 1823	13	In 1824	7
-------------------	----	-------------------	---

Population, &c. of Palermo in 1824.^f

Popula- tion.	In the Convents.	Marria- ges.	Births.	Natural Children.	Deaths in pri- vate Houses.	Deaths in the Hospi- tals.	Deaths.
164,788	{ Males 1,510 } Females 3,070	978	{ Males 3,361 } Females 3,197	597	3,964	1,067	{ Males 2,627 } Females 2,404
Total number of births and deaths				6,558	Excess of births		5,031 1,527

Population &c. of Palermo during the ten years from 1816 to 1825, inclusive.^h

Population.	Marriages.	Births.	Natural Children.	Deaths.
167,505	10,882	65,766	6,922	48,893
		Excess of births		16,873

Longevity during the ten years from 1806 to 1815, inclusive.

Out of 47,914 deaths, seventy-nine individuals were above ninety-seven years of age.

From 97 years to 101	49
From 102 to 105	22
At 106 years	3
At 107 years	2
From 109 to 110	3
		<u>79</u>

Budget of Sicily in 1823.

Revenue.	Expenditure.
£1,730,350 ^l	£2,264,555 ^k

Budget of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies in 1826.

Revenue.	Debt.
£3,500,000	£21,000,000 ^l

ARMY.	ROYAL NAVY.			TRADING VESSELS.			
	Ships of the Line.		Smaller Frigates.	Polacres.	Brigan- tines & Pinks.	Schooners.	Xebscks, Fe- luccas, &c
30,000 men.	2	5	18	20	220	15	3,480

^g Bulletino universale di scienze, lettere, arti e polit. July 4, 1825.

^h Tavole sinottiche sulla popolazione di Palermo, by M. Calcagni, honorary physician of the great hospital of Palermo.

ⁱ "41,328,270 francs."

^k "Expenditure, 52,349,310 francs.—Excess of expenditure above the revenue, 11,021,040 francs."

^l "Revenue 84 millions francs—Debt 500 millions francs?"

BOOK CXXXVII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued—Physical Geography of the Spanish Peninsula—History of the ancient People that inhabited Spain and Portugal—Mussulman Conquest.

No part of Europe is more favoured by nature than the Spanish Peninsula; its mountains, by the facilities they afford to partisan warfare, contribute to defend it against hostile invasions, and so great is the variety of its climate, that the productions of the tropics are blended with those of the temperate zone. Lofty plains, fruitful in useful plants, hills covered with vineyards, rich vallies, watered by fertilizing streams, and rivers so situated as to afford easy communications by means of canals, are the elements of an agricultural wealth, which might be rendered, by industry, more valuable than the possession of the largest colonies. A vast extent of coast, furnished with spacious and safe harbours, open to the navigation of two seas, is not less favourable to commerce. By what causes have the sources of so great prosperity been rendered unavailing? The population of France exceeds that of Spain by more than fourteen millions, but the superficial extent of Spain is greater than that of France by two thousand and sixty-five square leagues.

This extensive region has been called a peninsula, perhaps incorrectly; for the space included between the gulfs of Lyons and Gascony can hardly be considered an isthmus, since it is not less than ninety leagues in breadth, while the Peninsula itself is hardly three times as broad. The Pyrenees separate it from France. One half of the country is watered by the ocean, and the other by the Mediterranean. The greatest length from east to west is equal to 220 leagues, and the greatest breadth from north to south, to 190. The surface of the Peninsula is equal to 28,804 square leagues: of these, 4,922 belong to Portugal, 23,867 to Spain, and 15 to the republic of Andorra.^a

It is only of late years that the physical geography of the country has been accurately described. The mountains by which it is divided, it was formerly supposed, extended from a common centre, and their ramifications were compared to the veins of a vine leaf. A writer of very varied acquirements has detected the errors of former geographers. If the Spaniards are now less ignorant of the mountains, rivers and basins in their peninsula, they are indebted to the labours of a foreigner.^b

^a These leagues are each equal to two English miles and a half; if then they be multiplied by 6 $\frac{1}{4}$, the result will be equal to the superficial extent of the Peninsula in English square miles.—Tr. [The French geographical league, or 25 to a degree, is equal to 2.77 Eng. miles; the French post league, to 2.42 Eng. miles.—P.]

^{*} The writer of the note should have said, these sq. leagues are equal to 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ Eng. sq. miles, (the linear leagues being equal to 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ Eng. miles.) But the French leagues here employed are undoubtedly the geographical of 2.77 Eng. miles (linear meas.) as will appear by comparison with the extent of the Peninsula in Eng. sq. miles, (217,502 Eng. sq. miles, Morse;) consequently the leagues in the text should be multiplied by 7.67, to give the Eng. sq. miles.—P.

The mountains in the Peninsula, according to M. Bory de St. Vincent, form seven different divisions.

The Pyrenæan range, which comprehends the whole chain of the Pyrenees, may be divided into five principal masses. First, the *Mediterranean* or eastern, in which the highest summit is the peak of Canigou, and from the declivities of which rise the Segre, a feeder of the Ebro, and the Ter and the Llobrega, that throw themselves into the Mediterranean; secondly, the *Aquitanian*, the glaciers of which are the sources of the Garonne and the Adour, but from which no large river flows into Spain; thirdly, the *Cantabrian* or central, separated from the Asturian by the sources of the Ebro; fourthly, the *Asturian*, almost as high as the Aquitanian, and rising abruptly on the south; fifthly, the *Portuguese* or western, of which the ramifications extend to the mouth of the Duero.

A geologist has observed that, although the Pyrenæan chain belongs to the granite formation, the same substance is not so ancient as in several other parts of Europe.^c Granite rocks are seen throughout the whole range, and they still bear the marks of a former revolution.^d Micaceous schistus rests on the sides of the granite mountains, and supports, in its turn, rocks containing organic remains of the most ancient date; the latter are overlaid with red sandstone; and lastly, calcareous rocks, similar to those on the Alps and Jura, extend to the lowest declivities. White marble or primitive limestone appears in different directions above the granite, and the Alpine limestone is, in many places, covered with rocks containing amphibole.^e

The Iberian range consists of different chains, which unite on the north-west with the Pyrenees, and terminate on the south-east, near the banks of the Guadalaviar. These different chains, united to each other, are called the *Sierra de Oca*, the *Sierra de Moncayo*, the *Sierra de Gudar*, and the *Sierra de Espadan*. The *Sierra de Molina*, which joins the *Sierra de Albaracin* and the mountains of Cuenca, belongs to the same range.

The chain, consisting of the latter mountains, forms a subdivision that has been called the Hesperian range. Calcareous rocks^f abound, and the low plains are covered with alluvial deposits, mixed with so many fossil bones, that the localities where they are found are known to the inhabitants

^b M. Bory de St. Vincent, *Guide du Voyageur en Espagne*, 1 vol. 8vo. 1823. *Diccionario de España y Portugal*, por el Doctor Sebastian de Miñano, 10 vol. 4to. 1826. The arrangement of the mountains, in the article Spain, in the Dictionary, is almost literally a translation from M. Bory de St. Vincent's work.

^c M. de Charpentier, *Essai sur la Constitution Géognostique des Pyrénées*.

^d "Soulèvement"—elevation from beneath.

^e Trap rocks

^f Sp. *Sierra*, Port *Serra*, a chain of mountains.—P.

^g "Calcaire ancien."

ny the name of Las Calaveras.^a Many of the remains belong to animals now extinct. The vallies from the sources of the Guadalaviar to its mouth, are watered by rapid streams, and surrounded by steep heights. The Sierra de Espadan has been compared to a long wall; lofty peaks are seen from sombre vallies, and tortuous ravines, intersected by many rivulets, form an inextricable and gigantic labyrinth. Calcareous rocks,^b abounding in different metals, rise towards the east, but on the west, the country assumes a different aspect; the mountains are less precipitous, and their black and porous rocks indicate a volcanic origin.

The Carpetano-Vettonic range, so called, because, in ancient times, its sides were inhabited by the *Carpetani* and the *Vettones*, joins the Iberian mountains on the east, and terminates on the west at Mount Junto, which commands the Tagus at no great distance from its mouth. The principal chain is steep and narrow; it forms the boundary between Old and New Castile, and separates the province of Salamanca from Estremadura. From the same chain, during the winter season, proceed the storms and tempests that are not uncommon at Madrid, and in summer, it increases the heat of the atmosphere, by reflecting the burning winds, which blow from Africa, and traverse the arid plains of La Mancha. Some summits are so lofty, that the snow has been known to remain on them throughout the year. The range may be divided into three groups; the eastern, formed by the *Somo-Sierra* and the *Guadarrama*; the central, or the *Sierra de Gredos*, the most elevated of them all, in which there is a *sua!* *g. acie!*, near the place called *Palacio del Moro Almanzor*, and several lakes, the outlets of which unite with the Tormes, a feeder of the Duero; lastly, the western, which comprehends the *Peña de Francia*, the *Sierra de Gata*, the *Sierra de Estrella*, and the heights that reach to the neighbourhood of Lisbon. In no part of the Peninsula are the woods and forests so extensive as in the last group. Granite appears to be the most common rock; it is of a coarse texture and a grayish colour, and it may be concluded to be of a comparatively recent formation, both from its liability to decomposition, and from the masses of a harder granite contained in it. Calcareous rocks abound in the neighbourhood of Madrid, where chalk, containing dark-coloured flints, serves as a support for recent deposits.^d

The Lusitanian range is lower than any that have been already mentioned, and the snow never remains on any part of it during the summer. It occupies the country between the Tagus and Guadiana, and is formed by the mountains of Toledo on the east, the *Sierra de Guadalupe* in the centre, and the *Sierra de San Mames* on the west; from the latter the *Sierra de Estremos* projects to the south.

The Marianic range, or the chain formed by the ancient *Marianus*, is higher than the last; the greatest elevation may be about 4600 feet,^e and the snow remains in some places during nine months in the year. The greatest part of the chain separates the course of the Guadiana from that of the Guadalquivir. The eastern extremity consists of two branches, the *Sierra Alcaraz* and the *Sierra de Segura*; the centre has been called the *Sierra Morena*, which signifies the black mountains, and recalls the ancient name of

Mons Marianus; the *Sierra Albaleya*, which terminates near the Guadiana, forms the western extremity. The heights that surround Alcaraz are composed of argillaceous sandstone; and a chain consisting of volcanoes, now extinguished, but still easily discernible, stretches along the base of the summits situated near the sources of the river.^f

The Cuneic range consists of the small chain which the ancients called *Mons Cuneus*. It extends from the mouth of the Guadiana to Cape St. Vincent, and separates the kingdom of Algarva from the province of Alentejo, which forms the southern part of Portugal. It consists of two chains, the eastern or the *Sierra Calderona*, and the western or the *Sierra de Monchique*. The heights are not lofty, and the range differs from the others in its constituent parts: sandstone is very common, but lava and other substances of the same kind appear in the eastern part; the name of *Sierra Calderona*, or the *Caldron Mountains*, is not inapplicable to that part of the range, since it consists of a series of volcanic cones, the craters of which still retain their forms and the characters that mark their origin.

The Bætic range, of which the northern sides formed the Roman province of *Bætica*, extends from the Rio Almanzor to the heights that terminate near the mouth of the Guadalquivir. The central part is made up of the *Sierra Nevada* and the *Sierra de Loja*. Although not the largest, it is certainly the loftiest range in the Peninsula. Many summits, higher than the Pyrenees, are covered with eternal snow. The steep sides of the mountains of Ubrique, Algodonales and Gator, are commanded by the peak of San Cristoval. The snow always appears on the top of the *Serrania de Ronda*, where a small hermitage has been erected, and dedicated to *Nuestra Señora de las Nieves*.^h In the eastern part of the same range are different groups, that rival each other in height; the most remarkable are the *Sierra Prieta*, the *Sierra de Alhama* and the *Sierra Tejada*, but in point of picturesque scenery, they cannot be compared with the *Sierra de Torqual*, in which rocks of various forms and dimensions are so singularly arranged, that they might be compared to the ruins of a town built by the Titans. But these mountains are neither so imposing nor so lofty as the summits of the Sierra Nevada, which, commanding the horizon on every side, bear the marks of perpetual winter. The snow line commences at the height of about 9500 feetⁱ above the level of the Mediterranean, which bathes the southern base. From these summits, says M. Bory de St. Vincent, may be seen at the same time the Sierra Morena, more than thirty leagues distant towards the north, and the coasts of Africa, which are at least forty-five leagues distant to the south. The Mulahacen is the most elevated point in that range of snow-covered peaks; it reaches nearly to the same height as the famous peak of Teneriffe, or, in other words, to more than 12,700 feet.^k The vallies in the Bætic range are deep, and cross each other in every direction; most of them are watered and rendered fruitful by limpid streams.

The whole chain is of primitive formation. The Sierra Nevada is schistous; primitive limestone and marble of different colours^l rest upon the gneiss, together with calcareous breccias, which are employed as ornaments in building.

^a Calavera signifies a skeleton.—Tr. [*Las Calaveras*, the skulls.—P.]

^b "Calcaire ancien." ^c Sp. *Peña*, Port. *Penha*, a rock.—P.

^d Of tertiary formation.—P.

^e "Some of the summits are 800 or 900 toises in height."

^f Bowles, *Introduccion a la Historia Natural y a la Geografia fisica de España*, 4to. 1782.

^g Sp. Port. *Serrania*, a chain of mountains.—P.

^h Our Lady of the Snow.

ⁱ "Rather more than 3050 metres"—about 10,000 feet.

^k "At least 3600 or 3700 metres"—about 11,800 or 12,100 feet. Altitude of the Peak of Teneriffe, 12,175 feet.—(Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^l "Veined marble."

The fine kind of onyx, called *nicolo* by the lapidaries, is not uncommon in the neighbourhood of Cape Gata. The rock of Gibraltar, at the other extremity of the chain, rises to the height of 1470 feet^a above the Mediterranean. It has excited for a long time the attention of geologists. It consists of gray limestone, divided by perpendicular fissures, and these are filled with calcareous concretions, containing an immense quantity of bones and shells; many of the former belong to different sorts of deer, none of which are at present found in Europe.^b Such phenomena may be considered the proofs of a partial cataclysm, fatal to the animals which formerly inhabited our continent.^c

As connected with the heights in the Peninsula, it may be worth while to mention the *Parameras*, or interior table-lands, all of which are very lofty, and many of a great size. They either extend between different parts of the ranges that have been already mentioned, or are situated near their summits, so that they appear less elevated than they really are. The most remarkable of these bare and solitary table-lands are situated in the provinces of Avila and Soria. In the Pyrenees, in the mountains of Molina, Albaracin and Cuenca, and also in those of Toledo and Gredos, may be seen other *parameras*, which, independently of their extent, might be compared with the arid summits in Tartary.

Considered physically, the Peninsula may be divided into five large basins, and into as many others of a smaller size. To the first class belong the basins of the Ebro, the Duero, the Tagus, the Guadiana, and the Guadalquivir; to the second, the basins of the Guadalaviar, the Jucar,^d the Segura, the Mondego, and the Minho. The basin of the Ebro, although the smallest in the first class, is larger than any other that communicates with the Mediterranean. Three of the second class are also inclined in the same direction; while, from four large basins and two of a smaller size, the waters of the Peninsula are borne to the ocean. Thus, before the straits of Gibraltar were formed, all the eastern and southern declivities in the country must have been submerged, while the others, on the side of the ocean, were no longer inundated.

The Tagus flows through the longest basin in the Peninsula; it was famed in ancient times; its name has not been changed.^e Poets have celebrated the happy banks and flowery meads of the Tagus; but whoever surveys its numerous windings, discovers little that can justify the praises of Silius Italicus and other ancient writers. The arid banks are, in most places, very steep; for more than three fourths of its course, it flows with the rapidity of a torrent. The ancients styled it *Auratus*, but no particles of gold are now found in the red ooze carried down by the waters. The river has its source in the Albaracin mountains, and the length of its course is not less than a hundred and seventy leagues. The principal feeders on the right bank are the *Jarama*,^f which is enlarged by the *Tajuna*, the *Guadarrama*, that descends from the mountains of the same name, the *Alberche*, that rises between the mountains of Gredos and Avila, the *Tietar*, that has its source in one of the branches of the Sierra de Gredos, and lastly, the *Alagon* and the *Zezeze*, the former rising from the Sierra de Francia, and

the latter at the base of the Sierra de Estrella. The largest streams that enter the Tagus on the left bank, are the *Rio del Monte* and the *Salor*, of which the one descends from the Sierra de Guadalupe, and the other from the Sierra de Montanches.

The ancient name of the Anas is still retained in the Guadiana, an Arabic periphrase which signifies the water of the Ana. The length of the river is about 150 leagues; it descends from the mountains of Cuenca, where it is called the Rio Gijuela; but as it is formed by several streams that unite with each other, its real source has not yet been determined. It is supposed that it issues from the marshes of Riduera, whence indeed a rivulet escapes and disappears after a course of twenty-five miles,^g but it is seen anew near a place called the *Ojos de Guadiana*.^h The *Ojos* or Eyes are several large fountains which issue from the earth, and form by their junction a stream that the inhabitants of the country call the Guadiana. Several rivers are known which appear and disappear, but if the marshes of Riduera be really the sources of the Guadiana, it disappears twice before it has traversed its extensive basin. The size of the river, still insignificant below the Gijuela, is not much increased until it receives the *Jabalón* on the left bank, and the *Bullague* on the right, the latter of which descends from the mountains of Toledo. It receives, at a greater distance from its source, the *Guadalema* and the *Zaya*, which rise in the mountains connected with the Sierra Morena; the other feeders are the *Matachel*, which issues from the Sierra Constantina, and the *Ardila* and the *Chanza*, that descend from the Sierra de Aracena. All these enlarge the Guadiana, and give it such a degree of velocity below Martola, as to form a cataract, called the Wolf's Leap, or *Salto del Lobo*.

The Duero, or the Douro,ⁱ the ancient *Durius*, flows through a broader basin than the Tagus or the Guadiana; it has its source in the peak of Urbion, and separates it from the Sierra de Oca. The length of its course is about a hundred and forty leagues, and, as its basin is very broad, most of its feeders are important. The *Pisuerga*, one of the largest on the right bank, is formed by the junction of several rivers that rise in the Pyrenees^k and the Sierra de Oca; the *Esla*, which descends from the Pyrenees,^l and receives itself several large feeders, falls into the Duero, below its junction with the *Pisuerga*; the *Tanega* enters the same river at the distance of fifteen leagues from the ocean. The feeders on the left bank are the *Eresma*, from the *parameras* of Avila, the *Tornes*, from the lofty summits of Gredos, and the *Rio Coa*, from the Sierra de Gata. The soil in different parts of the basin is not unfruitful, but, in some places, the land is so heavy, that the rain changes it into a thick and tenacious clay, while, in others, it consists of moving sand, on which the only plants are resinous trees. The river, after it leaves the mountains, waters dismal and extensive *parameras*, of which the elevation above the sea is not less than 2400 feet.^m A wretched vegetation heightens the monotonous appearance of these immense plains.

When the Arabs made themselves masters of the Peninsula, they were struck with the great size of the Bætis, and

^a "450 metres." The Sugar Loaf, the most elevated point, is 1439 feet in height. Ed. Encyc.

^b "It consists of gray limestone, divided by perpendicular fissures, filled by calcareous and ferruginous concretions of a fine red colour, in which are contained an immense quantity of bones and terrestrial shells. The remains of quadrupeds belong partly to small *rodentia*, and partly to deer, all of which are of different species from any now found in Europe."

^c Recherches sur les Ossemens Fossiles, par M. G. Cuvier, 4to. 1821.

^d Xucar. ^e Fr. *Tage*, Sp. *Tajo*. Port. *Tejo*.

^f Xarama. ^g "10 leagues." ^h The eyes of Guadiana.

ⁱ Span. *Ducro*, Port. *Douro*.

^k Properly, the range continued westward from the Pyrenees, called the Pyrenean range by M. Bory de St. Vincent.—P.

^l See note k. ^m "700 or 800 met'es."

gave it the name of *Guad-al-Keber*,^a or great river, which has been changed by the Spaniards into *Guadalquivir*. According to the common opinion, it rises on the western declivity of the Sierra Sagra; but since, according to the rule generally adopted by geographers, the source of a river must be sought in the stream most distant from its mouth, the Guadermena, which descends from the Sierra Alcaraz, has been incorrectly denominated, and should have been called the Guadalquivir; thus the river rises in the basin of the Guadiana, and traverses the Bætie range. Two other large rivers, issuing from the same basin, enter the Guadalquivir on the right side, one of which, or the Ajandula, flows across the Sierra Morena, and the other, or the Biar, opens a passage for itself in the middle of the Sierra Constantina. The Genil,^b or the ancient *Singilis*, the largest feeder that flows from the Sierra Nevada, enters the same river on the left bank. The lands near the Genil are in many places deeply impregnated with salt; efflorescences hurtful to vegetation are formed in the summer season. The Guadalquivir, after its junction with the Genil, waters a low and fruitful country, but beyond the neighbourhood of Seville, a belt of land, about two leagues in breadth, which the inhabitants call the *Marisma*, as insalubrious as the Italian Maremmas, extends from the Tablado to the salt marshes of San Lúcar. That small uninhabited region is intersected by several brackish streams, which, descending from the declivities of Moron and Montelliano, change the country into a sort of marsh; a few slender plants, useful only in furnishing soda, are all the vegetation on the light ooze thus formed. But the river, divided into several branches, encloses different islands, such as the *Menor* and the *Major*,^c as well as others of great fertility, and numerous herds of cattle are reared on their rich meadows. The same river is not navigable above Cordova.

It is at Font-Ibre, (Lat. *Fons Ibera*^d) in the valley of Reynosa, that the Ebro takes its source. It was called the *Iberus* by the Romans. During the greater part of its course, it is confined by mountains, and the vallies they enclose afford passages to its numerous feeders. On the left side, the *Agra*^e and the *Arragon* unite, and, at no great distance beyond their junction, enter the river; farther down, it receives the *Gallego*, near Saragossa, and the *Cinca* and the *Segre*,^f below Mequinenza; all of these rivers flow from the Pyrenees. Other feeders descend from the Sierra de Oca, the Sierra de Moncayo, and the Peña de Goloca. The principal are the Xalon, which has been compared to the Marne, and the Guadalupe, which the Arabs rendered useful by their canals in the basin of the Ebro. The length of the Ebro, including its windings, amounts to about 120 leagues; although less sinuous and more rapid than the Seine, it may be compared to it from the extent of its course and the body of its water. Its navigation is often impeded by rocks that have fallen from the mountains; consequently the Spanish government has been at considerable expense in constructing a canal parallel to the river, from Tudela to Sastaga. It might be equally useful to complete a canal, which was begun many years ago, between the Ebro and the Duero. The country between the two rivers is not of such a nature as to oppose any great obstacles, but the funds are wanting for the completion of such a work. A canal stretches along the Segre, between Mequinenza and Lerida. These canals

in the basin of the Ebro have diffused abundance in that part of Spain; still their number is not sufficient. The deposits which the river carries to the Mediterranean have formed a considerable delta at its mouth, and it has been necessary to cut a canal, in order that vessels may ascend to the small town of Amposta below Tortosa.

The other basins in the Peninsula, although of less consequence, may be briefly mentioned. On the south of the Ebro extends the basin of the Guadalaviar, a small river rising between the Sierra Molina and the Sierra de Albaracin, and fed by several streams, of which the Alhambra is the most considerable. The length of its course is more than fifty leagues: the basin which it waters is bounded on the north by the Peña Goloca, and other heights that extend towards the Ebro, and on the west by the chain that stretches to the Sierra de Albaracin. On the south of the last is situated the basin of the Júcar, another small river, fed by the Gabriel and the Lambay, and forming many windings between mountains and hills. The Júcar rises on the western declivities of the Sierra de Albaracin, and runs to the distance of more than eighty leagues. The basin of the Segura is broader than the two last; on the north and on the east it is bounded by hills, and a group of mountains, called the Peñas de San Pedro, extends on the north-west; on the west are situated the Sierra Alcaraz and the Sierra Sagra. The Segura, including its windings, is equal in length to fifty-five leagues; it receives the waters of the Río Mundo, the Quipar and the Sangonera. In the first part of its course, the country which it waters is wild and desert, but from the valley of Ricote to the Mediterranean, the soil is covered with the richest vegetation.

Two small rivers discharge their waters into the ocean; the largest of these, or the Minho,^g descends from the Sierra de Mondonedo: although of considerable breadth, the length of its course does not exceed sixty leagues. It flows southwards until it joins the Sil, then turns to the west, where it is bounded on one side by the Sierra de Penagache and the Sierra de Estrica, and on the other by the Sierra de Barcia. The mountains adjoining the same basin, exclusively of those connected with the Pyrenees, belong to the Sierra de Segondina, from which the Bibey, a feeder of the Sil, takes its course. The Mondego, a river to the south of the Duero, flows in the direction of east to west; the basin through which it passes is enclosed by the Sierra de Aleoba and the Sierra de Estrella; the distance from its source to its mouth is not less than fifty leagues; it is fed by the Alva, the Seire and the Soire.

The division of any country according to the basins that may be contained in it, cannot satisfy the geographer, who seeks other limits than those which are obvious to the eye, other boundaries than the courses of rivers. A writer,^h who has thrown additional light on many subjects, has divided the Peninsula into four parts, according to the inclination of the surface. The first or the Cantabrian division is formed by the northern declivities of the Pyrenees, from the sources of the Adour to Cape Ortegá. The second or the Lusitanian division consists of the southern declivities of the Pyrenees and of those which are watered by the Duero, the Tagus and the Guadiana; it forms a vast semicircle, of which the two extremities are Cape Ortegá and the mouths of the last mentioned river. The southern declivities of the Sierra

^a Wadi-al-Kibir.

^b Xenil.

^c *Isla Mayor* and *Isla Menor*, the greater and lesser islands.—P.

^d The Ebro rises from a spring at the foot of the castle of Font-Ibre.—P.

VOL. III.—NO. 46.

^e Arga.

^f Segra.

^g Sp. *Miño*.

^h M. Bory de St. Vincent.

Morena, and all the mountains connected with the same chain, that terminate at Cape Gata, including the Sierra Nevada, make up the third or Bætic division, which embraces within its circuit the Guadalquivir and its branches. The last or the Iberian division comprehends the eastern declivities of all the mountains, which, extending from Cape Gata to the Pyrenees, form the Sierra de Algamilla, the Sierra de Segura, the Sierra de Albaracin, the Sierra de Molina, the Sierra de Moncayo, and the Sierra de Oca. The southern declivities of the Pyrenees, from their connexion with these Sierras, form part of the same division. This arrangement, intended to explain the passage taken by the sea, when it left the Peninsula, does not appear to correspond strictly with the phenomena which the vegetation of the country presents. To elucidate that subject, another plan must be adopted; this fair portion of Europe may therefore be divided into six regions, by which it will not be difficult to classify the principal facts relative to the temperature.

The central or Celtiberian region comprehends the two great table-lands of Old and New Castile, or, in other words, the Sierra de Gata, the Sierra de Gredos, the Sierra de Avila, and the mountains of *Somo-Sierra*, on the north of the Tagus, and on the south of the same river, the Sierra de Manes and the mountains of Toledo to the defiles of the Sierra de Molina, and also all the western declivities of the Sierra Morena and the Sierra de Albaracin, as far as the Sierra Martes. Although forests and isolated summits occasionally appear in this part of the Peninsula, it consists chiefly of sterile and immense plains; it is formed by an assemblage of table-lands, not unlike the central one in Asia Minor. The apple-tree is nowhere seen; the olive begins to show itself in the south, and the vine succeeds almost throughout the whole extent. The oak that yields the sweet acorn flourishes in the same part of the country; its fruit,^a in taste not unlike the almond, may be conceived to have been food for the earliest inhabitants of Spain.

The southern or Bætic region extends from east to west, from Cape Palos to Cape St. Vincent, and from north to south, from the southern declivities of the Sierra Morena, including the mountains of Algarva, to the Mediterranean and the ocean. The climate is hotter than in Sicily. The country in the neighbourhood of the sea might almost be considered an African zone; it is marked by the presence of the banana, the dwarf-palm and the cactus.^b The stony places are covered with the caper-bush; its numerous and long stems, and its large flowers with purple stamens, adorn with their elegant tufts the rocks and uncultivated lands. A second zone, always verdant, and covered with the plants of Sicily and Italy, rises above the last. The myrtle, the orange and lemon tree, the rose laurel, the agnus castus, the tamarisk and the oleander are most common in this part of the Peninsula. Another and a higher zone is adapted for the vine and different kinds of grain: forests of pine extend above it, and to these succeed Alpine plants and heights covered with eternal snow.

The eastern or Iberian region comprehends, from north to south, all the space between Cape Palos and Cape Creux, and from east to west the basin of the Ebro, and the lands situated between the Sierra de Molina, the Sierra de Albaracin, the Sierra Martes, the mountains of Palomera and Orihuela, and the Mediterranean. This magnificent portion of the Peninsula, which may be compared to the shores of Ionia and

Doris, possesses all the plants of Sicily, the Archipelago and the Levant. The olive flourishes every where, the carob tree grows near the lentisk, while the myrtle, the laurel, the fig and the mulberry display their varied foliage; the grape yields a strong wine, but within the same division, as in the last, are situated several zones, which exhibit different kinds of vegetation, from the low vallies to the summits of the Pyrenees.

The Lusitanian region, or that of the lower Tagus, extends from south to north, from Cape St. Vincent to Cape Roca; its breadth is determined by the southern branch of the Sierra de Estremos, and farther north by the Sierra de Manes. It is sheltered against cold winds by the mountains on the north of the Tagus. The lower parts are covered with sandy heaths, but one zone may be distinguished by its groves of orange and olive trees. M. Bory de St. Vincent observed on the coasts, particularly to the south, a vegetation similar in some respects to that of the Atlantic islands. "From the mountains of Cintra and the Semas de Ourem to Cape St. Vincent," says the same writer, "botanists may discover a great many plants, which, it was supposed, were confined to the Azores, Madeira and the Canaries. American plants thrive and multiply easily; some of them might even be considered indigenous; at all events, they have banished such as are so in many large districts, where they flourish as well as in their native land."

The Galician region, or that of the Duero, which occupies, from north to south, the space between Cape Roca and Cape Finisterre, is different from the preceding; the oak and the chestnut abound, and the vine prospers, but the olive and the orange appear only in the low vallies to the south of the Duero.

The northern or Cantabrian region comprehends all the country from the sources of the Adour to Cape Finisterre; it is intersected by vallies, which incline either from east to west, or from south to north. The plains are not extensive, and all of them are situated near the coasts. The constant and uniform character of the region consists in the absence of the cistus and rose laurel. The orange and the olive are reared with difficulty, and the same remark is applicable to the vine; but the hills and vallies in this fruitful region are covered with lofty forests, rich crops and verdant meadows. The constant verdure may be attributed to a fertile soil and a humid atmosphere. The apple flourishes in every district; cider is substituted for light wine, so that the country may be considered the Normandy of the Peninsula.

If, as every appearance leads us to believe, Africa and Spain were once united, the Balearic islands must have been part of the Peninsula. They seem to be a continuation of the chain which terminates at Cape St. Martin; their general direction is from south-west to north-east; they consist of four principal islands, Ivica and Fromentera, Majorca and Minorca, but several others of a smaller size are situated near their coasts. Thus, around Ivica, may be seen *Conejera Grande* or Great Rabbits' island, as well as Esparto, Bebra, Espalmador,^c Espardella^d and Tagam. Near the coasts of Majorca, are situated *Dragonera* or Dragons' island, *Conejera* or Rabbits' island, and *Cabrera* or Goats' island. The island of Ayre lies near the southern shores of Minorca: the others may be passed over in silence; they are of little or no importance.

The island of Fromentera^e is equal to four leagues at its

^a Span. *Bellota*.

^b Schow's Botanical Geography. Copenhagen, 1822.

^c Espalmadora.

^e Formentera.

^d "Espardell"—Espartil?

greatest breadth, while its utmost length does not exceed five. It is believed that it has been so called in modern times, from the great quantity of grain which it produces in proportion to its surface. It was the lesser Pityusa or *Pityusa Minor* of the ancients.^a Ivica or Iviza,^b to the north of the last, is about twenty-two leagues in circumference; the Romans called it *Ebusus*. It might be inferred from their ancient names,^c that these islands were once covered with forests.

Majorca or Mallorca^d is the *Balearis Major* of the ancients: it is about fifty leagues in circumference. Strabo informs us that the rabbits, which the early inhabitants brought to it, multiplied so rapidly, that the people were at last obliged to implore the assistance of the Romans to destroy these animals.^e

Minorca or Menorca,^f the ancient *Balearis Minor*, is not less than thirty-eight leagues in circumference; it lies to the east of the last.

The land in these islands is mountainous; their geological formation is everywhere the same. Calcareous rocks are the most common, a fact that may serve to corroborate the opinion concerning their submarine junction with Cape St. Martin. The heights of the mountains, the rocks and the vegetables of the Baleares, have been accurately known since 1825, the year that a French naturalist^g visited these islands. The island of Majorca is, in these respects, the most interesting; its two principal mountains are the *Puig de Torcella* and the *Puig Major*.^h The two groups of mountains, which divide the island, are formed by calcareous rocks, belonging to the rock called *lias* by the English, and to the oolitic limestones.ⁱ Dolomite, porphyry, and other rocks, which appear to be of igneous origin, are also to be met with. Medicinal springs and different specimens of copper ore indicate the mineral wealth of the island, from which the inhabitants have hitherto derived no advantage. Majorca, like the other Baleares, may be distinguished by its arid summits and verdant vallies. The carob and the olive tree appear in all their vigour. The first occupies the lowest level, and ascends to the height of 1500 feet.^k The second thrives on the mountains; it unites with the box and the Aleppo pine, in covering the declivities, but the last, extending to the height of six hundred feet^l above the olive, mingles with the evergreen oak, which reaches 300 feet^m above it. The highest summits are covered with the *Sesleria cœrulea*.ⁿ The dwarf palms, on the stony heights near the coast, protect with their broad foliage different species of *Cyclamen*, *Ononis* and *Anthyllis*. The peasants often set fire to the forests of oaks and pines on the mountains, in order to promote the vegetation of a plant which they call *carregt* (*Donax tenax*.) It diffuses itself over all the vacant space thus produced, and affords, in the following year, an abundant nourishment for mules and cattle. In vain do the

pinces and oaks push forth their shoots; the carregts keep their ground, and it is not until after many years that they yield to the efforts of their gigantic neighbours. The myrtle, the pistachio,^o the thorny caper bush, the cistus, and the rosemary, on the stony heights near the mountains of Majorca, indicate the Mediterranean region. The ligneous *sali cornia* and the tamarisk grow in the salt marshes near the shore, the vine flourishes on the hills, and the cotton plant is cultivated in low and humid places.^p It is unnecessary to give an account of the vegetable productions in the neighbouring islands, as they differ but little from those that are found in Majorca.

The *Baleares*, or *Balearides*, were so called by the Greeks, from the great skill with which the inhabitants used the sling.^q According to Pliny, these islands were also called *Gymnasie*,^r because the inhabitants went naked to battle.^s Their arms were a small buckler, a javelin, and three slings of different sizes, one or other of which was used according to the distance of the enemy. Their children were early accustomed to handle the same instrument; it is said that their parents refused to give them food, until they hit a mark at a certain distance. It has been inferred from the surname of *Gymnasii*, or *naked*, that the Greeks and Romans had not often friendly intercourse with these islanders, for it is certain that in private life, they wore dresses long before the inhabitants of Italy. The Romans conquered the Baleares, not so much to put a stop to the piracies of the islanders, as to deprive the Carthaginians of important stations for the commerce of the Mediterranean. The same people founded *Palma* and *Pollentia* in Majorca, two places which shall be afterwards mentioned; these islands formed part of the Tarragonian province (*Provincia Tarraconensis*.)

Many conjectures have been formed concerning the origin of the words *Hispania* and *Hesperia*, the ancient names of the Peninsula. It is probable that *Hispania* comes from the Phœnician word *span*, which signifies *concealed*—not an inapplicable name, for at an early period, the country was little known to the Phœnicians. It has been also said that they called it *Spania*, from the number of rabbits they observed in it.^t The Greeks called it *Hesperia*, from its western situation, relatively to their own country.^u The name of *Iberia*, which it also bore, seems to have been derived from the name of its early inhabitants. M. Bory de St. Vincent supposes them a colony from the island or continent of Atlantis. Such an assumption, however, is liable to many objections, but it appears to be as probable as the opinion supported by several Spanish authors, who affirm that the first inhabitants of their country were descended from Tubal, a son of Noah,^x who landed in Spain twenty-two centuries before the Christian era.

The Iberians, according to Herodotus, were divided into

^a The ancients also called it *Ophiusa*.—P.

^b Ibica, Ibiza, Iviza, Yvica. (*Pityusa Major* of the ancients).—P.

^c *Pityusæ*, Pine islands.—(πῦνος, a pine).—P.

^d Majorca, Majorica, Mallorca, Mayorca, (the Greater).—Ed. Encyc.

^e Book III. ch. 2. sect. 2.

^f Minorca, Menorica, (the Smaller).—Ed. Encyc.

^g M. Cambessède, member of the Society of Natural History and of the Philomathic Society of Paris.

^h M. Cambessède took a barometrical measurement of the two mountains; according to him, the first is equal to 4,778 feet in height, and the second to 3,676. ["1463.6 and 1115.4 metres."]

ⁱ "Secondary calcareous rocks (*calcaires de sédiments inférieurs*), i. e. the *lias* of the English, and the oolitic limestones."

^k "500 metres." ^l "200 metres." ^m "100 metres."

ⁿ Blue Moor grass—found in mountain pastures, throughout the greater part of Europe.—P.

^o *Pistacia lentiscus*.

^p Cambassède, *Enumeratio plantarum quæ reperiuntur in insulis Balearibus*, 4to. Paris, 1827.

^q From the Greek word *ballo*, I throw.

^r The original states that the inhabitants were called *Baleares* or *Balearides* by the Greeks, and *Gymnasii* by Pliny. The two Greek terms were applied to the islands (*Baleares Insulæ*.) Pliny's name is also applied solely to the islands—"Græci *Gymnasias* dixerunt." They were called *Gymnesia* (Γυμνησία) by Strabo.—P.

^s Plin. Hist. Nat. Lib. III. cap. 5.

^t The double signification of the word *span* (concealed, rabbit,) leads to this double interpretation. The Romans adopted the last, as appears from a medal of Adrian, on which Spain is represented by the figure of a woman with a rabbit at her side. See Florez, *Medallas de España*, tom. i. p. 109.

^u *Hespera* (ἑσπερα) signifies the west, or the evening, in Greek. [*Hesperia* (ἑσπερία), western or evening (adj.)—P.]

^x Son of Japhet.

six tribes; the *Cyneta*, *Gletæ*, *Tartesi* or *Turdetani*, *Eleusini*, *Martini*, and *Celeiani*. Strabo informs us that the Turdetani had made great advances in civilization, that they applied themselves to literature, and that they possessed books of poetry and history of a very ancient date, and laws which, they affirmed, were written six thousand years before his time.^a

Diodorus Siculus mentions the passage of the Celts into Spain. The Iberi made war against them for a long time, but, after an obstinate resistance on the part of the natives, the two people entered into an agreement, according to which, they were to possess the country in common, bear the same name, and remain for ever united; such, says the same historian, was the origin of the Celtiberi in Spain. These warlike people, continues Diodorus, were equally formidable as cavalry and infantry, for when the horse had broken the enemy's ranks, the men dismounted and fought on foot. Their dress consisted of a *sagum* or coarse woollen mantle; they wore greaves made of hair, an iron helmet adorned with a red plume, a round buckler and a broad two-edged sword of so fine a temper as to pierce through the enemy's armour. Although they boasted of cleanliness both in their food and in their dress, it was not unusual for them to wash their teeth and bodies with urine, a custom which they considered favourable to health. Their habitual drink was a sort of hydromel; wine was brought into the country by foreign merchants. The land was equally distributed, and the harvests were divided among all the citizens; the law punished with death the person who appropriated more than his just share. They carried so far the duty of hospitality, that they considered it a special favour to entertain a stranger, being convinced that the presence of a foreigner called down the protection of the gods on the family that received him. They sacrificed human victims to their divinities, and the priests pretended to read future events in the palpitating entrails.^b At every full moon, says Strabo, they celebrated the festival of a god without a name; from this circumstance, their religion has been considered a corrupt deism.

The Phœnicians were the first people who established colonies on the coasts of Spain; *Tartessus* was one of the most ancient; at a later period, they founded *Gades*, now Cadiz, on an island of the same name. They carried on there a very lucrative trade, inasmuch as it was unknown to other nations; but in time, the Rhodians, the Samians, the Phocæans and other Greeks established factories on different parts of the coast.

Carthage had been founded by the Phœnicians; but the inhabitants, regardless of their connexion with that people, took possession of the Phœnician stations, and conquered the whole of maritime Spain. The government of these republicans was less supportable than that of their predecessors; the Carthaginians were unable to form any friendly intercourse with the Spaniards^c in the interior; their rapine and cruelty excited the indignation of the natives.

The ruin of Carthage paved the way to new invaders, and Spain was considered a Roman province two centuries before the Christian era. Those who had been the allies, became the masters of the Spaniards, and the manners, customs and even language of the conquerors were introduced

into the Peninsula. But Rome paid dear for her conquest; the north, or the present Old Castile, Arragon and Catalonia, was constantly in a state of revolt; the mountaineers shook off the yoke, and it was not before the reign of Augustus that the country was wholly subdued. The Peninsula was then divided into three provinces, *Lusitania*, *Bætica* and *Tarraconensis*.

The Lusitanian province or the western region was separated on the north from *Tarraconensis* by the Duero, as far as its confluence with the Tormes; the two most eastern points within its limits were *Libora* on the Tagus,^d and *Augustobriga*. The course of the Guadiana served as a boundary from the mountains of Toledo to the Atlantic. Thus, it comprehended the greater part of Portugal, and all Estremadura. *Emerita Augusta*, the present Merida, was the capital of the province.

Bætica was separated from Lusitania by the Guadiana, and from *Tarraconensis* by a line extending from the neighbourhood of Ciudad-Real to the Rio-Almanzor; it formed the most southern portion of the Peninsula; *Corduba* was its capital.

All the rest of Spain was included in the province of *Tarraconensis*; *Gallacia*^e on the north-west, now Galicia, *Carthaginensis*, now the kingdom of Murcia, and the Balearic islands were contained in it.

The same province was also called *Hispania Citerior*, while the two others formed *Hispania Ulterior*.

The southern part of the province of Lusitania was peopled by the *Cyneta* or *Cynesii*, the earliest inhabitants of Algarva, and by the *Celtici* or *Celta-Gletæ* between the Guadiana and the Tagus. The country round the mountains of Gredos belonged to the *Vettones*, a people that passed alternately from a state of inactivity and repose to the vicissitudes and hardships of war. The *Lusitani*, a nation of freebooters, were settled in the middle of Estremadura; they were distinguished by their activity and patience of fatigue; their food was flour and sweet acorns;^f beer was their common beverage. They were swift in the race; they had a martial dance, which the men danced, while they advanced to battle.^g

The part of Bætica near the Mediterranean, was peopled by the *Bastuli* or, as they were also called, the *Pani*. The *Turduli* inhabited the shores of the ocean, near the mouth of the Bætis. The *Bæturi* dwelt on the Marianic mountains,^h and the *Turdetani* inhabited the southern declivities of the Sierra de Aracena. The last people, more enlightened than any other in Bætica, were skilled in different kinds of industry long before their neighbours. When the Phœnicians arrived on their coast, silver was so common amongst them, that their ordinary utensils were made of it. What was afterwards done by the Spaniards in America, was then done by the Phœnicians in Spain; they exchanged iron and other articles of little value for silver; nay, if ancient authors can be credited, they not only loaded their ships with the same metal, but if their anchors at any time gave way, others of silver were used in their place.

The people in *Gallacia*, a subdivision of *Tarraconensis*, were the *Artabri*, who derived their name from Cape *Artabrum*, now Cape Finisterre; the *Bracari*, whose chief town was *Bracara*, the present Braga; and lastly the *Lucenses*,

^a Strabo, Book III. ch. 2.

^b Diodorus, Book V. ch. 31.

^c "The Celtiberians."

^d *Libora* was situated in *Tarraconensis*, but very near the limits of *Lusitania*. (D'Anville. Encyc. Method.)—P.

^e The inhabitants were called *Callaici* or *Callaci*.—P.

^f Strabo says that the *Lusitani* dried their acorns, and then ground them, and made bread of the flour—"ξηραντες—εἰτα ἀλεσσεις και ἀροτοποιουσαινοι."—P.

^g Strabo, Book III. ch. 3.

^h *Mons Marianus*, the Sierra Morena.

of which *Lucus Augusti*, now Lugo, was the capital. These tribes and some others formed the nation of the *Cal-aici* or *Gallaci*,^a who, according to the ancients, had no religious notions. The *Asturi*,^b now the Asturians, inhabited the banks of the *Asturis* or the country on the east of the Gallæcian mountains; *Asturica Augusta*^c was their capital. The *Vaccæi*, the least barbarous of the Celtiberians, possessed the country on the east of the *Asturi*. The fierce *Cantabri* occupied the coasts of Old Castile; it was customary for two to mount on the same horse, when they went to battle. The *Carites*^d or *Caristi* inhabited part of Biscay on the same declivities of the Pyrenees; on the southern side of those mountains, the *Turmodiges*^e and the *Murbogi*^f were settled in the province of Burgos. Their neighbours on the east, were the *Autrigones* in Alava, the *Berones* in Rioja, and the *Varduli* in Guipuscoa. The *Vascones* or the Navarrese, the ancestors of the present Gascons, were settled on the north of the Ebro. The *Jacetani* were scattered on the Pyrenæan declivities of Arragon. The brave *Ilergetes* resided in the country round Lerida, and the *Ves-citani*, between the *Vascones* and the *Ilergetes*. As to the country on the east of these tribes, the whole of Catalonia was peopled by the *Cerretani*, the *Indigetes*, the *Castellani*, the *Ausetani*, the *Saletani*^g and the *Cosetani*.^h As to the country on the south of the Ebro, the *Arevaci*, who were so called from the river *Areva*, were settled in the neighbourhood of Arevalo, and in the province of Segovia; the *Pelendones* possessed the high plains of Soria and Moneayo. The space comprehended between the mountains of Albaracin and the river, was peopled by the *Edetani*, one of the most powerful tribes in Spain. The *Ilercavones*,ⁱ who were not less formidable, inhabited an extensive district between the Upper Jucar and the Lower Ebro. The territory of the *Suesetani*, between the Ebro and the Guadalaviar, extended to the shores of the Mediterranean. The country of the *Carpetani*, including the space from the Guadiana to the Somo-Sierra, forms at present the archiepiscopal see of Toledo. The people on the south of the last, were the *Oretani*, between the Guadiana and the Marianic mountains, and the *Olcades*, a small tribe, near the confluence of the Gabriel and the Jucar. *Carthaginensis*, a subdivision of Tarracoenensis, was inhabited by two tribes;—the *Bastitani* in the centre of Murcia, who often made incursions into Bætica, and the *Contestani*, who possessed the two banks of the Segura, near the shores of the Mediterranean, from Cape Palos to the Jucar.

In time of peace, says Diodorus Siculus, the *Iberi* and *Lusitani* amused themselves with a lively and light dance, which requires much activity. That ancient writer alludes perhaps to the *fandango*, a dance of which the origin is unknown. An assembly, composed of old men, among the Celtiberians, was held every year; it was part of their duty to examine what the women had made with their own hands within the twelve-month, and to her, whose work the assembly thought the best, a reward was given. An ancient author,^k who mentions that singular custom, adds that copulency was considered a reproach by the same people; for in

^a See note e, p. 828.

^b *Astures*, D'Anv.

^c The modern Astorga.

^d *Carities*, Pliny, B. III. ch. 3.

^e *Turmodigi*, Pliny.

^f *Murbogi*, Ptolemy.

^g *Saletani*?—P.

^h As the *Ilergetes* inhabited the country around Lerida, they must have occupied a part of Catalonia.—P.

ⁱ *Ilercavones*, D'Anv.

^k Nicholas of Damascus. See his fragments collected by Constantine Porphyrogenitus.

order to preserve their bodies light and active, the men were measured every year by a girdle of a certain length, and some sort of punishment was inflicted on those who had become too large. The age of marriage was fixed by law; the girls chose their husbands among the young warriors, and the best means of obtaining the preference, was to present the fair one with the hand of an enemy slain in battle.

Strabo enters into some details concerning the dress of the ancient Spaniards. The Lusitani covered themselves with black mantles, because their sheep were mostly of that colour. The Celtiberian women wore iron collars with rods^l of the same metal rising behind, and bent in front; to these rods was attached the veil, their usual ornament. Others wore a sort of broad turban, and some twisted their hair round a small rod^m rising about a foot above the head, and from the rod was appended a black veil. Lastly, a shining forehead was considered a great beauty; on that account, they pulled out their hair, and rubbed their brows with oil.ⁿ

The different tribes were confounded while the Romans oppressed the country, but in the beginning of the fifth century, the Suevi, the Vandals and the Visigoths invaded the Peninsula, and mixing with the Celts and Iberians, produced the different races, which the physiologist still observes in Spain. The first people or the Suevi descended the Duero under the conduct of Ermeric, and chose Braga for the capital of their kingdom. Genseric led his Vandals to the centre of the Peninsula, and fixed his residence at Toledo; but fifteen years had not elapsed after the settlement of that barbarous horde, when Theodoric, conquered by Clovis, abandoned Toulouse, penetrated into Spain, and having taken Toledo, compelled the Vandals to fly into Africa. During the short period that the Vandals remained in the country, the ancient province of Bætica was called Vandalusia, and it bears the name of Andalusia to this day. But the Visigoths soon extended their conquests, and all the country from the Ebro to the Straits of Gibraltar, submitted to them. The ancient Celtiberians, who had so long resisted the Romans, made then no struggle for liberty or independence; they yielded without resistance to their new masters. Powers and privileges were the portion of the Gothic race, and the title of *hijo del Godo*, or the son of the Goth, which the Spaniards changed into *hidalgo*,^p became the distinctive appellation of a noble or a free and powerful man among a people of slaves. A number of petty and almost independent states were formed by the chiefs of the conquering tribes; but these barons or free men acknowledged a liege lord. Spain and Portugal were thus divided, and the feudal system was thus established. Among the Visigoths, however, the crown was not hereditary, or at least the law of regular succession was often set at defiance by usurpers. The sovereign authority was limited by the assemblies of the great vassals, some of whom were very powerful; indeed the Count Julian to avenge himself on King Roderic for an outrage committed on his daughter, delivered Spain to the Mahometan yoke.

After the country had submitted for three centuries to the

^l *κορακες*, beaks, processes. ^m *στυλισκος*, a little column.

ⁿ "Some removed the hair from the front part of the head, in such a manner as to render it more shining than the forehead."—*αλλας δε τα προκομια ψιλων επι τοστων, ως' αποσιλβειν τω μετωπω μαλλον.* Strabo, l. c.—P.

^p Strabo, Book III. ch. 2 and 3.

^q *Hidalgo* has been derived from *hijo de algo*, the son of somebody—a much less probable etymology than the one given in the text.—P

Visigoths, it was subdued by the Arabs in the year 712. A single battle, fought at Xeres on the left bank of the Guadalete, was sufficient to secure the conquest. The settlement of the Moors in the Peninsula may be considered one of the events which illustrate the superiority of a well informed and polished people over a nation divided by factions, and degraded by the feudal system. Cordova was chosen as the capital of their empire; rendered confident by success, they devoted themselves to the sciences, cultivated letters and the fine arts, embellished Cordova, Granada and other towns with their elegant mosques, governed the vanquished with mildness and justice, and nowhere violated the laws of a wise toleration. By such means, they thought to strengthen their empire, while a poor but intrepid people in the mountains of Asturia, were silently preparing a way for the independence of their country. Pelagius or *Pelayo*, a simple shepherd, whom some writers call a prince or a king, because he showed himself worthy of being one, founded the kingdom of Oviedo, which was extended by conquest to the Duero, and even to the chain of Guadarrama; the same kingdom was afterwards divided into two, those of Leon and the Asturias.^a The Christians were encouraged by his example; whilst they, to preserve themselves, concentrated their forces, the lieutenants of the caliphs were divided by ambition, and weakened by civil discord. They were styled kings of Cordova, Seville, Valencia and Granada, but they were not united, and separately they were unable to resist the torrent that threatened to destroy them. From the year 1085, the Moors began to lose their provinces in Spain, and on the second of January, 1492,^b Ferdinand of Arragon and Isabella of Castile made their triumphant entry into Granada, the last bulwark of the Mussulmans.

The kingdom of Granada lost with its ancient masters, its wealth and power. It was the finest conquest of the Spaniards, but fanaticism transformed it into a desolate and wretched province. The Mahometan population, the most enlightened, industrious and wealthy in the Peninsula, were reduced to slavery. It was forgotten that the Moors had

respected in the time of their prosperity, the laws and the religion of the vanquished. The fires of the Inquisition were kindled by the same men who preached union and brotherly love. According to the terms of the capitulation, concluded with the last king of Granada, no one was to be punished for his religious belief; but the violation of treaties made with infidels, was considered an act of piety by the Holy Office. The conquered, almost reduced to despair, were easily excited to revolt. Unable to resist, great numbers received baptism, and the wealthiest on paying a stipulated sum, obtained permission to pass into Africa. By this measure, considerable sums flowed into the royal treasury, but immense capitals were for ever taken away from Spain. Not satisfied with its triumph, the Inquisition pretended that the conversion of the Mussulmans was not real, and the latter could only escape from death by a new and successful revolt. Having fled for shelter to the mountains, they called to their assistance their brethren in Africa, but before any aid could be had from that quarter, a Moorish sovereign was proclaimed, conquered and beheaded. The Spanish government, emboldened by the weakness of the rebels, refused their submission, and they were banished from the kingdom, conformably to a decree of Philip the Third.

Their expulsion was an act of state policy, of which the consequences were long fatal to the arts, agriculture and commerce of Spain. A Spanish writer thus describes the kingdom of Granada about the beginning of the sixteenth century. "A short time after the conquest of Ferdinand, that rich province contained seventy fortified towns, and Granada alone was peopled by two hundred thousand inhabitants."^c The imposts and produce of the mines in the same part of the Peninsula, were enormous comparatively with what they are at present. The single tax on silk produced a revenue of 181,500 gold ducats.^d It is humiliating to the Spaniards, says an English writer, that the noblest monuments in their country, are those which a hateful race of conquerors left behind them.^e

^a The kingdom was at first called the kingdom of Asturias, and afterwards the kingdom of Leon and Asturias. It continued united as one kingdom till its union with Castile, A. D. 1037.—P.

^b The standard of the cross and the royal standard were hoisted on the walls of Granada, Jan. 2, 1492. The triumphal entry took place Jan. 6.—P.

^c Zurita, Annals of Arragon.

^d Al. de Laborde, *Voyage pittoresque et historique de l'Espagne* folio, tom. ii.

^e Hallam's Middle Ages

BOOK CXXXVIII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Spanish Peninsula. Kingdom of Portugal and Algarva.

It may not perhaps be deemed according to rule, to commence the political account of the Peninsula, with that of a kingdom so insignificant as Portugal; but it should be recollected that the same method has been already followed,^a and in a historical point of view, the kingdom of Portugal merits the priority, for it was freed from the Saracens, and in possession of its present limits, long before Spain had shaken off the Mahometan yoke. Henry of Burgundy was created count of *Portocale*, because he assisted the king of Castile in his expeditions against the Moors. About the commencement of the twelfth century, Alphonso Henriquez, the son of the same Henry, received from his soldiers the title of king, after having killed with his own hand five Musulman princes, whose heads occupy a prominent place in the armorial bearings of Portugal.^b It was about the middle of the following century, that Alphonso the Third took Algarva from the Saracens. Free in a land which their courage had delivered from foreign oppression, it was during the same heroic age that the Portuguese emerged from the darkness of barbarism, and betook themselves to the sciences, to navigation, agriculture and trade; they led the way in the career of those memorable discoveries that extended the circle of European communication with Asia and Africa, and afterwards with a vast continent, of which the genius of Columbus had conjectured the existence. In the annals of the middle ages, no nation holds a greater rank than the one that during two centuries, conquered many islands, gave laws on the banks of the Ganges, founded numerous towns and factories in India, covered every sea with its ships, and shared with Spain vast territories, bounded according to the decrees or caprice of a Roman pontiff. If Portugal was invaded by Philip the Second, when the dynasty of Avis became extinct, if it remained sixty years subject to Spain, the colonies it lost during the same period, roused the spirit of the nation, and gave rise in 1640 to a conspiracy, by which the independence of the country was secured, and the crown conferred on a duke of Braganza, the founder of the reigning family. Although comparatively insignificant in point of population, it has shown more than once how

much the strength of a country may be increased by the public spirit of the inhabitants. Recollecting its past glory, it may be expected that, under an enlightened government and a wise policy, it may again occupy no mean station among the kingdoms of Europe.

The kingdom of Portugal extends from north to south, between the forty-second and thirty-seventh parallels, and from east to west, between the ninth and eleventh degrees of longitude. Its political limits on the north are Galicia and part of the province of Zamora; the boundaries on the east are the provinces of Salamanca and Estremadura and the kingdom of Seville.

The natural limits of the same country are a part of the course of the Minho, and the mountains of Penagache and Segondera, on the north; on the east, a part of the Douro, the Turon, the Herjas, a part of the Tagus, the Sever, a portion of the Guadiana, the Chandza, and the lower Guadiana from its junction with the Chandza to its mouth; the ocean forms the southern and western confines of the kingdom. Its greatest length from north to south is equal to a hundred and twenty-five leagues,^c and its greatest breadth from east to west is about fifty. The superficies amounts to four thousand nine hundred and twenty-two square leagues,^d and the population to three million, three hundred and forty thousand inhabitants.

As Portugal is very narrow from north to south, it might be thought that the climate throughout the kingdom was almost uniform; but the inequalities in the soil, the direction of the vallies, and the greater or less proximity of the ocean, have a considerable influence on the temperature. It is sufficient to travel a few leagues to transport oneself from the excessive heat of Lisbon to the cold of Germany. Although the temperature diminishes gradually from the coast to the highest summits, still the laws of increase or diminution are modified by several local causes. Thus, in the high country, in the province of *Tras-os-Montes*, the heat is excessive during summer, and more particularly so in the neighbourhood of Lanego, for the hills of slate near the town, incline to the south, and the Marao forms a barrier against the north wind. Besides, the distance from the sea is so great that the wind from that direction passes with difficulty into the

Tras-os-Montes, and afterwards to the whole kingdom. The most ancient document in which the name of Portugal occurs, bears the date of the year 1069; it is carefully preserved in the monastery of Aroun. See Gaetano de Lima, *Géographie Historique*, tom. i. p. 86.

^c The league mentioned in this work, is equal to the twenty-fifth part of a degree.

^d Geographers differ as to the extent of surface; M. Bory de St. Vincent makes it equal to 3,437½ square leagues—Cheling to 1,642.37 German square miles, or 4,566 square leagues—Franzini to 28,350 miles of sixty to the degree.

The last measurement, which has been adopted by Balbi, seems to be the most correct.

^a M. Bory de St. Vincent, *Guide du Voyageur en Espagne*.

^b Some authors have derived the name of Portugal from *Porto-Gallo* (the French port,) a town in which Henry of Burgundy and his companions resided, and which is now called Oporto or Porto. Other writers affirm that there was an ancient town named *Cale*,* now *Gaya*, at the mouth of the Douro; in course of time, a harbour was constructed opposite to Cale, which received the name of *Portucalet* (the port of Cale,) and became the town of Porto, of which *Cale* or *Gaya* now forms the suburb. It is from the word *Portucale* that the name of *Portucale* was first applied to the present provinces of Minho and

* *Calle*, D'Anv.

† *Portus Callis* or *Porto Calle*. (Ed. Encyc)

country, whilst the confined situation of the valley, and the arid slate-hills exposed to the sun's rays, render it one of the warmest parts of Portugal in the summer season.^a

The lower districts in the same kingdom, possessing the advantages of a very short winter, may be said to have a double spring. The first begins in February; the succeeding months are sometimes cold and rainy, at other times warm and dry. The crops are reaped in June, and by the end of July the plains are scorched, the grass becomes yellow, the trees wither, and it requires much labour and care to preserve esculent vegetables. While the heat along the coast is often more excessive than in the torrid zone, the temperature of the higher regions is cool and mild.^b The low country is adorned with a second vegetation about the end of September or beginning of October. The plants of spring succeed suddenly those of autumn, the meadows are covered with new grass, the trees seem to have resumed their foliage, and the orange groves, then in flower, give to the month of October, all the charms of the finest spring. Winter commences at the end of November, and continues until the month of February; it is the season of much rain and violent hurricanes; the torrents then make a passage for themselves to the rivers, while the latter overflow their banks, and the ordinary communications between different parts of the kingdom are interrupted. But the cold is never rigorous, and it rarely freezes, in the low country. Still the frost is sufficiently keen in the mountains of *Tras-os-Montes* beyond the *Douro*, and also on the summits of the *Serra de Estrella*, the *Serra de Manes* and the *Serra de Estreiros*; although the snow accumulates, the rivers are seldom frozen. The Portuguese affirm that snow lies during the greatest heat of summer on the summit of the *Gaviarra* in the province of *Minho*, in some cavities of the *Marao*, and on the tops of the *Estrella*. But snow does not remain more than a month on the other mountains, and it is altogether unknown in the kingdom of *Algarva*. The north wind prevails in winter in the provinces of *Tras-os-Montes* and *Entre Douro e Minho*, and the south-west wind in those of *Beira*, *Estremadura* and *Alentejo* during the same season. The greatest cold is generally accompanied with the east wind, which passes over the snowy summits of *Castile*. In the other seasons, and particularly in summer, the north-west wind blows in the morning, and the south-west in the afternoon.

According to a well informed observer,^c the winter at *Lisbon* and in the basin near the mouth of the *Tagus*, continues during *December*, *January*, *February* and *March*; *April* and *May* are the two months of spring; the summer lasts from the beginning of *June* to the end of *September*, and the autumn from the first of *October* to the end of *November*. The basin of the *Mondego* in the neighbourhood of *Coimbra*, is more temperate than *Lisbon*, but it is also more humid and less salubrious. The climate of *Oporto* and *Penafiel* is equally humid, but the winters are colder and more cloudy, while the summers on the contrary are very warm. The winters are very mild in the kingdom of *Algarva*; the meadows are always enamelled with flowers. Rain is unfrequent during the months of *July*, *August* and *September*. If *October* be a rainy month, it is not uncommon to see the fruit trees blossom anew in *November*. *December* and *January* are the wettest months, and abundant rains in *April* are the signs

of a plentiful harvest. A remarkable fact in the history of atmospheric phenomena may be mentioned; in the month of *May* the wind follows generally the direction of the sun, or in other words, it blows from the east at sunrise, from the south at mid-day, from the north-west in the evening, and from the north during the night.^d

Although Portugal be a mountainous country, it is seldom exposed to violent storms; thunder is only heard during the autumn and winter.

Having entered into sufficient details concerning the temperature, a few remarks may be offered on the salubrity of the climate. Portugal is justly celebrated on this account in England, and many examples of longevity prove that the opinion, unlike many of the same nature, is not founded on prejudice. Among the places noted for their salubrity are *Braga*, *Ponte de Lima*, and almost all the others in the province of *Minho*. *Mirandella*, *Villa Pouca*, *Montalegre*, and several other towns in *Tras-os-Montes* are equally healthy. The same remark is applicable to the upper valley of the *Mondego* in the centre of the kingdom, or to the country between *Guarda* and *Ponte de Marcella*. *Ourem*, *Loures* and *Lisbon* in *Estremadura*, *Beja*, *Evora* and *Ourique* in *Alentejo*, and *Monchique*, *Faro* and *Tavira* in *Algarva*, have been commended for the same reason by the Portuguese. But many parts of the country, particularly such as are humid and marshy, are considered unwholesome. The inhabitants of *Quarteira*, *Lagos*, *Silves* and *San Marcos de Asserra* in *Algarva*, as well as those of *Silveiras* and *Monte-Mor-o-Novo* in *Alentejo*, are subject to different maladies, attributable to local causes. *Pezo de Regoa*, *Chaves*, *Braganza* and *Miranda* in *Tras-os-Montes* possess a sad celebrity. The same may be said of *Almeirim* in *Estremadura*, and almost all the southern bank of the *Tagus* between the *Rio-Almanzor* and the country near *Lisbon*, and of the southern declivities of the *Estrella*, and the lands watered by the *Mondego* from *Coimbra* to *Figueira* in the province of *Beira*.

Some diseases are most prevalent in particular situations; thus at *Lisbon*, apoplexy, paralysis, and complaints of the liver and breast, are more common than in other parts of the country, and the variations of temperature occasion different sorts of fevers, and other diseases produced by suppressed perspiration. The people in the northern provinces are subject to rheumatism and pleurisy, and the salt marshes on the coast produce obstructions and dropsy. A sort of leprosy attacks the working classes in *Beira*, and intermittent fevers, dropsy and anthrax^e are not unfrequent in *Alentejo*; lastly, the inhabitants of *Algarva* are exposed to gastric fevers, and to a certain inflammation known by the name of *mal de Bariga*, which medical men attribute to the great quantity of unripe figs that constitute the principal food of the lower orders during three or four months in the year.^f

The frequency of earthquakes may be considered the greatest calamity to which the southern part of Portugal is exposed; a year seldom passes away without the recurrence of several shocks, and since the eleventh century *Lisbon* has been fifteen times more or less injured. It has been observed that they happen between the months of *October* and *April*, and particularly after the first rains that succeed the heat and droughts. These facts are important, inasmuch as they

^a Ad. Balbi, *Essai Statistique sur le Royaume de Portugal et d'Algarve*, tom. i.

^b The difference of temperature between the coasts and the high country is about ten degrees of Fahrenheit, or four and a half of Reaumur.

^c Colonel *Franzini*, cited by *Balbi*.

^d This wind is called *Vento Rodeiro* (turning wind) by the natives.

^e Carbuncle.

^f Ad. Balbi, *Essai Statistique*.

prove an invisible relation between the atmospheric phenomena and those taking place in the depths of the earth. The data hitherto collected concerning volcanoes and the shocks which they produce, are extremely vague; but enough is known to prove that the subterranean communications in which they are developed, extend to a great distance, since the famous earthquake that overturned Lisbon in 1755, was felt almost at the same instant in Africa, Ireland and America.

It would be incorrect to estimate the mineral wealth of Portugal from the inconsiderable profits gained by the inhabitants; a more accurate notion of its value and importance may be inferred from the facts recently published by M. Balbi. Few countries in Europe have a greater number of mineral springs: there are ten in the province of Minho, six in Tras-os-Montes, seventeen in Beira, twelve in Estremadura, nine in Alentejo, and two in Algarva. These are either gaseous, saline, sulphureous, ferruginous or merely warm; all of them are of a temperature more or less elevated. The Carthaginians obtained their metals from the same country; it still possesses mines of gold, silver, iron, lead and tin; but it is now dependent on foreigners for these substances, which, if well worked, might form a lucrative branch of exportation. The coal mines are for the most part neglected; the salt marshes are alone worked with profit; the number of workmen employed in them, thirty years ago, was equal to five thousand four hundred, and the annual quantity of salt to 384,000 casks; but much less of the same article is now exported; the annual produce does not exceed 140,000 casks, of which the value in English money may be estimated at L.100,000.^a

Agriculture is in a less advanced state than in most of the corn countries in Europe; a quantity sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants is not produced in the kingdom; on an average, 150,000 measures^b of grain are imported every year, and it costs more than L.1,500,000.^c It may be added too, that only a sixth part of the imported grain is brought from the Portuguese colonies. M. Balbi, however, believes that enough is produced in ordinary years to maintain the inhabitants; he attributes the necessity of importation to the consumption at Lisbon, into which place, from the want of roads, supplies cannot be brought from the interior. The same cause is not without its influence on the agriculture of the country; the freedom of the port at Lisbon serves only to aggravate the evil, inasmuch as foreign corn is thus attracted into the kingdom. Other causes retard the development of agricultural industry; it may be sufficient to mention the heavy imposts to which the peasantry are subject, the great number of privileged estates belonging to the crown, the nobility, the church and different towns, the want of hands occasioned by the military service, which falls principally on the inhabitants of the country, and also a common custom among the nobility, that of not living on their estates, but of letting them on long leases to farmers, who subset them to labourers; lastly, the want of communications, occasioned by the bad state of the roads. Government has endeavoured to put an end to all these abuses;

^a "The number of workmen, thirty years ago, amounted to more than 5400, and the annual produce to 384,000 *muids*, [a measure equivalent to 68.725 Eng. bushels nearly.—*Encyc. Method. Commerce, art. Mesures.*] The exportation of salt has since undergone a sensible diminution; it amounts at present only to 140,000 *muids* annually, of which the value in French money is estimated at 3,200,000 francs."—P.

^b "Muids."

^c "36,000,000 francs."

^d "280,000 quintals of codfish (*morue*.)"

but civil dissensions and an impoverished treasury have hitherto prevented the proposed improvements.

The wretched state of agriculture must have necessarily some effect both on the number and quality of the cattle, and the same effect operates in its turn on the culture of the soil. The days on which the people abstain from butcher's meat, make up nearly a third part of the year; hence they are obliged to receive annually from foreigners 280,000 hundred weights of dried or salted fish,^d an article which costs them every year about L.415,000.^e The bad quality of the pasturage, which the husbandman is not anxious to improve, and the little profit he derives from his milk, being unable to convert it into butter or cheese, account sufficiently for the dependence of Portugal on its neighbours.^f The oil obtained from its neglected olives is so ill made that it cannot be a source of profit; indeed, if the quantity of the same article which is imported, be compared with the quantity exported, it may be found that the former exceeds the latter in value by L.5000. Under better management, Portugal could not only supply her colonies but several foreign countries with oil.

The provinces of Minho, Tras-os-Montes and Beira are fruitful, but chiefly in grain. The greater part of Estremadura and Algarva remains uncultivated; the principal products of the last province consist in figs and almonds. Pears and apples are cultivated in the other parts of the country; chestnuts abound everywhere, and those of Colares and Portalegre are as much extolled as the figs of Almada. Estremadura is enriched by the sale of oranges and lemons, which are prized in every country. The wines of Portugal are not less celebrated; that of the upper Douro is well known in England by the name of port; the others are the muscadine wines of Carcavelos and Setubal, and the white wines of Algarva. Portugal exports annually almonds and dried figs, of which the ordinary value may be about L.21,000, oranges to the amount of L.84,000, and 47,000 pipes of wine, worth more than L.1,830,000.^g

It has excited surprise that the country people understand so little about rearing silk worms and bees; if these branches of rural economy were better known, the inhabitants might add considerably to their wealth. The other products of the animal kingdom are equally neglected. The sheep might be much improved; the flocks are numerous, particularly in the province of Beira, from which they are driven in the winter season into Alentejo. The wool, indeed, is less valuable than that of Spain; still it is purchased by strangers, but the quantity exported does not yield more than L.17,000.^h The horses are inferior to those of Castile and Andalusia; although small, they are light and well made; it requires only a moderate degree of care to improve the breed, and to increase the number, which at present is very inconsiderable. The mules are not numerous, but of a good kind, large, strong and docile.

Wolves haunt the forests and the mountains, and the wild cat frequents the desert lands. Wild goats, although less common than formerly, are not unfrequently seen in the Serra de Gerez. The stag, the roeⁱ and the wild boar

^d "Valued at 10,000,000 francs."

^e Salt butter and cheese are imported from Holland and England.

^g "Portugal exports annually almonds and dried figs to the amount of 500,000 francs, oranges to the amount of 2,000,000 francs, and 47,000 pipes of wine, valued at 44,000,000 francs."

^h "400,000 francs."

ⁱ "Daim" (*Cervus Dama*), the fallow deer.

appear sometimes in the woods; hares are rare, and rabbits less numerous than in Spain. According to an author, on whose accuracy we rely,^a the insects of northern Africa are found on the heaths, the butterflies, common to the south of France, on the sides of the Estrella, and the beetles of the north on the heights of Tras-os-Montes. Vipers and other venomous reptiles are concealed in the mountains; it is not uncommon to observe in the fields, and even in the houses, the Mauritanian cordylus,^b an animal which the Portuguese abhor, attributing to it qualities that it does not possess, and not appreciating the services it renders by destroying many hurtful insects.

The rivers and coasts abound in fish of every sort; shad, eels, sardel, soles and flounders are taken in great plenty; some of the other kinds are the *Muræna ophis*, the *Scomber pelamis*^c and the *Xiphias gladius*.^d From such abundance Portugal might derive its principal wealth, but government has neglected these important fishings. Three centuries ago Portuguese fishermen competed with the Dutch on the shores of Newfoundland, but at present they can hardly explore their own coasts. Although their trade requires a considerable outlay, although the taxes on the produce of their industry are excessive, and in short, although poor and wretched, their number amounted some years ago to more than 18,000: but many, it is said, unable to live in their own land, seek the means of subsistence in the American or English navy.

Different writers have affirmed that the Portuguese are degraded by ignorance and superstition. A few remarks on the religion, manners and literature of the people, may serve perhaps to dissipate errors which have been often repeated. Of late years greater toleration has been shown in Portugal, as well as in most states under the influence of European civilization. The Catholic is the established religion, but others are tolerated. The principles published by the Cortes in 1821, have effected this happy change; the tribunal of the inquisition was then abolished, which indeed had long derived no support from public opinion. The number of ecclesiastics was greatly exaggerated by the geographers of the last century, and writers of the first merit have believed and repeated their blunders.^e It might be proved, however, by correct data, published many years ago, and since confirmed by more recent details, that the total number of those in holy orders, including the members of the secular clergy, as well as the persons of both sexes in the monasteries, cannot be more than 29,000 individuals.^f The higher

^a Ad. Balbi, *Essai Statistique*.

^b "*Gecko de Mauritanie*, a Saurian reptile of the family of lizards." *Lacerta Mauritanica*, Gmel. *Moorish lizard*, Shaw. *Gecko fascicularis*, Daudin. *Gecko des murailles*, Cuvier; (a Saurian of the family of *Geckotiens*, and of the genus of *Geckos*—the lizards properly so called, constitute a genus of the family of *Lacertians*. Cuvier, *Regne Animal*.) The *Cordyli*, to which the translator has erroneously referred this animal, constitute a division of the genus *Stellio*, in the family of *Iguaniens*. Cuvier.—P.

^c Bonito.

^d Sword fish.

^e In the article Portugal, in the *Dictionnaire d'Economie Politique de l'Encyclopédie Méthodique*, the number of ecclesiastics is said to exceed 300,000 individuals.

Bourgoing, in his *Nouveau Voyage en Espagne*, (Paris, 1797, 3 vols. 8vo.) and Dumouriez, in his *Etat présent du Portugal*, (1 vol. 4to. 1797,) estimate the number in holy orders at 200,000.

M. de Laborde made the number amount in 1808, to 280,000.

M. Bory de St. Vincent, in his *Guide du Voyageur en Espagne*, (1823,) supposes them equal to more than 200,000.

^f The above number, the result of M. Balbi's calculation in his *Statistique du Portugal*, is not below the truth, and we believe indeed that its tendency is to diminish rather than to remain stationary. It is remarkable, that the same mistake has been so often committed, more

particularly as from the number of convents, the number of their inmates might have been easily calculated. In the year 1790, according to Stein's Geography, there were 418 convents for men, and 108 for women. It is known that the mean number of persons for each convent is sixteen; therefore it may be easily shown that in the same year the total number of individuals in all the convents did not exceed 8416. But the convents have been since reduced to 363; thus there are now in Portugal only 5808 monks and nuns. If the number of those employed in the hospitals be estimated at 100, and it is not more, the result will be 5908. Portugal contains about 4054 parishes; supposing five priests for each parish, the number throughout the kingdom will amount to 20,270, and together with the inhabitants of the convents, to 26,178. Thus it appears we have rather exceeded than underrated the total number in assuming it equal to 29,000.

^g "The archbishop of Braga bears the title of patriarch-primate, a dignity created in 1716." The other archbishops are those of Lisbon (styled patriarch) and Evora.—P.

The portrait of the Portuguese drawn by Du Chatelet,¹ and copied by modern geographers, is any thing but flattering. The people, says that writer, are of a swarthy com-

¹ Travels in Portugal, by J. Murphy, London, 1798. Link, *Bemerkungen auf einer Reise durch Frankreich, Spanien und vorzüglich Portugal*, 1800.

² The work entitled *Voyage du duc Du Chatelet en Portugal*, with notes by Bourgoing, (1798, 2 vols. 8vo.) was written by M. Cormartin, a zealous royalist of La Vendée.

plexion, while their noses are short, and their lips thick; now certainly they are not of a swarthy complexion, neither are short noses nor thick lips characteristic features. They have the complexion of the people in southern Europe; although not of a tall stature, they are in general well made; deformed persons are rarely seen amongst them. The finest and strongest men in the kingdom are those in the provinces of Minho and Tras-os-Montes, and on the mountains of Estrella; they have generally fair complexions and light or chestnut hair; in the other provinces black is the prevailing colour of the hair. Long black hair, a fine complexion, large black eyes, and white and regular teeth, might render the Portuguese women the most attractive in Europe, if with the gayety of the French, they united the dignity of the Spaniards.

The vivacity and warm imagination which distinguish the Portuguese, are probably the causes of their eagerness after pleasure. The theatre, music, dancing, processions, bull fights, in short, whatever can gratify the senses, have to them irresistible charms. Their lively music is not unpleasing to strangers; the popular songs, accompanied with the guitar, are light and graceful, but in most of them the words are too licentious. The national dance or the *Foffa* is so lascivious that every stranger who sees it, must deplore the corruption of the people, and regret to find such exhibitions permitted not only in the country, but in the heart of towns, and even on the stage.

The Portuguese language, formed from that of the ancient Turdetani and the Latin,^a was once, like the other Italic tongues, a barbarous dialect; Arabic words were introduced into it under the domination of the Moors, and afterwards French vocables, when Count Henry of Burgundy settled in Portugal with his comrades. It acquired greater regularity during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and in the sixteenth, that softness and energy were united, which have been so justly admired in the verses of Camoens. Since the same period the Portuguese language has degenerated; the usurpation of the throne by Philip the Second hastened its decline. Despotism checked the flight of genius, and repressed the utterance of generous thoughts; servility substituted the language of flattery for that of truth, and thus the sentiments as well as the language of the people were degraded. The Portuguese has not the guttural sounds of the Spanish; it is rich and sonorous, but the frequency of nasal terminations, and the facility with which the words of other languages may be adopted, weaken its harmony; had not several modern writers proved the contrary, it might be supposed from the last defect, that it was not rich in vocables.^{b c}

It is a common error to condemn Portuguese literature, because it happens to be little known in Europe. The country has produced distinguished men in many departments of knowledge. Some of the poets who have flourished since the time of Camoens, have acquired no ordinary celebrity among their countrymen; if those who have devoted themselves to the dramatic muse, have been unable to raise the Portuguese theatre from the obscurity in which it languishes, it must be admitted on the other hand, that sev-

eral lyric poets are not unworthy of the fame which has been conferred on them. Citizens became legislators during the last political struggles, and although the mass of the people were incapable of enjoying the wise institutions of Don Pedro, still the knowledge diffused among the higher classes must have one day a salutary influence on the destinies of the kingdom. From data, which we believe correct, it appears that more than a hundred works in the various departments of literature and science are published every year in Portugal.^d The number is certainly greater than might have been inferred from the intellectual state of the people. There was a time when the liberty of the press, and the interest excited by political questions, increased the number of newspapers and journals to more than thirty.

The low state of the fine arts may be attributed to the little encouragement afforded either by the wealthy or by government. Music is almost the only one in which any of the Portuguese have hitherto become eminent. Many facts are not wanting to prove the low state of education among the lower orders; in Spain, indeed, the system of education is much worse; with that exception, however, there is perhaps no other country in Europe where the number of scholars relatively to the population is so inconsiderable. But the places of education for the children of the rich or privileged classes may bear a comparison with any other in Europe. Scientific instruction is committed to able professors, and the labour of the students is facilitated by good elementary works, written in the Portuguese language.

Since the year 1821, the time in which the form of government was changed, Portugal has more than once excited the attention of Europe. The constitution by which the legislative power was committed to the king and the cortes, must form for a long time an epoch in the history of the country. But a real national representation was no innovation in the state, for the establishment of the cortes dates from the eighth century, or from the foundation of the kingdoms of Leon and Castile, and they are repeatedly mentioned in the earliest times of the Portuguese monarchy. These assemblies, which German or Gothic princes formed round their elective thrones, were composed of the great proprietors or barons, to whom the right of conquest gave that of alone constituting themselves into a national body, and who assumed the prerogative of restraining the power of their kings, and confining it within due limits by the refusal of subsidies. With the military nobility, the clergy afterwards united, an order by so much the more powerful, as during the wars against the Moors, the standard of the cross became the banner of independence. The invasion of the Suevi and Visigoths did not destroy in the Spanish Peninsula the duties of those agents whom the Romans appointed in the great towns, and who still exist under the name of *procuradores*; they formed the third class of members that composed the Spanish and Portuguese cortes. These assemblies deliberated on the laws, and regulated the imposts. It was not unusual for them to encroach on the prerogatives of the crown; while the cortes sat at Coimbra in 1387, during the reign of John the First, the deputies of the towns being averse to war with Castile, the king informed

^a The Portuguese and the Galician (*Gallego*) were originally the same language, and are supposed by Sismondi, to have been formed by the mixture of the vulgar Latin or *Romana Rustica* with the languages of the Vandals and Suevi who conquered that part of the Peninsula, while the Spanish or Castilian was formed by the mixture of the Latin with the language of the Visigoths.—P.

^b —“but the frequency of hiatuses and nasal terminations, the pro-

pensity to neologism, and the facility with which the words of other languages are adopted, weaken its harmony, and if many modern writers had not proved the contrary, would lead one to suppose, that it was poor in its vocabulary.”

^c Ad. Balbi, Atlas ethnographique du Globe.

^d Essai Statistique du Portugal.

them that he would conclude a peace, or continue the war, according to the advice of the people. Lastly, they exercised an authority which at the present day might be considered revolutionary in some countries, for in a period of 525 years, the Portuguese cortes elected five kings; namely, Alphonso the First, count of Portugal, Alphonso the Third after the deposition of his brother Sancho the Second by the pope, John the First after the extinction of the legitimate branch of the Burgundian dynasty, John the Fourth of Braganza after the expulsion of the Spaniards, and Peter the Second, in 1667, after Alphonso the Sixth was declared incapable of reigning. Had every class of the community been represented in the cortes, and had it been made imperative on the sovereign to convoke such assemblies, the people need not have envied the English constitution; but the kings of Portugal have dispensed with them since the year 1697. Such was the state of the kingdom in 1821, when a new constitution, the work of a new cortes, nominated by electors chosen by all the citizens, established a representative government, equal and even superior in some respects to any of the same kind in Europe.^a The constitution was abolished in 1823; three years afterwards, Don Pedro, the emperor of Brazil, ascended the throne of Portugal, and granted his subjects a representative government, more monarchical in its tendency than the former, but of such a nature as to satisfy the enlightened part of the nation.^b

Having endeavoured to describe the moral and political state of the Portuguese people, it remains for us to mention the principal towns and others which, although inferior in the number of their inhabitants, merit the notice of the traveller or historian. The statistical tables at the end of the present book, may enable the reader to estimate the force and resources of the kingdom.

The port of Lisbon,^c from the magnificent spectacle which it affords, may be compared to any in Europe; mariners consider it one of the best anchoring places in the world. It is defended by fort Bugio, situated on an island at the mouth of the Tagus, and by fort San Juliao on the right bank of the same river. The town rises like an amphitheatre on the right bank, and occupies a space about three leagues in length, and more than one in breadth. The large bay formed by the Tagus, affords only a narrow and dangerous passage for ships; indeed, vessels seldom approach it without being provided with experienced pilots, a precaution rendered necessary by the bar which its waters form against the ocean.

It might be supposed from the sight of this large capital, that it contained many more inhabitants than it really does, but it is well known that the population does not exceed 260,000 souls. It is divided into two towns: the old town is formed by many tortuous, narrow and dirty streets, which were not destroyed during the great calamity in the year 1755; the streets in the new town are broad and straight, and their number is daily increasing. The number of streets in both the towns amounts to 566; there are besides 60 squares, only twelve of which merit the name. The two

most remarkable are the *Praça do Commercio*,^d and the *Praça do Rocio*; the first is bounded on one side by the Tagus, and adorned with fine edifices, such as the exchange, the custom-house, the India-house, the admiralty, the royal library and other buildings, some of which are not yet finished. The second or the *Praça do Rocio*, is smaller than the preceding; it is adjoining the great palace of the Inquisition, in which are now contained the offices of the different ministers, and the prisons of the holy office. If the royal palace in the suburb of Ajuda was completed according to its original plan, it might be doubtful if there would be another in Europe of so large a size. The king of Portugal possesses two other residences in Lisbon, the palace of *Bemposta*, in which he gives audience, and that of *Necessidades*, now set apart for foreign princes. Among the other buildings are the naval arsenal, the college of nobles, the palace of *Calhariz*, now the place in which the academy of sciences hold their meetings, and the theatre of San Carlos, which in point of size at least, may be compared with the secondary theatres in the Italian towns. The principal churches are the cathedral or *Basilica de Santa Maria*, an old edifice that was repaired after the last earthquake, the church belonging to the convent of Jesus, remarkable for the boldness of its dome, and perhaps the finest modern building in Lisbon, and lastly, the church of the martyrs, a monument to the glory of the Portuguese, erected at the place where Alphonso the First defeated the Moors.

Lisbon possesses several useful institutions, but the first in point of importance is the naval observatory, an establishment which has contributed to the advancement of astronomical science. Some of the others are the royal naval academy,^e the royal school of naval architecture, the royal academy of fortification, artillery and drawing, the royal school of surgery, and that of sculpture. We may also mention the commercial school, the royal military college, the college of nobles, and the royal schools in the monastery of St. Vincent de Fora, where the ancient and modern languages, geometry, physics and philosophy are taught. There are, besides these, a royal school of drawing and civil architecture, in which the course of instruction lasts five years, and a musical seminary (*Seminario Musical*), for the purpose of promoting composition and also vocal and instrumental music. The seminaries connected with religion are the royal college of St. Patrick, established in 1590 for the education of Irish missionaries, the royal college of catechumens, founded in 1579 for the instruction of converted infidels in the principles and doctrines of Christianity, the college of St. Anthony and St. Peter for orphans and poor children, and other institutions of the same nature under the direction of the clergy or the different monasteries.^f

The royal academy of sciences at Lisbon, holds the first rank among the scientific institutions in the kingdom. A society for the encouragement of national industry has lately been established in the city. It possesses also public libraries, a botanical garden, a museum of natural history, and different scientific collections, which are much inferior to

^a The cortes alone had the power of originating laws.

^b On the death of John VI., March 1826, the crown devolved by hereditary descent, on Don Pedro, his eldest son, emperor of Brazil, although it has since been contended by the Apostolical party, that by the constitution of Lamego, he had forfeited his right to the crown, as a foreign sovereign. On the 29th April 1826, he granted to Portugal a constitutional charter, and on the 2d May, abdicated the crown in favour of his daughter Donna Maria. Although the charter was supported during the year 1827, by the British troops sent by Mr. Caning, and although it was solemnly sworn to by Don Miguel on his

return in 1828, it was almost immediately after abolished, and the old government restored with an accumulated despotism. Such is the present state of Portugal.—P.

^c Port. *Lisboa*.

^d Commercial square.

^e *Academia real da Marinha*.

^f The royal schools of the congregation of the Oratory, principally for instruction in Latin, and the schools of grammar, rhetoric and philosophy at the royal hospital of *Nossa Senhora de Necessidades*. To these different public institutions, may be added several private establishments.

others of the same kind in the principal capitals of Europe.

It is not more than twenty or thirty years that persons were not safe in the streets of Lisbon; murders were committed in open day, and murderers found protection by flying to the sanctuary; at night passengers were stopped by soldiers who demanded charity, and took by force the money which any ventured to refuse. There were then no patrols nor police to check these disorders; now that the best means are employed to ensure the public safety, murders and even thefts have become very rare.

No edifice in Lisbon can be compared with the aqueduct of Bemfica (*agoas livres*), by which the water that the inhabitants consume, is principally conveyed into the city. It has been considered one of the most magnificent works that has been executed in modern times, and it is certainly not inferior to any ancient work of the same kind. The length of the aqueduct is not less than 56,380 feet; the largest arch is equal to 206 feet in height, and the opening or breadth to 100.^a The country around Lisbon is not only agreeable from the fine sites in different directions, but interesting historical recollections are connected with it. Oeiras, the country seat given by King Joseph to the Marquis of Pombal, was inhabited by the same monarch in 1775, and the minister availed himself of his temporary residence to change a village fair into one of a different kind, where the products of Portuguese industry were exhibited,—an ingenious idea, that has been imitated elsewhere, and has excited a salutary emulation in other countries, particularly in France. Cintra is celebrated for the capitulation, in virtue of which the French army left Portugal in 1808. Mafra on the western side of the chain connected with Monte Junto, is remarkable for the convent, church and palace, built by John the Fifth, in order to fulfil the vow which he had taken before the birth of his son. These three buildings, the work of a foreign architect, and embellished by painters and sculptors of different nations, form, perhaps, the finest edifice in the kingdom. Loires at three leagues from Lisbon, is well known for its plantations of orange trees, which yield the best oranges in Portugal. Campo Grande is a place of resort for the Portuguese nobility; it stands in a plain surrounded with trees and gardens, where in the summer season, the court and the nobles display their equipages. The different places that have just been mentioned, are not privileged towns (*ciudades*), but burghs or small towns without municipalities (*villas*).

Few other towns of any importance are situated in the rest of Estremadura. Leiria, however, may be mentioned; it is not far from the palace of King Denis,^b on whom the Portuguese conferred the title of Great. The convent built by John the First, a noble monument of Norman-Gothic architecture, serves to adorn the burgh of Batalha; within the same building may be seen the mausoleum of its founder, and several dirty chapels destined for the sepulchres of the kings. The large burgh of Santarem built on a hill, and defended by an old fortress, was long the residence of the Portuguese sovereigns. Lastly, Setubal, although it does not possess the rank of a city, may be considered an important town. Some antiquaries suppose that Troja, a headland at a short distance from the mouth of the Sado, where

several remains of antiquity have been discovered, was the site of a Phœnician colony.

Coimbra is situated in the province of Beira, on the declivity of a hill which commands the Mondego. The interior of the town may be said to be as dismal as the neighbouring country is agreeable. It was a place of considerable importance under the Romans, the Alans and the Moors; it is the capital of the province, and its public buildings, the number of its useful institutions, together with the celebrity of its university, render it not unworthy of its title. The small town of Aveiro at the mouth of the Vouga, is beginning to recover the maritime importance which it seemed to have for ever lost. The ancient city of Viseu,^c situated in the mountains from which the Mondego takes its source, is the residence of a bishop, and carries on a considerable trade in cloth and jewellery. Lamego lies at the northern extremity of the province, in a fruitful district between Mount Penude and the river Douro. It was there that the cortes met in 1144, and the same assembly established a constitution by which the royal authority was confined within due limits,—a constitution that Alphonso the First swore to maintain in the name of his successors.

The province of Entre Douro e Minho is smaller than either of the two last; Braga, the metropolis, stands on a height between the Cavado and the Destc. The principal buildings are the archbishop's palace, the seminary and the cathedral; there are besides several imposing remains of Roman grandeur. Porto or Oporto,^d the second town in the kingdom, rises on a magnificent site at the mouth of the Douro, on two hills called the *Se* and the *Victoria*.^e It consists of the low and the high town; it is divided into five quarters, two of which are encompassed with a wall thirty feet in height, while the three others are open. Twelve large squares, several fine churches, and different public buildings, such as the court of appeal, the town-house, the diocesan palace, the royal hospital and extensive store-houses for its wines, are among the ornaments of this commercial city. Guimaraens, an industrious town, was in ancient times the capital of the kingdom.

Miranda, formerly *Cambetum Lubicanarum*,^f a small episcopal city, is the chief town in Tras-os-Montes. Moncorvo, the ancient *Forum Narbasorum*, is ill built, but contains twice as many inhabitants as the last town. Braganza or Bragança, the ancient *Brigantium*, rises in the midst of a fruitful plain. It was within its walls that Don Pedro, the Justiciary, married secretly the unfortunate Inez de Castro.^g Chaves is built on a height near the Tamega, which flows under a bridge of eighteen arches, built by Trajan; the place was celebrated in the time of the Romans for its mineral waters, which they called *Aquæ Flaviæ Turodorum*.

Alentejo^h is not less mountainous than Beira; although more extensive, it is three times less populous, and being the poorest province in the kingdom, it may be readily supposed that it does not contain many important towns. Evora, the capital and the chief town in the diocese of an archbishop, is styled the second city in Portugal. The population, it is true, does not exceed ten thousand souls, but the vain title has been conferred on it, because several kings made it the place of their residence. It is situated on a height in the chain which forms the continuation of the Serra de Estre-

^a These are the measures of the original. The length differs very greatly from that given by other authorities, (2400 feet, Ed. Encyc. Rees' Cyc.—less than half a mile, Morse.)—P.

^b Port. *Diniz*.

^c Viseo.

^d O Porto, the port or harbour. ^e *A Sé* and *A Victoria*.

^f *Cambetum Lubicanarum*. Ptolemy.

^g Port. *Inez de Castro*.

^h Port. *Além-Tejo*, beyond the Tagus, from its situation on the south of the Tagus, opposite Lisbon.—P.

mos. The ancient name of *Ebora*, and that of *Cercalis*, as Pliny calls it, announced its prosperity. Flattery induced the municipal magistrates to give it the name of *Liberaltas Julia*. The imperial liberality consisted in building monuments with part of the gold that was exacted from the conquered countries; the remains of some are still to be seen at Evora. The aqueduct attributed to Quintus Sertorius is remarkable for its fine state of preservation. A circular monument at its extremity resembles in the elegance of its proportions, the Lantern of Demosthenes at Athens. The remains of the temple of Diana, distinguished by its fine Corinthian columns, have been converted into the public shambles. Most of the antiquities discovered at Beja, have been collected in a museum. Estremos^a carries on a trade in pottery and earthen vases of a particular kind, so porous that they are used for lowering the temperature of water by promoting evaporation. The ancient town of Elvas, the strongest place in Portugal, rises on a steep hill at two leagues from the right bank of the Guadiana. Some remains of antiquity are still to be observed in Beja, the ancient *Pax Julia*, a town built by the Romans.

Algarva,^b a small province which the Portuguese sovereigns have denominated a kingdom, contains only four towns worthy of notice. Faro, the capital, a well built town, with a harbour at the mouth of the *Valformoso*, exports a great quantity of oranges and other fruits. Tavira is situated on the coast at eight leagues eastwards from Faro; it is almost wholly peopled by fishermen. Villa Nova de Portimao is a small but well-frequented sea-port at the distance of ten leagues to the west of Faro. Lagos^c in the middle of a fruitful district, possesses a harbour which according to tradition was dug by the Carthaginians. Sagres owes its name to the *Sacrum Promontorium*, now Cape St. Vincent. Lastly, we may mention the small town of Monchique on the Serra of the same name; its romantic situation and medicinal springs have of late years rendered it a place of resort.

The Portuguese foreign possessions are the Archipelago

of the Azores; the province of Madeira, including Madeira, Porto Santo and other neighbouring islands; the province of Cape Verd, comprehending the islands of Sant-Iago,^d Fogo,^e Brava, San Nicolaõ, Santo Antaõ, Boavista,^f Mayo, San Vicente,^g Sal^h and Santa Luziaⁱ; the Portuguese colony of Senegambia, in which the principal places are Cacheu,^k Bissaõ, Geba, Farim and Zeguichor; the kingdom of Angola and Congo, comprehending Angola and several other stations; a small province consisting of Prince's island and the island of St. Thomas; the province of Mosambique, containing several important factories; and in Asia, the viceroyalty of India, of which Goa is the capital, including the provinces of Salsete and Bardez,^l the governments of Damaõ^m and Diu, the factories of Surat and Macao, and the islands of Timor, Adomera and Oende Menorⁿ in Oceanica.

These insignificant remains of the Portuguese power, and the rising empire of Brazil, of which the independence was rather an advantage than a calamity to the mother country, serve to maintain the commerce of Portugal. The exports which it sends to the same countries, amount in value to L.3,625,000,^o and the articles it derives from them exceed L.3,000,000.^p The imports from other countries may be estimated at L.3,875,000,^q and the exports to them at L.3,000,000.^r As it possesses comparatively few commercial resources in its agriculture, it may be inferred that the products of its manufacturing industry form a considerable item in the sums now specified. It is in reality not so poor in such products as some political economists have supposed. No comparison can be made between its manufactures and those of more industrious states; but if, notwithstanding the privileges England enjoys, the Portuguese have been able to compete with the English in different manufactures, it may be concluded that industry cannot be at a very low ebb; on the contrary, judicious encouragement and a better system of policy are only wanting to bring it to a high degree of perfection. The reader may form a tolerably correct opinion of the sources of Portuguese wealth from the following tables.

^a Estremoz, Extremos.

^b Algarve, Algarves.

^c The ancient *Lacobriga*.

^d St. Jago, Santiago.

^e Fuego.

^f St. Nicholas, St. Anthony, Bonavista.

^g St. Vincent.

^h Salt Island.

St. Lucia.

^k Cacheo.

^l Salsette and Bardes.

^m Damaun, Daman.

ⁿ The Lesser Ende (*O Ende Menor*).

^o "More than 87,000,000 francs."

^p "82,000,000 francs."

^q "93,000,000 francs."

^r "70,000,000 francs."

STATISTICAL TABLES OF PORTUGAL.

Population of the principal Cities and Towns.*

PROVINCE OF ESTREMADURA.

Divided into eleven Comarcas or Districts.

Lisbon, the capital,	260,000	Sardoal, V.	3,300
Torres Vedras, V.	3,400	Abrantes, V.	4,900
Castanheira, V.	700	Ourem, V.	3,100
Villa Franca, V.	4,600	Chao de Couce, V.	1,300
Alemquer, V.	2,600	Santarem, V.	7,800
Chamusca, V.	3,000	Torres Novas, V.	4,200
Cintra, V.	3,700	Setubal, V.	14,800
Leiria, C.	2,000	Cezimbra, V.	4,200
Pombal, V.	4,800	Almada, V.	4,200
Alcoaba, V.	1,300	Aldea Gallega, V.	3,500
Thomar, V.	3,700		

PROVINCE OF BEIRA.

Divided into eleven Comarcas.

Coimbra, chief town,	15,200	Ovar, V.	10,400
Miranda de Corvo, V.	3,900	Viseu, C.	9,200
Figueira or Figueira da Foz, V.	6,400	Lamego, C.	8,900
Louzaa, V.	3,100	Arouca, V.	5,500
Penella, V.	3,500	San Martinhos Mouros, V.	4,800
Arganil, V.	1,700	Paiva, V.	6,600
Aveiro, C.	4,100	Pinhel, C.	1,700
Mira, V.	6,000	Trancoso, V.	1,200
Ilhavo, V.	7,300	Guarda, C.	2,400
Sousa, V.	3,700	Covilhao, V.	6,400
Feira, V.	1,600	Linhares, V.	800
		Castello Branco,	5,700

PROVINCE OF MINHO OR ENTRE DOURO E MINHO.

Divided into seven Comarcas.

Braga, chief town,	14,400	Guimaraens, V.	6,100
Prado, V.	6,500	Viana, V.	8,000
Porto, or Oporto, C.	70,000	Barcellos, V.	3,900
San Joao da Foz,	3,300	Villa do Conde, V.	3,100
Pavoa de Varzim, V.	5,700	Eixo, V.	3,100
Pedrozo,	3,500	Valença, V.	1,600
Penafiel de Sousa or P. de Arrifana, C.	2,300		

PROVINCE OF TRAS-OS-MONTES.

Divided into four Comarcas.

Miranda, chief town,	500	Braganza, C.	3,700
Moncorvo, V.	1,600	Chaves, V.	5,200
Villa Real, V.	4,000		

PROVINCE OF ALENTEJO.

Divided into eight Comarcas.

Evora, chief town,	10,000	Elvas, C.	10,000
Estremoz, V.	5,300	Campo Maior, V.	4,500
Beja, C.	5,400	Portalegre, C.	6,100
Moura, V.	3,800	Castello de Vide, V.	5,700
Serpa, V.	4,600	Crato, V.	1,200
Ourique, V.	2,400	Sertao, V.	3,300
Villa Viçosa,	3,500	Aviz,† V.	1,400
Borba, V.	3,400		

* The cities or *ciudades* are denoted by the letter C, the burghs or *villas* by V.

† Avis—seat of the military order of Avis, the grand master of which, John I., was the founder of the dynasty of Avis, 1383. See p. 831.

‡ Twenty-five of these leagues are equal to a degree, consequently each of them is equal to $2 + \frac{2}{3}$ geographical miles.—Tr.

KINGDOM OF ALGARVA.

Divided into three Comarcas.

Faro, chief town,	8,400	Loulé, V.	8,200
Lagoa or Alagoa, V.	3,000	Lagos, C.	6,800
Tavira, C.	8,600	Villa Nova de Portimao,	3,200

Population of the Portuguese Provinces in 1826, according to their surface.

Provinces.	Surface in square leagues.†	Population.	Inhabitants for every sq. league.
Minho	375	810,000	2,160
Tras-os-Montes	531	285,000	536
Beira	1,125	940,000	836
Estremadura	1,297	745,000	574
Alentejo	1,344	330,000	245
Algarva	250	104,000	416
	4,922	3,214,000	653‡

CONVENTS FOR MEN.

	Convents.	Monks.	Revenue.	
			Pounds. St.	Francia.
Military orders, monks, regular and secular canons	29	1,160	87,600	2,102,370
Mendicant orders	167	2,350	4,500	103,870
Endowed mendicants	155	2,070	65,000	1,523,000
Missionaries	9	180	3,000	69,630
	360	5,760	160,100	3,798,870

Produce of the Land belonging to the above Convents.

	Alqueires.	Quarters.	Litres.	Value in
				francs.
Wheat	92,600	4,410	1,234,635.8	291,690
Idem, second crop	43,800	2,086	583,985.4	137,970
Barley	23,900	1,138	318,658.7	27,150
Pulse	1,100	50	14,666.3	4,720
	Almudes.	Hogsheads.		
Wine	30,000	2,062	495,000	192,300
Oil	16,000	1,412	99,000	77,300

Estimated value of these products, L.30,000, or 731,130 francs.
Total revenue in francs 4,530,000

CONVENTS FOR WOMEN.

	Convents.	Inmates.
Convents of different orders	126	
Convents de <i>Commendas e Recolhimentos</i> (hospitals¶)	12	
Professed nuns		2,725
Retired sisters (<i>Commendadeiras retiradas</i>)		162
Novices		55
Lay sisters (<i>Ligas</i>)		151
Secular ladies (<i>Senhoras seculares</i>)		164
Pupils (<i>Educandas</i>)		739
Domestics (<i>Creadas</i>)		1,907
Total	138	5,903

Revenue, L.188,750.** 2,268,750 francs.

§ If the rest of Portugal were as populous as the province of Minho it would contain 10,591,520 inhabitants.

¶ 99,000 litres would correspond to 6,000 almudes. Qu.—P.

¶¶ "Hospices." Places of retreat.

** This calculation must be erroneous. The amount corresponding to the revenue in francs, is L.94,530 nearly.—P.

Produce of the Lands belonging to the above Orders.

	Alqueires.	Quarters.	Litres.	Value in francs.
Wheat	49,500	2,360	649,983.5	156,250
Barley	33,000	1,590	43,998.9	37,500
	Almudes.	Hogsheads.		
Wine	3,900	246	64,350	25,000
Oil	6,300	433	103,950	81,250
Estimated value of other products, L.2,605				62,500
Estimated value of all the land produce, L.15,105, or 362,500 francs.				
Total revenue in francs				2,631,250

Table of the Male Population of Portugal in 1826, according to their conditions and employments.

Secular clergy,	30,000	} 47,500
Regular —,	17,500	
Persons employed by government,	10,250	} 20,600
Magistrates, advocates, notaries, bailiffs, &c.	9,500	
Persons employed in the hospitals,	850	
Teachers of different sciences and arts,	350	} 12,050
Schoolmasters,	1,850	
Students of divinity under sixteen years of age,*	3,100	
Physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries,	5,750	
Artists,	1,000	
Proprietors and rentholders,	75,000	
Merchants and retailers,	8,500	} 30,300
Muleteers, wagoners, couriers, &c.	3,100	
Sailors and fishermen,	18,700	
Peasants and proprietors cultivating their own lands, 120,000		} 601,500
Farmers and peasants cultivating lands on lease, 169,000		
Day labourers,	268,750	
Shepherds and other farm servants,	43,750	
Masters and workmen in vegetable substances,	57,850	} 204,200†
Idem Idem animal substances,	80,600	
Idem Idem mineral substances,	18,000	
Idem Idem different substances,	7,750	
House servants, valets, &c.	58,750	
Individuals not classed,	56,200	
Prisoners and persons condemned to labour,	1,850	
Military and naval force,	35,000	
Total number,	1,142,950	

Portuguese Navy in 1821.

Ships of the line.	Frigates.	Sloops.	Brigs.	Charras or Transports.
4	11	7	6	4

* "Etudiens au-dessous de seize ans."

† This sum does not agree with the amount of the different classes included in it, viz. 164,200.

Value of the articles manufactured in Portugal, and exported to Brazil and the colonies in 1819.

	Value in reis.	Value in L. s.
Cotton stuffs	456,269,660	118,818 2
Woollen —	40,615,660	10,577
Silk —	250,443,415	65,440
Gold and silver —	72,218,860	18,807
Linens	9,813,680	2,555 3
Different articles	413,401,141	107,656 11
Sum total	1,242,762,416	423,853 16
	(7,767,265.10 francs.)	

Number of Students and Pupils in the different Schools and Colleges in 1820.

University and Royal College at Coimbra,	1,604
All the schools under the general directory of studies,	29,684
Naval and commercial academy at Oporto,	315
Commercial school at Lisbon,	151
Marine academy,	300
— observatory,	60
Royal school of naval architecture,	15
— academy of fortification, artillery and drawing,	100
— military college,	200
— school of surgery,	360 ?
— schools in the monastery of St. Vincent de Fora,	242
— of the congregation of the Oratory,	200 ?
Schools of grammar, rhetoric, and philosophy,	155
Royal school of the Arabic language,	2
— college of St. Anthony and St. Peter,	50
— school of drawing and civil architecture,	20
— of sculpture,	6
Musical seminary,	15
Gratuitous school for the deaf and dumb,	21 ?
Military schools for mutual instruction, into which private soldiers‡ are admitted,	4,000 ?
	37,500§

PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

	Volumes.
Lisbon Royal library,	85,000
— Library of Jesus,	32,000
— of St. Francisco,	20,000
— of St. Vincent de Fora,	22,000
— of Necessidades,	28,000
Coimbra — of the University,	38,000
— of Santa Cruz,	36,000
Porto — of the Diocese,	32,000
Tibaens,	25,000
Evora,	20,000

FINANCES.

Revenue.	National Debt.
L.2,250,000	L.6,670,000

‡ "Peasants."

§ This number does not include the students in the seminaries and private boarding-schools.

BOOK CXXXIX.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Spanish Peninsula.—Kingdom of Spain.

PELAGIUS raised the standard of the cross, and passed the mountains in Asturia to rescue some portion of Spain from the Moorish yoke. That example of patriotic devotedness was imitated by other chiefs, and the districts restored to Christianity and independence, were erected into several petty kingdoms. Although all of them were united under Ferdinand and Isabella, the different crowns retained their titles and geographical limits, as well as certain privileges which serve to recal the glorious epoch of their origin, and to account for the ancient division of Spain into fourteen principal provinces, which are still denominated kingdoms and principalities, and nearly all of which are subdivided into smaller provinces.

The superficial extent of Spain, and the limits by which it is separated from Portugal have been already mentioned; we shall now proceed to give an account of its population and government, of the manners and customs of the inhabitants, of their resources and commerce, and in short, of whatever constitutes the strength or weakness of the nation.

According to the latest work published in Spain, on the geography of that country,^a its population, together with that of the Balears, amounted in 1826 to 13,902,234 individuals, including the clergy, the naval and military forces, mendicants, prisoners and the people in the work-houses or hospitals. But it is a hopeless task to ascertain the number of inhabitants in Spain; the elements on which the calculation depends, are wanting, for the registers, it is well known, are very inaccurately kept by the curates. The number of ecclesiastics, although many convents were destroyed when the country was in the hands of the French, from the year 1808 to 1814, is nearly equal to 150,000 individuals.

The Catholic religion is the only one acknowledged in the country; the dignitaries are the archbishop of Toledo, also entitled primate of Spain, eight archbishops and fifty-one bishops. There are besides sixty-one cathedral and a hundred and fourteen collegiate churches, of which the canons and abbots are vested with almost episcopal authority.

To judge correctly of the physical and moral character of the Spaniards, it is necessary to examine the different provinces. If it may be so said, the shades are better defined in each Spanish province than in other European kingdoms, because the low state of industry, the want of roads, and the natural barriers that separate the different districts are so many obstacles to that frequent intercourse and com-

munication which diffuse a uniform character over a whole population. Thus he who traverses Spain in different directions, cannot fail to observe the light and graceful forms of the Biscayans, the lofty stature of the Galicians and Catalonians, the strength of the Castilians, the dark complexions of the Estremadurans, and the paleness of the Murcians. The women are, in general, graceful and well made; if their beauty has been much commended, it may perhaps be attributed to their animated and expressive features. Differences not less obvious are observable in the moral character of the people in the different provinces. The Biscayans are haughty, irascible and passionate;^b the Galicians are melancholy and unsocial, but laborious and brave; the Catalonians are impetuous and indocile, but indefatigable; the inhabitants of Arragon are devoted to their country, and attached to its ancient customs; the Castilians are grave and proud, the Estremadurans indolent and vain; the Andalusians may be remarked for their arrogance, they have been called the Gascons of Spain; the Murcians are slow and dull, and the most ignorant and at the same time the most suspicious people in the Peninsula; the Valencians, on the other hand, are gay and inconstant, affable and industrious. As to the people generally,^c the most marked traits in the Spanish character are circumspection, pride, honesty, great patience and resolution in their undertakings, and an aversion to every improvement unless its utility be very apparent.

It may be inferred from the penetration and perseverance of the Spaniards that they would have excelled in the culture of the exact sciences, but the impulse given to natural philosophy was checked by the inquisition. Thus, the road was shut to the most attractive departments of knowledge, and the brilliant imagination of the people exhausted itself in the culture of letters. The most ancient romances form a part of Spanish literature; at an early period it consisted principally of such works and the national songs recording the great achievements of the Cid. The Spanish language is expressive and harmonious, although several guttural sounds have been introduced from the Arabic. It may be divided into five dialects, of which the most ancient is still spoken in the kingdom of Leon and the Asturias, but the dialect of Toledo^d is the purest and the one most generally used since the time of Charles the Fifth. The same dialect has been immortalized by the inimitable Cervantes, by Quevedo, who to the graces of art unites the sublimity of genius, by Guevara, from whom Le Sage has borrowed one of his tales,^e by Lope de Vega, the author of 1800 plays and nu-

^a Don Sebastian de Miñano, Diccionario Geografico-estadístico de España y Portugal.

^b Laborde, Itinéraire de l'Espagne, tom. v.

^c See Antillon and Miñano.

VOL. III.—NO. 47 21

^d The Castilian or cultivated Spanish.—P.

^e Le Diable Boiteux [—The Devil on Two Sticks. The original by Guevara is entitled: *El Diablo Cojuelo, ó memorial de la otra vida.*—P.]

merous fugitive poems, and by the celebrated Calderon, whose comedies have formed the groundwork of a thousand others.

Little attention has been paid to science in Spain; indeed it is only possible to mention a few learned lawyers, well informed physicians, laborious botanists and uselessly profound theologians. Spain has however made greater advances in the fine arts; it has produced engravers little inferior to any of Italy or the Netherlands. In painting, Murillo almost rivals Van-Dyck; Coello has been compared to Paul Veronese, and the graceful Coreno enjoys the title of the Spanish Titian.^a Herrera, Arnal and Juan Bautista de Toledo hold the first rank among Spanish architects; Mena, Alvares and Toledo among sculptors.

Before Charles the Fifth succeeded to the throne of Spain, the government was a limited monarchy; the powers of the crown were restrained by the cortes, those provincial assemblies of which the origin has been already explained,^b and in which the privileged classes were only represented. The privileges of these assemblies were gradually destroyed by the princes of the houses of Austria and Bourbon. Their power and influence had been wholly abolished long before 1808, when Napoleon compelled Charles the Fourth and his son Ferdinand the Seventh to renounce all the claims which they or their successors might have to the crown, and proclaimed his brother Joseph, king of Spain and the Indies. The obstinate and brave resistance of the Spanish people against a foreign usurper, gave additional courage to the members of the provincial juntas, to whom the direction of the war was committed. The most important of these assemblies was held at Cadiz, where the members established a council of regency, to which they resigned their authority; an extraordinary cortes was soon afterwards convoked, and that constitution framed, which although very defective was acknowledged in 1812 by the powers leagued against France. To reward the heroic efforts of the Spaniards in the cause of independence, Ferdinand swore to maintain the constitution; being at liberty to modify or improve it, he disregarded his oath, and the constitution was abolished. The inquisition had been suppressed, that odious tribunal was called anew into existence; the members of the cortes had been declared inviolable, the king sent them into exile. Discontent succeeded the enthusiasm that had accompanied the return of the sovereign; insurrections extended through the country, and on the first of January 1820, the constitution of the cortes was proclaimed by the army in the island of Leon. Such were the conditions offered to Ferdinand, and he was obliged to accept them; he requested the right of modifying the constitution, but the eagerness with which he had formerly abolished it, occasioned distrust, and the constitution was declared unalterable. At the same time, the partisans of absolute power busied themselves in exciting the people, and in creating disturbances in which ecclesiastics and monks were not ashamed to take a part inconsistent with their duty, and disgraceful to their sacred character. The French cabinet, on the supposition that the Spaniards were not sufficiently enlightened to

enjoy the blessings of a representative government, thought fit to interfere and to restore the ancient system. The Duke of Angouleme having entered Spain at the head of an army which was nowhere opposed by the intrepid bands, so formidable in the time of Napoleon, dissolved the cortes, and liberated the king. The memorable ordinance of Andujar was passed by the same general; thus giving an example of great moderation, in wishing no other recompense for the treasures that France had spent, than the safety and protection of those who had supported the constitutional government. It is almost unnecessary to add that his intentions were never carried into effect.

The king possesses at present an unlimited authority; different councils have been created, but the most important is the council of state, formed in the year 1825. Justice is administered throughout the kingdom by supreme courts that are held in the metropolis of each province. The courts of Valladolid and Granada are entitled *chanceries*, that of Navarre is called a *council*, and the rest tribunals (*audiencias*.) The captain-generals of the provinces are *ex officio* the presidents of the courts. Whatever may tend to recal the time of the cortes has been abolished; that the people may believe all authority to be centred in the king, the towns are no longer suffered to elect their mayors or magistrates; this privilege, the last of all those which served to remind the Spaniards of a better system, was taken away in 1823.

Industry and agriculture, long neglected in Spain, cannot be supposed to have made much progress during the last twenty years of wars and revolutions to which that unhappy country has been exposed. The swarms of locusts that ravage the fields, are a minor evil, if compared with the obstinacy and prejudices of the husbandmen. Foreigners attribute incorrectly the low state of agriculture to the indolence of the people; such an opinion, says Miñano, has never been entertained by those who have seen the Spaniards toiling and labouring in the almost inaccessible mountains of the Asturias, Galicia and Catalonia, or in the arid ravines of Guipuscoa, Biscay and Navarre, in the marshes of Valencia, or in the burning plains of Andalusia and Estremadura. The men, who endure so much fatigue for so small wages, cannot be thought either indolent or indifferent.

Spain, one of the most fruitful countries in Europe, might also from the variety of its products be considered one of the most wealthy; wheat, rye, barley, maize and hemp are cultivated in almost all the provinces, but although the abstinence and frugality of the people are proverbial, the crops are hardly sufficient for the consumption.^c Wheat is most common in Leon, Estremadura, the two Castiles, Arragon, Andalusia and Murcia. Rye is more generally cultivated in Biscay, Navarre and Catalonia. Oats are neglected or despised; instead of that grain, the Spaniards, particularly in the kingdoms of Granada and Seville, give barley to their cattle. The inhabitants of Galicia cultivate flax, a plant that does not appear to be very common in the other provinces. Oil and soda^d are the principal products of the southern provinces, particularly along the shores of the Mediterranean;

also exported from Spain, especially from Leon and Old Castile, by the ports of Galicia and Biscay. This export might be greatly increased, were it not for the imperfect state of the roads leading to the seaports, which are hardly passable for carriages, so that the grain is chiefly conveyed on the backs of mules. Large quantities of Spanish wheat are sent to the Havanna, its importation being favoured there by discriminating duties.—P.

^d Barilla.

^a "Morales, who painted only religious subjects, has been called the divine"—*El Divino*.

^b See the preceding book.

^c Spain produces a great quantity of wheat, of an excellent quality, much superior to that in the more northern countries of Europe. The principal wheat districts are Andalusia, Old Castile, Arragon and Murcia, which produce a sufficient surplus to supply the demands of the other parts of the kingdom. Considerable quantities of wheat are

the other products are broom, sumach and different esculent plants of an admirable quality. In the same part of the country are seen whole fields of saffron, the rice plantations appear like so many waving plains, and the cotton shrub thrives as well as on its aboriginal soil. The mulberry trees are very luxuriant, and their leaves afford rich nourishment to the bombyx; it is thus easy to explain why the silk it secretes is so valuable. Rice is most abundant in Catalonia and in the kingdom of Valencia. The latter province and Andalusia are the finest in Spain; trees of different sorts are covered with delicious fruit, the sugar-cane grows beside the cotton plant, and numerous olive-trees furnish the oil that forms at present an important branch of commerce. Honey and different vegetables useful in dyeing also add to the resources of that part of Spain. The honey in the province of Cuenca was celebrated in the time of the Romans for its whiteness and agreeable flavour, on account of which it was called *mel rosamarinum*. Anise, maize, salt and the esparto grass^a from which mats and cordage are manufactured, form the principal riches of Murcia; barilla,^b the plant from which the inhabitants extract soda, is almost confined to Valencia, a province that has been styled from its culture, the garden of Spain. The lands in Arragon near the Ebro abound in grain, saffron, hemp, olives and different fruits; the forests too are well kept; but at a distance from the river, the soil is arid, and the greater part of it uncultivated. Navarre may be distinguished by its extensive vallies covered with rich pastures. The Vasconian provinces^c and particularly Biscay are remarkable for their fertility and the industry of their inhabitants. The food of the peasantry in Galicia consists principally of maize, chestnuts and potatoes; the last plant was first imported into the same province, from which it has been diffused throughout Europe. Naval timber is obtained from the forests in the Asturias, and numerous herds are fattened in the pastures. As to the two Castiles, the old province is arid and sterile, the new is warmer and not so unfruitful.

The lands in almost every part of Spain are favourable to the culture of the vine. The excess of the vintage above the quantity consumed in the country, forms a considerable branch of the export trade, and it might be still much more important, if in making the wine and cultivating the grape, the people availed themselves of the improvements that have been known to chemists and agriculturists during more than twenty years.^d The best wines are those of *Peralta* in Navarre, *Ribadavia* and *Betanzos* in Galicia, *Manzanares* and *Val de Peñas* in La Mancha, *Xeres*, *San Lucar* and *Rota* in the kingdom of Seville, *Cabra*, *Lucena* and almost all the district of *Campine* in Cordova, *Malaga* in Granada, *Carthagena* in Murcia, and lastly *Alicante* in Valencia. Although some of these wines are held in great estimation, the quantity exported bears no proportion to the brandy that is sent from the same parts of the country to the different ports in Spain.

^a "Stipe"—*Stipa tenacissima*, Linn.; esparto rush, (Townsend).—P.

^b *Salsola Soda*, Linn.—The *Salsola sativa* is also cultivated for the same purpose.—P.

^c "Les provinces Vascongades"—(Span. *Las provincias Vascongadas*;) the Biscayan provinces.—P.

^d See Miñano's Geographical and Statistical Dictionary, article SPAIN.

^e The Mesta is a society that meets every year, the president of which is a counsellor of state, and the members are the owners of the numerous flocks that are conducted for the sake of pasturage into different provinces. ["The Mesta is an incorporated company of proprietors of migratory sheep, who are endowed with particular privileges highly prejudicial to the interests of agriculture. This as-

The little profit that Spain now receives from its wool, affords a sad contrast to the treasures it derived from the same article at a very early period. It would not be easy to enumerate the fatal effects of the war which France maintained against the Spaniards during the imperial government, and if it were at all necessary to account for the decay in the wool trade, other causes that have contributed in a greater or less degree, might also be mentioned. Now that Spanish sheep are imported into France and other countries where the breed is perpetuated, it is difficult to conceive that Spain can ever again arrive at the same pre-eminence in the same trade. But as it has been proved that the merinos are fraudulently exported, it cannot be doubted that such an evil might be checked by a wise administration; if it were prevented and greater encouragement afforded to the woollen manufactures, Spain might at least afford to produce articles equally good and at as moderate prices as any of her rivals. The breed of sheep, it is not less certain, might be still more improved in the same country, and the privileges of the *Mesta*^e need not interfere with the interests of the landed proprietor. The merinos are divided into two classes, those that are stationary, and those that migrate; the former amount in all to at least 8,000,000; the number of the latter, including the flocks that belong to the clergy as well as to the laymen, is still greater.^f Two shepherds drive a flock of a thousand or twelve hundred merinos; they leave the heights of Old Castile in the month of October, and lay waste the plains of Estremadura and Andalusia until the month of May, when the sheep are driven back to the mountains. There are not less than sixteen thousand shepherd herds,^g almost as ignorant as their flocks; they exercise a despotic authority, and commit many abuses in the districts through which they pass. The length of their stay in any part of the country depends on the quantity of food they find for their sheep. During their progress, a space equal to 240 feet in breadth is allotted to each flock by the ordinances of the Mesta;^h once arrived at the end of their journey, the sheep are put into the pastures, and the Mesta regulates in a very arbitrary manner the rate of rent payable to the proprietors. The depopulation of certain provinces, and the decay of agriculture have been attributed not without reason to these annual migrations; indeed Biscay, the Asturias, Galicia and Burgos, not being exposed to the same calamity, are better peopled and better cultivated than the provinces to which the shepherds and their flocks resort.

The sheep are shorn after the shepherds have returned to their summer quarters. It is a very busy time, and the greater part of the inhabitants are employed. The work is done in large sheds that may hold a flock of forty or sixty thousand sheep. One may judge of the number of hands employed, since it requires a hundred and twenty-five persons to shear a thousand sheep; some are occupied in cutting the wool, and others in dividing it into four sorts according to the different degrees of fineness. The sheep-

sociation is formed chiefly of the nobles, persons in power, members of rich monasteries, and ecclesiastical chapters." Ed. Encyc.—P.]

^f See the statistical tables at the end of the book.

^g M. Al. de Laborde (Itinér. d'Espagne) estimates their number at forty thousand, but he includes those that remain at home as well as the others who travel.

^h "The sheep pass unmolested over the pastures, belonging to the villages, and the commons which lie in their road, and have a right to feed upon them. They are not, however, allowed to pass over cultivated land, but the proprietors of such lands are obliged to leave for them a path of ninety *varas*, or about eighty-four yards in breadth." Ed. Encyc.—P.

shearing season is not less joyous than the vintage in the most fruitful districts of Spain.

Several parts of the country are ill provided with horned cattle, particularly Catalonia, Arragon, Navarre and Biscay, which depend principally for their supplies on France. Many oxen are fattened in the rich pastures in the central districts of Galicia. Fine cattle are reared in the Asturias, and the cow is there a most useful animal to the peasantry; the milk is converted into butter and cheese; indeed a sufficient quantity of the former might be produced for the consumption of Spain, if the inhabitants knew how to salt or preserve it. The symmetry of the oxen in Andalusia was admired by the ancients; innumerable herds of the same kind may still be seen in its fertile pastures. Pigs are very common on the mountains of Aracena and Constantina, as well as others in the same province, and the bacon of Leon as well as Galicia is much prized throughout Spain; its delicate taste has been attributed to the sweet acorns on which the pigs are fed. Although the mules and horses of the same country are not in so great repute as they once were, the Asturias may still boast of their light and spirited ponies, while the horses of Andalusia retain the strength that distinguishes the Arab breed. The mules in these provinces are hardy and robust, qualities which they derive from the ass, which has degenerated less in Spain than in France.

Almost all the wild animals in southern France are common to Spain. The mountains and plains abound in game; the wild boar, the bear and different kinds of deer are found in the Galician mountains and Asturian forests. Hares, rabbits, red partridges and bustards are common in Andalusia; the wolf still frequents nearly all the wooded and mountainous districts in the country. The chamois and the lynx find shelter in the Pyrenees and the mountains of Cuenca. The musmon^a is found in the kingdom of Murcia, and among the animals in the more southern parts of Spain, the genet, the porcupine, the scorpion, the *truxalis nasutus*^b and the chameleon may be enumerated. A naturalist^c having observed the striking similarity between the zoology of southern Spain and northern Africa, has been led by the analogy to conclude that the continents now separated by the Straits at Gibraltar were once united.

^a "Le Moufflon," the wild sheep—found also in the mountains of Sardinia and Corsica, where it is called *muffoli*—(the *musimon* of Pliny.)—P.

^b *Gryllus nasutus*, Linn.—a species of locust or grasshopper.—P.

^c M. Bory de St. Vincent, Guide du Voyageur en Espagne.

^d According to Bowles, these provinces were exposed to their ravages from 1754 to 1757. See Introduction à l'histoire naturelle et à la géographie physique de l'Espagne. (Traduction de Flavigny, Paris, 1776.)

^e The following are the general divisions:

In the north.

- 1st. The kingdom of Navarre, a province.
- 2d. The three Vasconian or Biscayan provinces.
- 3d. The principality of the Asturias, a province.
- 4th. The kingdom of Galicia, divided into seven provinces.
- 5th. The kingdom of Arragon, a province.
- 6th. The principality of Catalonia, a province.

In the centre.

- 7th. The kingdom of Leon, divided into six provinces.
- 8th. Old Castile, divided into five.
- 9th. Estremadura, a province.
- 10th. New Castile, divided into five provinces.
- 11th. The kingdom of Valencia, a province.

In the south.

- 12th. Andalusia, including the kingdoms of Cordova, Jaen, Seville, Granada, and the *New Populations*,* forming seven provinces.
- 13th. The kingdom of Murcia, a province.

In the Mediterranean

- 14th. The Balearic islands.
- In all forty-one provinces.

* See page 357.

Estremadura and Andalusia are sometimes desolated by swarms of locusts; but it would not be difficult to destroy them, for they are never seen in great numbers until some time after their first appearance; still the opportunity has been usually neglected, and these insects from the plains of Arabia lay waste the country when it is impossible to check the devastation.^d

The rivers as well as the coasts of Spain abound in fish, and it is from this source that Galicia derives the principal part of its wealth. The sardel fisheries are perhaps as valuable as any others in that province. The sardel are salted so as to render them fit for exportation, and very many of them are consumed in Spain, France and the Levant. The tunny fisheries in the same province are also very profitable; indeed the importance of the fisheries on the southern and eastern coasts of Spain, depends on the high prices given for tunnies and anchovies.

Spain admits less of a vague or general description than any other country in Europe. The people in France, England and Italy are distinguished by national characters, of which the colours are too well defined to be ever confounded; but shades more or less obscure mark the Spaniards of the different provinces, and contrasts more or less striking separate them from each other. To mark these shades and contrasts, and to ascertain their influence on the moral and intellectual character of the Spanish people, has hitherto proved a stumbling-block to many who have attempted to describe Spain, or to compare the Spaniards with the inhabitants of other countries in Europe. To give an accurate description therefore, or at least one free from incorrect generalities, it is necessary that each division or province in Spain should be separately examined.

The kingdom is divided into fourteen principal parts, each of which has its authorities or separate administration, and several are subdivided into smaller provinces.^e The disadvantages of what has been termed *centralization*^f are not felt in Spain, an evil that exists in France, and which most Frenchmen would wish to see abolished.

The kingdom of Navarre is separated from France by the Pyrenees; it is bounded on the east by Arragon, on the south by Old Castile, and on the west by the Biscayan

Spain was divided in 1822, conformably to a decree of the Cortes, into fifty-one provinces.

Navarre was at the same time called the province of *Pampeluna*.

The three provinces of *Vittoria*, *San Sebastian* and *Bilboa*, were included in the Biscays.

One province, or that of *Oriedo*, in the Asturias.

Those of *Corunna*, *Lugo*, *Vigo* and *Orense*, in Galicia.

Those of *Villafranca*, *Leon*, *Zamora*, *Salamanca* and *Palencia*, in the kingdom of Leon.

Those of *Santander*, *Burgos*, *Logrono*, *Soria*, *Valladolid*, *Segovia* and *Avila*, in Old Castile.

Those of *Huesca*, *Teruel*, *Calatayud* and *Saragossa*, in Arragon.

Those of *Gerona*, *Barcelona*, *Tarragona* and *Lerida*, in Catalonia.

Those of *Caceres* and *Badajos*, in Estremadura.

Those of *Madrid*, *Guadalaxara*, *Cuenca* and *Toledo*, in New Castile.

That of *Ciudad-Real*, in La Mancha.

Those of *Alicante*, *Sin Felipe*, *Valencia* and *Castellon de la Plana*, in the kingdom of Valencia.

Those of *Huelva*, *Seville*, *Cadiz*, *Jaen*, *Cordova*, *Granada*, *Malaga* and *Almeria*, in Andalusia.

Those of *Murcia* and *Chinchilla*, in the kingdom of Murcia.

That of *Palma*, in the Balears.

These divisions were abolished when the king obtained despotic power.

^f The concentration of authority and influence in the capital. It is well known, from repeated experience, that a revolution in Paris is decisive as to the whole kingdom.—P.

provinces. The country is mountainous, but intersected with rich and fruitful vallies, and crossed in different directions with excellent roads, an advantage which few Spanish provinces possess. The climate although cold and variable, is by no means unwholesome; the inhabitants are laborious and poor. That petty kingdom, of which an ancestor of Henry the Fourth^a had been deprived by pope Julius the Second, was united to the crown of Arragon and Castile in the year 1518.^b The traveller who enters the country from France, observes as soon as he has crossed the Pyrenees, the small plain of Roncesvallos,^c and in the convent of the same town, are still seen several relics, that may remind him of the brave Roland and archbishop Turpin.

Pampeluna (*Pamplona*) rises on Mount St. Christopher, above the banks of the Arga, at no great distance from the last mentioned place. It has been affirmed that the town was built by Pompey, who gave it the name of *Pompeiopolis*; at all events, it is the capital of the province, and the seat of a bishopric. The walls, bastions and ancient castle are imposing, but the interior of the town is by no means cheerful; the streets are straight, spacious and deserted, the houses are lofty and built of stone; the trade of the inhabitants^d consists chiefly in coarse cloths and different sorts of earthen ware. Tudela, a handsome episcopal town, possessing manufactories of cloth, soap and pottery, and carrying on a considerable trade in cattle, stands at the confluence of the Queila and the Ebro.

The three Vasconian provinces,^e which derive their name from their ancient Basque population,^f form a triangle of which the northern side is watered by the gulf of Gascony,^g and the two others bounded by Navarre and Old Castile. Distinguished by that great activity and love of independence common to the people in other mountainous countries, these industrious Basques have found in an unfruitful soil, the palladium of their freedom. Although subject to the Spanish domination in virtue of ancient treaties, the kings of Spain may rather be considered their protectors than their sovereigns. The three provinces have a separate government and general assemblies in which their mutual interests are not only discussed, but the orders of the king examined, for they cannot be executed without that formality. They tax themselves to defray the expenses of the local administration; the contributions, which they pay to the crown, are considered gifts that are rarely sought, and never granted, unless they be very moderate.

The Bidassoa, a small river, which discharges itself into the bay of Biscay, separates France from the province of Guipuscoa.^h Fontarabia or Fuentarabia, according to its Latin name, *Fons rapidus*, is a strong place at the mouth of the Bidassoa. Tolosa, the ancient *Iturissa*, is a small but pleasant town on the banks of the Orio. Saint Sebastian is the capital of the province; situated on a peninsula watered by the bay of Biscay, with a small harbour at the mouth of the Urumea, the town itself cannot be considered very large,

^a Jean d'Albret (John III. of Navarre,) great grandfather of Henry IV. by the mother's side.—P.

^b In 1510, Pope Julius II. excommunicated Jean d'Albret, and authorized Ferdinand to take possession of his territories. The latter invaded Navarre in 1511, and July 25th 1512, that petty kingdom was united to the crown of Castile. (Abrégé Chronol. de l'Hist. d'Espagne et de Portugal, T. II. p. 60—65.)—P.

^c Fr. *Roncesvaux*.—Roncesvalles.

^d Its manufactures. ^e Guipuscoa, Biscay and Alava.

^f M. William Von Humboldt has proved by his learned researches, that the Basque bears more characters of a primitive language than any other known tongue in Europe. The name of the people who speak it, appears to be derived from the Basque word *vaso*, which sig-

nifies a mountain. If the same word be used adjectively, the termination *co* must be added; thus the people have been denominated *Vasoco*, and by contraction *Vasco*, a term analogous to mountaineers. The Romans called the Basques, *Vascones*, and their country *Vasconia*, of which the etymology is still preserved in the Spanish word *Vascongadas*.

But the inhabitants are industrious; they carry on a considerable trade, and have manufactories of leather, arms and iron. A large bay apparently closed on all sides by mountains runs into the land between Fontarabia and Saint Sebastian; it forms the harbour of Los Passages,ⁱ one of the finest and safest in Europe. The town is built on a narrow piece of ground between the mountains and the bay. Bergara^k possesses a patriotic school, in which the physical sciences are taught, and where the young nobles of the country are educated at the expense of the state. All the coasts are peopled by fishermen or mariners, and the rural districts by laborious and peaceful husbandmen.

No country can be more agreeable than the hills in Biscay, none more fruitful than the cultivated vallies. Bilbao,^l the capital, has long been the mart for all the wool that Spain exports, and for all the merchandise sent from different countries into the northern provinces of the kingdom. Crowds frequent the harbour, and many ships repair to it, although the town is about two leagues from the sea; it is situated on the right bank of the Ausa, a small river sufficiently deep to receive large merchant vessels; the same river abounds in *angulas*,^m a very delicate fish, highly valued in Spain. The road that leads from Biscay into the province of Alava, traverses the great defile and the mountain of Salinas. Beyond the town of the same name, the heights become gradually lower until they terminate in the fruitful plain of Vittoria, in which many hamlets and villages vary the romantic scenery. Vittoria, the capital, according to its Latin name, *Victoria*, serves still to mark the place where the Cantabri were defeated in the reign of Augustus. It was rebuilt by Sancho the Great, who gained under its walls a decisive victory over the Saracens. The old town consists of irregular and clumsy houses, but the new has been built with much elegance; it contains a spacious square at present set apart for bull fights. Several festivals are held in Vittoria, some in honour of the young, others of married persons; these ceremonies tend to preserve the purity of the people.

The principality of the Asturias is bounded on the north by the ocean, on the east by Biscay, on the south by the ridge of the Asturian Pyrenees, and on the west by Galicia. It is intersected by many narrow and sinuous vallies, which are watered by torrents and rivers well supplied with fish. The people in the province boast that they have never mixed with foreigners; they are brave, patient and laborious. Oviedo, the capital, the ancient *Ovetum*, is situated in about the centre of the province, on a hill that rises in the midst of an undulating plain between the Nora and the Nalon. The cathedral, a Gothic edifice and the finest in the town, was built in the eleventh century;ⁿ some ancient relics have been deposited in it, and the people hold them in great veneration. Cangas de Onis, a small town on the banks of the Cella, stands at a short distance from the abbey of Our Lady of Cavadonga, which, it is said, occupies the site where Pe-

nifies a mountain. If the same word be used adjectively, the termination *co* must be added; thus the people have been denominated *Vasoco*, and by contraction *Vasco*, a term analogous to mountaineers. The Romans called the Basques, *Vascones*, and their country *Vasconia*, of which the etymology is still preserved in the Spanish word *Vascongadas*.

^g Bay of Biscay.

^h Guipuzcoa.

ⁱ "Port du Passage."

^k Vergara.

^l Bilbao.

^m Qu. *anguilas*, eels.—Bilboa is supplied with fish of various kinds, particularly with a sort of eels in winter, which are caught in prodigious quantities at low tides. (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

ⁿ "—built nearly eleven centuries ago," i. e. in the eighth century—said to have been built in 760. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

ragius first planted the standard of independence. The same distinguished person resided long at Gijon, a well-built town at the base of a mountain that terminates in Cape Peñas; its port was formerly much frequented. Aviles stands at the bottom of a gulf, on the other side of the cape; it carries on a trade in coal, and in copper utensils manufactured in the neighbourhood.

The kingdom of Galicia, contiguous to the Asturias and to Leon, is bounded on the north and the west by the ocean, and on the south by Portugal. The large vallies in the province are formed by different high chains connected with the Pyrenean range. Some important towns and more than forty harbours^a are situated in Galicia. Santiago or St. Jago de Compostella, although it may not perhaps be the ancient *Gallacia*,^b is considered the capital of the kingdom. The streets are crooked and ill paved; the principal ornament of the town is the large Gothic cathedral, which was built more than a thousand years ago. It is a double edifice, the lower part of which forms a subterranean church consecrated to *San Jago Menor* or St. James the Less, while in the upper church the pious catholics adore the body of *San Jago Mayor* or St. James the Elder, which was discovered at the time the workmen were building the cathedral. The riches of the same church or the treasures supplied by credulous piety have been greatly exaggerated, probably because they were never generally known until an equal division was made between the chapter and Marshal Ney in 1809; the sum allotted to him for the pay of his troops amounted only to a hundred thousand crowns.^c The gold statue of St. James turned out to be only gilt, and his diamond eyes, it was discovered, were *imitation diamonds*. The magnificence of the church consists principally in the extravagance of the sculpture, and in the beauty of the painted windows. The trade in images, chaplets and other objects of superstition is not without importance at Santiago, but the real industry of the place is centred in the cloth and silk^d manufactories. Orense, situated in a fine country near the southern extremity of the province, and watered by the Minho, was formerly more flourishing; a fine bridge of ten arches so lofty that a ship of war with all its masts may sail under them, has been built over the river; one edifice, the Gothic cathedral, may be also remarked for the elegance and regularity of its proportions. Many still resort to the three warm springs, on account of which the town was called *Aque Calide* by the ancients. Lugo, founded by the Romans seventy-six years before the vulgar era, was named *Lucus Augusti* in honor of Augustus. The Tamboga waters the town; the thermal springs and a sacred wood induced the Romans to build it on its present site, where several ruins not uninteresting to antiquaries are still to be seen within the walls and in the neighbourhood. The townhouse and its majestic front were built by the ancients. The circular walls that encompass Lugo, might contain ten times the number of inhabitants; they are nearly a league^e in circumference. Mondonedo,^f situated at the foot of the Sierra de Iufestia of which the declivities descend to the ocean, is the ancient *Britonia*; it was long well known for its cattle-fairs, but at present they are not much frequented.

^a "On the coast are forty sea-ports, but the greater part are very small."—Ed. Encyc.

^b "Perhaps the ancient *Gallacia*" (*Callacia*.) The *Brigantium* of the ancients (Ed. Encyc.) Betanzos, near the bay of Corunna, is the *Brigantium* (*Flavium Brigantium*, Encyc. Method.) of the ancients.—P.

^c Bory de St. Vincent, Guide du Voyageur en Espagne.

The principal ports in Galicia may now be mentioned. Ferrol, the chief town of one of the three maritime departments in Spain, possesses a naval academy and school; its spacious harbour forms a bay, on which formidable batteries have been erected to guard the narrow entrance. The inhabitants are industrious and consequently wealthy. Betanzos, the ancient *Brigantium*, situated at some distance to the south of Ferrol, unites a trade in light wines with the commerce of its port. Corunna,^g the *Caronium* of the Gallæci, situated about five leagues from Betanzos, is divided into two towns; the old town stands at the extremity of a small peninsula, and is surrounded with fortifications; the new town, or the Pescadaria, as it has been called from its fish market, is only fortified on the side of the land. The bay of Corunna is about a league in breadth; the harbour, which is large and commodious, is in the form of a crescent; it is defended by the fort St. Anthony, and is one of the most frequented of any in Galicia. The town is enriched by its commerce and its sardel fisheries, by its cloth, hats and cordage, and lastly by its cigar manufactories in which more than five hundred women are employed. It is not improbable that the word Corunna has been derived from *Columna*; such at least was the name that the ancients gave to a tower that was used as a pharos, in height and appearance not unlike a column. The same tower still remains; according to tradition it was built and consecrated to Hercules by the Phœnicians, and at a later period repaired by the Romans who dedicated it to Mars. A Latin inscription serves to confirm the tradition, but a learned Spaniard^h considers it the work of Trajan.

The kingdom of Leon, an important Spanish province, still retains its ancient title; contiguous to Portugal and Galicia on the west, it is bounded by Estremadura on the south, by Old Castile on the east, and by the mountains which separate it from the Asturias on the north. The Duero crosses it from east to west.

The province derives its name from the town of Leon, the capital, which was founded by the emperor Galba, on the place where a Roman legion (*legio septima gemina*) was stationed. The cathedral church, the principal ornament of the place, was commenced about the end of the twelfth century, and completed in the fourteenth; remarkable for its elegance and lightness, it has been considered the finest in Spain. The streets are crooked and for the most part very dirty; they are chiefly composed of Gothic and irregular houses: the market-place,ⁱ however, may be considered an exception; it forms a perfect square, and strangers admire it for the regularity of the buildings. The antiquary may still discover inscriptions and other Roman monuments in Astorga, the ancient *Asturica Augusta*; the thick walls of the town, flanked with turrets and bastions, were repaired and extended by the French. Ponferrada is supposed to have been the *Pons Ferratus* of the Romans; it possesses an ancient castle now in ruins, which belonged to the Templars. It stands at the confluence of the Sil and the Baeza, in the middle of a large and fruitful valley enclosed by steep mountains. Zamora was destroyed by the Moors in the eleventh century, and rebuilt by Ferdinand the

^d "Silk stockings."—It has a manufactory of silk stockings. (Ed. Encyc.)

^e "Three fourths of a league" Fr.

^f Mondoñedo.

^g Fr. *Corogne*, Span. *Coruña*.

^h Don Jose Cornide, the academician. See his Dissertation on that Monument.

ⁱ "The great square (*place*)." Span. *Plaza Mayor*.

Second and Alphonso the Eighth. It rises on the right bank of the Duero; the bridge across the river may be said to be the greatest ornament to the town; the military school has not wholly lost its ancient reputation.^a The pleasant town of Toro, although very insignificant in point of size, contains not less than eighteen parishes and an infirmary.^b The cortes met within its walls in the year 1505, and to that assembly the Spaniards were indebted for the wise and equitable laws that are still called the laws of Toro. Tordesillas, the ancient *Turris Syllæ*, is still commanded by the old castle, where the mother of Charles the Fifth died in the year 1555, but long before that period, she was afflicted with the loss of reason. Carrión de los Condes is celebrated in the Spanish chronicles for the exploits of the Cid, and also for a memorable victory over the Moors. An annual tribute of a hundred virgins, which the Moorish princes exacted from the Spaniards, was abolished after the battle, and a festival still held in the town, serves to commemorate the event. The town contains eight parishes;^c it must be a place of considerable industry, for there are not fewer than six linen manufactories,^d eight leather works, five oil, and as many flour mills. Palencia may be considered an agreeable town, although the houses are of Gothic architecture. In one large and well built square, two of the sides are adorned with piazzas, and the cathedral erected by King Sancho, is not inferior in size to any in Spain. Valladolid possesses an university and an academy of painting;^e the royal castle was the birth-place of Philip the Second and of several other kings; the cathedral and fifteen parish churches are richly endowed; many broad and straight streets, adorned with porticos supported by granite pillars, terminate in a spacious square; but with all these advantages, it has the appearance of a deserted town. The population was formerly equal to a hundred thousand persons; it does not amount at present to twenty-five thousand. The inquisition was long held within the walls of Valladolid, and the proceedings were marked with the cruelty and ferocity, which distinguish it from every other tribunal. The same town stands on the site of the ancient *Pintia*, a place mentioned by Ptolemy, at the confluence of the Esqueva and the Pisuerga. The trade of Valladolid is not great; it consists in ribbons, pottery, perfumery and liqueurs. Salamanca, formerly *Salmantica*, celebrated for an university founded in the year 1239, possesses also twenty-five churches, a cathedral, (a fine monument of the sixteenth century,) and many edifices of every period and every style, on account of which it has been styled the Rome of Spain.^f The principal court,^g as the inhabitants call it, forms a regular square; it is encompassed with a portico consisting of ninety arcades; the houses are constructed on a uniform plan, and surmounted with stone balustrades. The one half of the bridge across the Torines was built by the Romans, the other in the time of Philip the Fourth. Ciudad Rodrigo, an important fortress in the twelfth century, was more than once besieged in the last war. It appears from inscriptions and different remains of antiquity, that it was the *Lancia Transcudana* of the Romans, so called from its position on

^a "The most remarkable objects it contains, are a fine bridge over the Duero, and a military school."—P.

^b "Hôtel des Invalides"—military hospital.

^c "Seven parishes"—ten parish churches. (Crutwell.)

^d "23 métiers de toiles."

^e "A school of fine arts."—An academy of the belles lettres was established in 1752. (Rees' Cyc.)

^f "Little Rome."

^g "La grande place"—*Piazza Mayor*. The great square. (Townsend.)

the right bank of the Agueda or, according to its ancient name, the *Cuda*

Old Castile is divided into five provinces; it is bounded on the north by the Gulf of Gascony, on the west by the Asturias and the kingdom of Leon, on the south by New Castile, on the east by Arragon, and on the north-east by Navarre and the Biscayan provinces. The Duero waters the country, and flows in the direction from east to west Castile, it has been affirmed, was so called from the great number of castles (*castillos*), formerly its means of defence against the Moors, and the residences of petty princes whom ambition armed against each other.

Santander, supposed to be the *Menosca* of the *Varduli*, is the largest town in the north of Old Castile; many vessels frequent the harbour, and it carries on a considerable trade in wine. Burgos, the *Bravum* of Ptolemy, and an ancient capital, abounds with convents and churches.^h The cathedral, a highly finished Gothic edifice, remarkable for its elegance and the numerous small spires that rise above each other on every side, the remains of the house inhabited by the Cid, the arch of Fernando Gonzalez, the episcopal palace, and St. Mary's arch, which might be more correctly denominated the triumphal gate that leads to the Rio Arlanzon,ⁱ are the principal ornaments or curiosities in Burgos. Beyond the walls are the tomb of the Cid, and the ruins of the palace formerly belonging to King Alphonso the Wise, a legislator and an astronomer, and the author of the *Alphon sine Tables*. Soria, a small town watered by the Duero, stands on the site of the ancient *Numantia*; it possesses a considerable trade in wool.

Segovia requires a more minute description; it is the ancient *Segovia*, a Celtiberian city embellished by Trajan; its name has not been changed. It stands on a hill of which the Eresma waters the base. The Arabic gate and the Alcazar, an old castle flanked with turrets, and built on a precipitous rock, may still give the stranger some notion of the flourishing state of Segovia under the Moorish domination. But these sink into insignificance when compared or rather contrasted with the work of Trajan, the aqueduct with a double row of arches, by which water has been conveyed into the town for seventeen hundred years. It consists of a hundred and nine arches,^k the largest of which are nearly ninety feet in height from the ground to the conduit, and the length of the space which they cover, exceeds 2530 feet. If Trajan raised a structure so costly, solid and gigantic, it may be readily admitted that Segovia, in ancient times, was a much more important place than it is at present. Other works of past days still serve to recal the ancient splendour of the town; but sumptuous temples have given way to time or the more destructive efforts of ignorance and barbarism. The cathedral is the finest modern edifice in the city; it was built in the sixteenth century, and its demi-gothic style announces the period of the regeneration of art. The styles of different periods are united in the Alcazar, and the interior is not the least curious part of the building. The principal stair-case is constructed in the best taste, most of the apartments are adorned with carved and

^h It is situated on the declivity of a hill, on the right bank of the Rio Arlanzon.

ⁱ "The principal approach to the city is by the gate of Santa Maria, which opens on one of the bridges over the Arlanzon."—Ed. Encyc.

^k It contains 159 arches. (Townsend.)—P.

^l A double row of arches, one above another, crosses the valley and the plain of Azoquejo. The greatest height of this part of the aqueduct is eighty feet ten inches. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

gilt wood-work, and in the largest hall is contained a collection of wooden statues representing the kings of Oviedo, Leon and Castile, from Favila the First who reigned in the eighth century, to queen Joan, surnamed the Foolish,^a the mother of Charles the Fifth. The Cid and his famous horse Babicio are also represented; one may see too the real or supposed saddle of the same courser, which contributed more than once to the victories of its master. The pupils in the royal school of artillery founded by Charles the Third, now met in this ancient edifice. Segovia was formerly well known for its cloth; it possesses still a great many looms, four fulling mills, and three large washing places for wool.

St. Ildefonso lies at two leagues from Segovia. Once a manor belonging to a society of monks, it was purchased by Philip the Fifth, who built a palace on the grounds, to which the king and his successors repaired in summer. The houses near it form a small town of four thousand inhabitants. The palace is of simple architecture, and within it are contained the best paintings which Christina of Sweden collected at Rome. It may be said of the gardens, as it has been said of those at Versailles, that art has conquered nature; the water which descends from the neighbouring heights has been collected at a great expense; a thousand channels supply lakes, cascades, fountains and jets that rise above the trees, and surpass every thing of the kind in Europe; in short, Philip the Fifth imitating the prodigality of his ancestor,^b expended 45,000,000 piastres on his country seat, an enormous sum, by which the treasury was almost exhausted.

Avila is the most southern province in Old Castile; the name of the chief town is the same as that of the province, and is derived from an Arabic word. Avila has a fine cathedral and a college, but on the whole it may be considered a dismal and gloomy city encompassed with thick walls. It was the native town of St. Theresa and of the historian Gilles Gonzalez Davila.

The ancient kingdom of Arragon forms a single province, bounded on the north by France, on the east by Catalonia and the kingdom of Valencia, and on the west by Old Castile. Tarazona, supposed to be the ancient *Augustobriga*, stands at the foot of the Sierra de Moncayo, and is divided into the high and low town. It may be doubted if the convent belonging to the Fathers of Mercy is entitled to the encomiums that have been lavished on its architecture, but the faithful repair to it that they may adore the bodies of St. Boniface and St. Eusebius. Borja, a small place at no great distance from Tarazona, carries on a trade in flints, which abound in its neighbourhood. Calatayud, on the banks of the Xalon, was built on the ruins of *Bibilis*, the birth-place of the poet Martial. Daroca appears to be the ancient *Agiria*, a city of the Celtiberi; a vast cavern in the vicinity, at the foot of the chain of Moncayo, receives the torrents that descend in rainy seasons, and thus secures the town against inundation. Albaracin,^c of which the name is evidently Arabic, is watered by the Guadalaviar; it rises in a fruitful and romantic valley enclosed by the mountains of Ibbeda and the Sierra de Albaracin. Teruel near the confluence of the Guadalaviar and the Rio Alhambra, an

ancient town without any remarkable buildings, is distinguished by the industry of its inhabitants. Alcaniz^d was built by the Moors; its name signifies a *treasury* in the Arabic language; it is commanded by an old fortress near the Guadalupe, and adorned with a very fine square, that leads to the principal church. Barbastro,^e an old town encompassed with walls, stands on the banks of the Vero, a small river that divides it into two parts, which communicate with each other by a stone bridge. The Madragora flows near the little town of Benavarre;^f the same stream issues with a loud noise at irregular intervals from the depths of the earth, and rushing suddenly into the neighbouring vallies, destroys the harvest and the labours of the husbandman. Jaca,^g a strong hold at the base of the Pyrenees, is not more than six leagues from the frontiers of France; it lies in a beautiful valley that communicates with several others of a smaller size. Sos is only remarkable for an old castle in which Ferdinand the Catholic was born. Huesca, the ancient *Osca*, which was raised to the rank of an episcopal town in the sixth century, is pleasantly situated in the midst of a plain, that extends on the north to the Sierra Guara. The streets are well built; the longest or the *Calle del Corso* consists of uniform houses and different public buildings, such as the cathedral, the consistorial chamber, the university founded in the year 1354, the palace of Count Huaza, and the convents of St. Francis and St. Domingo.

Saragossa, the ancient *Salduba*, was erected into a military colony by Augustus under the name of *Cesar Augusta*. The Spaniards call it Zaragoza; situated almost in the centre of Arragon, near the junction of the Ebro with the Huerva, it is the capital of the province, and likely to be for ever memorable in the annals of Spain from the resistance it made against the French troops,^h who took it by assault, and when masters of the walls, were obliged to besiege the houses. The bridge of Saragossa consists of seven arches, one of which is 180 feet wide. The *Holy street*ⁱ is not only longer but broader than any other in the town. The church of Our Lady^k is superior in architectural beauty to the cathedral, and also more celebrated on account of its miracles. The adjoining country has a monotonous appearance in spite of the most varied culture. An edifice in the neighbourhood, the convent of the Hieronymites, erected in the middle ages, exhibits a fine mixture of the Moorish and Italian styles.

Catalonia, contiguous to France, Arragon and the kingdom of Valencia, is bathed on the east by the Mediterranean. A mountainous country and a great extent of coast appear to have had some influence on the character of the inhabitants, or in other words to have rendered them more industrious, more attached to their native land, and consequently more watchful of its independence. The people of *Marca Hispanica*, as the province was then called, shook off the Moorish yoke in the tenth century. *Gotholaunia*, from which the word Catalonia has been derived, was at the same time substituted for its ancient name.^l The counts of Catalonia, originally vassals of France, at length made themselves independent, and the people excited by their warlike spirit, carried their arms or their commerce into most countries then known. Lastly, the house of Catalonia having become

^a "Jeanne la Folle"—so called from her insanity; Jane of Castile.—P.

^b His grandfather, Louis XIV. ^c Albarazin, Albarracin, Albarrazin.

^d Alcaniz.

^e Barbastro.

^f "The Madragora rises near the little town of Benavarre."

^g Jacca.

^h In 1808.

ⁱ *Calle Santa*.

^k *Nuestra Dona del Pilar*.

^l "In the tenth century, the province of Catalonia, which had been already freed from the Moors, changed its name of *Marca Hispanica* for that of *Gotholaunia*, from which the present name is derived." Catalonia was conquered by the Saracens in 712, but before the conclusion of the same century (the eighth,) they were completely expelled from the province by Lewis the Debonnaire.—Ed. Encyc.—P

powerful from alliances, was able to unite on a single head all the crowns of Spain. The activity which distinguishes the Catalonian, his patience of labour, his pride that makes him submit to many privations rather than become a servant, or engage in servile employments in his native country, and his language, a Provençal dialect unintelligible to other Spaniards,^a render Catalonia different in many respects from every other province in the kingdom. Agriculture has made greater progress; trees are not proscribed as in some other provinces; the woods and groves near the towns heighten the effect of the scenery, and afford a grateful shade against the heat of the sun, an advantage of which Arragon has been deprived.

Junquera at the base of the Pyrenees, the last Spanish town towards the eastern extremity of those mountains, was called *Juncaria* by the Romans from the great number of rushes^b (*stipa tenacissima*), that grow in the neighbourhood. The industry of the inhabitants is mostly confined to their cork manufactories, from which they derive a considerable profit. Figueras, supposed to possess the strongest citadel in Europe, is regularly built and situated in a fruitful country at the extremity of a range of hills which separates the course of the Muga from that of the Marol. Two roads meet in Figueras, one of which leads to Rosas, a strong place on the coast with a large but not very safe anchorage, and the other to Gerona, which the poet Prudentius, a writer of the fourth century, calls the small and wealthy town of *Gerunda*. Little of its wealth now remains; it stands at the foot of a hill, and is commanded by the small fort of Montjoui; all the other fortifications were destroyed by the French in 1808. The only remarkable monuments are the Arabic baths within the convent of the Capuchins, and the cathedral of which the front cannot be too much commended. There are soap works and one or two cotton manufactories in the town.

Urgel, or as it is called in Spain, *Sco de Urgel*, an episcopal city, well known during the last Spanish revolution as the place where the apostolic junta assembled, rises in a valley near the Pyrenees, on the banks of the Segre. Balaguer and its strong castle are situated below it on the same river; it is the ancient town of *Bergusia*, to which place, according to Livy, the Romans sent ambassadors two centuries before the vulgar era, to persuade the inhabitants to break off their alliance with the Carthaginians. The Segre also waters Lerida, or as Lucan calls it "*Ilerda* on the peaceful streams of the *Sicoris*." Livy calls it by the ancient Greek name of *Athanagia*, which signifies immortal. Lerida rises on the declivity of a hill, and is surrounded by a very fruitful country; the banks of the river are shaded by poplars and other trees. The town still possesses some remains of ancient splendour, among others the gate of *Los Botes*, a Roman building. Cervera, although the largest of the four towns of the same name, is a small place surrounded with walls and defended by an ancient castle. The university may be considered the finest edifice; it was founded in the year 1717. Igualada on the banks of the

Rio Noya, is well built; the inhabitants are frugal and industrious.^c

Montserrat rises at the distance of five leagues from the last mentioned place; its numerous peaks tower into the air, and from their appearance its name has been derived, which signifies the *serrated mountain*. The caverns in its schistous and calcareous mass are remarkable for the yellow alabaster deposited within them in the form of stalactites. The mountain is about eight leagues in circumference, and its summit is almost always concealed by clouds. Fourteen hermitages are situated between the base and the top; the magnificent convent of the Benedictines is about half way from the summit. It was there that Ignatius Loyala, anticipating the great events to which he believed himself called, consecrated his sword to the virgin. The Cardenet^d which throws itself into the Llobregat, flows at no great distance from Montserrat; a canal serves as a communication between the two rivers, and runs through the town of Manresa, the inhabitants of which carry on a trade in silks and gun-powder. A very magnificent church may be seen on the left bank of the Cardenet; it was built by the Jesuits above a grotto, to which the founder of their order retired, when he composed his *Spiritual Exercises*.

The small town of Cardona, at some leagues to the north of Manresa, is supposed to have been the ancient *Udura*; at present it is only remarkable for the rock-salt mines in the vicinity, but it is difficult to conceive a more splendid spectacle than these large open quarries exhibiting saline deposits nearly four hundred feet in height,^e and which when illumined with the sun's rays, display the brilliant colours of the rainbow. The strata of rock salt are in some places as transparent as crystal; in others they are blue or bright red or mixed with greyish clay. The variety of vivid colours gives to the abrupt sides, the prominences and the summits of this imposing mass, the only one of the kind in Europe, the appearance of a mountain of precious stones, surpassing in magnificence whatever has been imagined by the natives of the east concerning the abodes of fairies and genii. The geological position of these salt mines was long unknown to naturalists; but it has now been ascertained that the vast prominence which they form, in the midst of a space nearly twelve thousand feet in length, and four thousand in breadth,^f contains deposits of gypsum and clay arranged in vertical strata, and separating in some places the layers of salt. These substances, together with the sandstone, the quartz and the limestone of the surrounding mountains, may be considered as belonging to the intermediate formation.^{g h}

A road from Cardona passes between frightful precipices and through a thick wood at the end of which may be seen the romantic town of Solsona,ⁱ the *Setelsis* of Ptolemy. It rises near the extremity of a group of mountains, on the banks of the Rio Negro. The neighbouring districts are well cultivated, and the inhabitants of the town manufacture cutlery and hardware. A chain of mountains connected with the Pyrenean range, and separating the course of the Llo-

^a A smoother dialect of the same language is spoken in the kingdom of Valencia, particularly by the country people.—P.

^b "Sparte"—esparto grass. See note ^a p. 843.

^c Both of the two last towns are on the road from Lerida to Barcelona. M. B.

^d Cardonero.

^e "100 metres in height."

^f "3000 metres in length and 1000 in breadth."

^g "—to the formation of middle sediment (*sedimens moyens*)"—secondary formation. M. Cordier considers the salt and gypsum as tran-

sition, and the rocks in the surrounding mountains as secondary. The salt hill occupies the centre of a circus having the shape of a horse shoe, and surrounded by mountains on every side, except towards the east, where it opens on the valley of the Cardonero. See an abstract of M. Cordier's memoir in De la Beche's *Selections of Geological Memoirs*, p. 52.—P.

^h See the memoir on the rock salt of Cardona, by M. Cordier. (*Journal de Physique*, tome 82.)

ⁱ Salsona.

bregat from that of the Ter, extends between Solsona and Vich,^a the latter an ancient town built on the ruins of *Ausa*, the inhabitants of which resisted the Romans a hundred and eighty-five years before the vulgar era. The streets are broad, some however are not paved, and most of them are very steep. The principal square is surrounded with arcades, and the shops, coffee-houses, and other places of amusement render it a place of resort for the town's people. The fertility of its environs, the copper and coal mines in the neighbouring mountains, and the linen and cotton manufactures within the walls, maintain the commerce of the inhabitants.

As to the towns on the coast of Catalonia, Mataro, or as Pliny calls it *Illuro*, is the capital of a maritime department. It carries on a considerable coasting trade, and many vessels repair to the harbour; the inhabitants manufacture a great quantity of lace, and the products of the distilleries are held in some repute. The old town stands on an eminence; ancient walls, gates and other remains of antiquity still remain; the streets are narrow, but not so crooked as those in many other Spanish cities. The new town, formerly a suburb, is now much larger than the old; it is better planned and better built; the houses are not inelegant, and many of them are adorned with fresco paintings.

Whether the stranger travels along the road that leads from Mataro to Barcelona, or proceeds to the same capital by sea, he is struck with the beauty of its position, the regularity of the buildings, and the impulse given to commerce by the activity of the population. There are not fewer than seven hospitals, four public libraries, eight public schools,^b a seminary, an institution for the deaf and dumb, an academy of painting, schools of pharmacy, surgery and medicine, and lastly, a society for the encouragement of arts and sciences.^c The buildings set apart for these different institutions are not unworthy the large city of Barcelona; but the finest edifices are those reserved for public or religious purposes: among the former are the palace of audience,^d in which the celebrated archives of Arragon, and other documents connected with that kingdom, as old as the eighth century, are deposited; the town-house, an elegant building; the palace of the captain-general of the customs, the front of which is adorned with two rows of columns; the *lonja* or exchange, admirable for the simplicity of its architecture; and lastly, the theatre, perhaps the finest of the kind in Spain. The convent of Santa Clara is all that remains of the ancient palace that belonged to the counts of Barcelona, and the kings of Arragon.^e The cloister in the convent of Mercy is very large and of finished workmanship. The church of St. Michael, once the temple of Neptune, is still adorned with an ancient Mosaic pavement. The cathedral is a Gothic building, but bold, simple and majestic; an alabaster mausoleum, containing the remains of St. Eulalia, the tutelar saint of the city, may be seen in a chapel under the church. The church of St. Mary of the Sea is after the cathedral, the finest in Barcelona. It is not difficult to trace the successive additions made to the town; the old streets are narrow and crooked, but the new are straight;

^a Vicq. Vique.—Vic (Vosgien)—Vic de Osona (D'Anville).—P.

^b "Colleges."

^c "A school of painting, and another of belles lettres, a college of pharmacy, a school of surgery, an academy of practical medicine, and a society of arts and sciences."

^d The hotel of the Deputation, (*La Casa de la Deputacion*.) "The palace of the audience or deputation."

^e The palace of the Counts of Barcelona and the Kings of Arragon

the modern houses consist of four or five stories; they are adorned with balconies, and are mostly constructed with considerable taste. Many Roman monuments are still to be found in Barcelona; the ancient city was called *Barcino*, and it has been supposed, was founded by Hamilcar, the ancestor of Hannibal. The fort of Monjuich or Montjoui, which guards the town on the south, while the citadel defends it on the north, stands on the site of a temple dedicated to Jupiter. The new town of Barcelonetta has been built near the mole that extends into the sea; it forms merely a suburb of Barcelona. The port, although regularly cleaned, is much encumbered with ooze and pebbles; it has been for a long time inaccessible to large ships, an inconvenience which has hitherto had little effect on the commerce of the place; the products of its industry consist in cloths, velvets, silks, lace and excellent armour.^g The consequences of the epidemical disease by which the population was more than decimated in 1821, are now almost forgotten.

It would be an omission to say nothing of the situation of Barcelona, or the varied scenery in the neighbourhood, forming a landscape of lofty hills, thick woods, precipices, torrents and foaming cataracts, worthy to be appreciated by those who can find subjects of study in the beauties of nature.

Many monuments of Roman power are seen in the country between the capital of Catalonia and Tarragona; the remains of an aqueduct near Villa Franca form a communication between two steep mountains; the ruins of an ancient fortress are situated near Villa Nova,^h and numerous sepulchres dug in rocks, exhibiting, if it may be so said, the impressions of so many human bodies, indicate the site of *Carthago Vetus*, a town mentioned by Ptolemy; a triumphal arch rises beyond the burgh of Vendrell, and near Torre-dam-Barra, a majestic tomb, which according to popular tradition contains the ashes of the Scipios. From the last mentioned place may be seen Tarragona apparently extending into the sea, and which different antiquarians consider *Tarraco*, a place that in the time of the Romans gave its name to the largest province in ancient Hispania. The town stands on an eminence six hundred feet above the level of the sea; it is defended by walls flanked with bastions, and within their enclosure are many ancient monuments together with some fine modern buildings. The Roman aqueduct is still kept in good repair; uniting utility with its historical recollections, it furnishes wholesome and limpid water to the whole population. The cathedral, of which the architecture appears to have been borrowed from the Moors, is certainly the largest building in the town. Tarragona was exposed to many disasters in consequence of its resistance to the French armies, but it has now become more industrious and more flourishing than formerly. The harbour begun in 1800, affords at present an easy entrance to ships, and a safe retreat against every storm. The wool, the fisheries, and the coasting trade of Tarragona, together with the commercial relations between the same place and distant countries are the guarantees of its prosperity. The

serves for the prisons of the inquisition, and the academy of medicine. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^f "Aicul," grandfather. Barcelona was originally founded by Hamilcar Barcas, the father of Hannibal, and from him called *Barcino* (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

^g "Armes blanches," swords, sabres, and other small arms.—Barcelona has a large cannon foundry, besides manufactories of muskets, pistols, swords, and other small arms.—P.

^h Villa Nueva.

ⁱ "760 feet."

town was the birth-place of Paul Orosius, a disciple of St. Augustine.

Reuss,^a a place founded by the clergy of Tarragona,^b was only a burgh at the end of the last century, but its commerce and industry now place it among the number of important towns. It carries on a trade in glass, and it possesses a hundred and fifty tan-pits, a hundred and twenty machines for carding cotton, eighty-four for spinning silk,^c six bleach-fields, as many hat manufactories, fifteen soap works, and twenty for different sorts of dyeing.

Tortosa, the ancient *Dertosa*, formerly one of the largest cities in Tarraconensis, stands near the southern extremity of the province, between two chains of mountains on the banks of the Ebro. The Spaniards having taken it from the Moors in the year 1149, the latter collected a great force, and laid siege to the town; the besieged exhausted by a long resistance, were about to give up the place for want of hands to defend it, when the women took up arms, and drove away the Mussulmans. A military ceremony in which the women took precedence of the men, served until lately to perpetuate the memory of the event. Tortosa is at present reckoned one of the strong places in Spain, and it is also the capital of a maritime department. The finest edifices in the town are the cathedral and the episcopal palace.

The kingdom of Valencia forms a province bounded by Catalonia, Arragon, New Castile and Murcia. The coasts are more extensive than those of Catalonia; the land yields rich harvests, and abounds in mines and different sorts of marble.

The Valencian is not only laborious and industrious, but he possesses a lively imagination, and his uniform gayety or cheerfulness cannot be wholly subdued by misfortunes. They unite, says Fischer,^d the opposite qualities that are remarked in the inhabitants of the north and in those of the south, the bodily strength of the Norwegian with the impetuosity of the Provençal. They are fond of religious ceremonies, festivals, amusements and every sort of bodily exercise. It is inspiring to see the ardour with which they dance to the accompaniment of the tambourine and the *dulzayna*, an Arabic instrument, not unlike the clarinet, used at present in no other Spanish province. Their dialect, derived from the Provençal, although soft and agreeable, particularly in the mouths of the women, is not destitute of energy. The *Fiera*, a very ancient ballad, which the peasant sings to the sound of his guitar, expresses the woes of love in harmonious modulations and in the continued accord of the accompaniment. A fondness for finery or display in dress is common to every class of people in Valencia. The bonnets of the peasantry are like those used by the ancient Phrygians; their shirts are bound by a girdle, and descend in the form of a tunic;^e sandals attached with cords are worn instead of shoes; lastly, a large piece of cloth falls over the shoulders, and completes the costume. On festival and gala days they appear in velvet, a broad hat encircled with ribbons protects them from the sun, while their mantles and buskins are adorned with strings^f of gold or silk. The country women are distinguished by their

grace and gayety from the inhabitants of the other provinces; they never appear without their veils, and wear even during festivals the same sort of bodice that was worn by their ancestors.

The road from Tortosa leads to Peñíscola, a frontier town in Valencia; it stands on a rock that rises from the sea to the height of 240 feet, and a belt of sand, only thirty feet wide in its narrowest part, unites it with the continent; but the same belt was sometimes covered with water in tempestuous weather, before a dike was raised by the inhabitants. The town thus fortified by its position was considered impregnable until Marshal Suchet took possession of it in November 1811. The ruins of a church belonging to the Templars may still be seen; it was to it that the antipope Peter Luna,^g who had taken the title of Benedict the Thirteenth, fled for safety; he died in the same place in the year 1423. A natural grotto into which the waves are precipitated with a loud noise, has been called the *Bufador of pope Luna* in honor of the same celebrated person.^h Castellon, surnamed *de la Plana*, to distinguish it from two other cities of the same name, the one in Valencia, the other in Catalonia, is a well built town about a league from the sea, and at a short distance from the Rio Mijares, over which a bridge of thirteen arches has been lately erected. Francisco Ribalta, the celebrated painter, was a native of the town. Segorbeⁱ has been considered the *Segobriga* mentioned by Pliny; but the dolphins represented on the medals of the same place seem to indicate that the ancient town of the Suesetani was not far from the sea.^k

Valencia, which gives its name to the province, is one of the finest and largest cities in Spain. The Spaniards still call it by the ancient name of *Valentia*,^l but the antiquities consist merely of imperfect inscriptions and mutilated columns. The Guadalaviar passes through the town; although at no great distance from its mouth, it is very narrow, because the streams are diverted and serve to irrigate the fertile districts watered by the river. Bridges^m lead from the town to the different suburbs. The cathedral, an ancient mosque, may be remarked on account of a silver altar,ⁿ and the pictures that adorn the chapels. The Arabic baths, although disfigured by modern additions, enable us to judge of the manner in which the Moors laid out these edifices. The custom-house, a fine building, forms nearly a side of the square of St. Domingo. The *lonja* or exchange, a Gothic edifice in the market-place, is crowned by a range of battlements rising above a hall 120 feet long, eighty broad and sixty in height. The elegance of the private houses, at the same time that it announces the wealth, is creditable to the taste of the inhabitants. The same town was the first in Spain, in which *serenos* were established, or companies of police that walk the streets at night, watch over the public safety, and warn the inhabitants in cases of fire. These useful institutions have been adopted in all the large Spanish towns since the last century. Lastly, it was also the first place that participated in the benefits of printing; so early as the year 1474, the inhabitants distinguished themselves in the new art, and even at present it possesses a decided

^a Reus.

^b A. D. 1151.

^c "It possesses a glass house, 150 tanneries, 120 machines for carding cotton, 84 for spinning (*filatures*)—"

^d Gemälde von Valencia, herausgegeben von Ch. Aug. Fischer.

^e "Their shirts are bound by a girdle, and descend over their naked limbs in the form of a tunic, or are confined at the waist by loose drawers" (*calzones*.)

^f "Ganses," loops.

^g Pedro de Luna.

^h "A grotto into which the waves are precipitated, and from which

they spout in showers of spray to a very great distance, is called from the latter circumstance, *El Bufador del Papa Luna*, (the blower or puffer of Pope Luna.)"

ⁱ Segorba.—Tr.

^k Compare D'Anville with the work entitled *Medallas de España* by P. Florez.

^l The Spanish orthography is *Valencia*.—P.

^m "Five bridges."

ⁿ "The great altar."

superiority in this respect over all the other towns in the kingdom. The same cause may account in some measure for the rank which it holds among the cities that have produced celebrated men in literature and the arts. The institutions connected with education or instruction are seven seminaries,^a an university, two public libraries, a botanical garden, a great many elementary schools, a military school for cavalry, a royal academy of liberal arts, and a society of agriculture and rural economy.^b

Whether a stranger leaves Valencia by the gate of Serranos, of which the semi-gothic architecture and the two massive octagonal towers accord perfectly with the battlemented walls that surround the town, or proceeds by the triumphal gate, called the *Puerta del Real*, along the fine walk of the *Alameda*, he is equally struck with the beauty of the country, the richness of the cultivation, and the luxuriance of the vegetation throughout the whole extent that the eye can reach.

Two places may be mentioned between Valencia and Alicante, namely, Gandia, a small maritime town, situated in the most fruitful and finest part of the province, and Denia, a port now insignificant, but celebrated in ancient times under the name of *Dianium*,^c from a temple consecrated to Diana, of which some remains may be observed. Alicante^d still retains an Arabic name; it is built near the site of the ancient *Lucentum*, and extends along a fine beach under several hills. A castle commands the nearest of these heights, the rocks of which threaten to give way and to destroy the town. The harbour is safe and commodious, and the large and deep bay might serve as an anchoring place for several fleets. Orihuela near the confines of Murcia, occupies the site of the ancient *Orcelis*, a town supposed to have been founded by the Carthaginians; it stands in a fruitful plain watered by the Segura, and at the base of a lofty calcareous hill. Xicoua,^e a place of some trade,^f is about twelve leagues to the north-east of Orihuela. Lastly, San Felipe, formerly Xativa, which was destroyed because the inhabitants resisted Philip the Fifth, and afterwards restored by the same prince, who gave it the name that it now bears, is situated at the foot of a mountain, on which may be seen an ancient castle, built first by the Romans, and afterwards by the Goths and Moors. San Felipe possesses a considerable trade in cotton and silk manufactures, and according to tradition, it occupies the site of *Satabis*, famous in ancient times for its linen.

New Castile forms a large division of Spain, bounded by the kingdom of Valencia, Arragon, Old Castile, Estremadura, Andalusia and Murcia; it comprehends the provinces of Cuenca, Guadalaxara, Madrid, Toledo and La Mancha.

Few towns of any consequence are situated in the province of Cuenca.^g San Clemente in the south, is one of the largest; it possesses a Latin seminary. Huete,^h a small and finely situated town in the north, bears the name of the stream that waters it. Cuenca in the centre, the ancient *Valeria*, near the confluence of the Huecar and the Jucar, rises on a mountain of which the sides form lofty precipices above these rivers. It contains fourteen churches, two hos-

^a "Colleges."

^b "—a society of agriculture and economy"—not of rural economy alone, but of the useful arts. The Economical Society of Valencia directed its attention to improving the silk manufacture. (Townsend.)—P.

^c Strabo, Book III. ch. 4, § 6. ^d Alicante.

^e Xixona, Jijona.

^f "It carries on a considerable trade in a kind of sweetmeat called *turron*."

pitals and three seminaries,ⁱ but it was formerly more populous than at present. It is the native town of the architect Herrera,^k and of the celebrated jesuit Lewis Molina, one of the most subtle casuists of his fraternity.

Siguenza in the province of Guadalaxara contains nothing remarkable except a Gothic cathedral, three hundred and thirteen feet long, a hundred and twelve broad, and as many in height. It was in ancient times the Celtiberian town of *Seguntia*. Guadalaxara or Guadalajara, although the capital, is an old Moorish town, ill built and enclosed with walls, on the eastern bank of the Rio Henares. It still possesses some of the cloth manufactories in which its riches formerly consisted; the largest of these manufactories belongs to the king, but their products are not in so great repute as they once were.

Madrid, the capital of the kingdom, adds considerably to the importance of the province, in which it is situated. The town, it is said, was built near the site of *Mantua*,^l a city belonging to the Carpetani. While the Goths were masters of the country, it was a mere village under the archbishops of Toledo. It was included in the number of royal towns in the fourteenth century, and obtained the title of capital by a decree of Philip the Second. It is higher than any other metropolis in Europe, being 1800 feet^m above the level of the sea, a circumstance that partly accounts for the comparative coldness of the temperature. The climate has some resemblance to that in the north; in summer the heat is oppressive, the centigrade thermometer reaches often to forty degrees; in winter, the cold is keen and piercing, and the mercury in the same thermometer descends sometimes so low as eight or ten degrees below the freezing point. The houses are ill adapted to shelter the inhabitants against the cold or the humidity of the north wind, for they consist mostly of high apartments, in many places not air-tight, and seldom provided with a fire or chimney. The word Madrid is of Arabic origin, and signifies a *well-aired house*,ⁿ but the variableness of the climate gives rise to phthisis, putrid fevers and a sort of dangerous colic, which, according to many, can only be successfully treated by the physicians of the country.^o It still contains some old houses built of wood, and decorated according to the ancient custom with paintings representing bull-fights and persons in the costume of the sixteenth century; but the modern quarters of the town are provided with brick or stone houses and broad streets, not inferior to any in other European capitals. The street of Alcalá is the largest in Madrid, and the most remarkable for the number of public buildings; ten carriages may pass abreast in any part of it. Of the forty-two squares, it is only necessary to mention the square of the Royal Palace, adorned by that large and imposing edifice; the square of the sun,^p where five of the principal streets terminate, and a place of resort both for the idle and the busy; and lastly, the great square (*Plaza Mayor*) in the centre of the town, formerly frequented on account of the bull-fights and the public festivals at which the king assisted from the balcony of a small palace that has been since converted into a hall for the royal academy of history. The Cevada is the place

^g Cuenca, Cuenza.

^h Hueta, Gueta.

ⁱ "Colleges."

^k Juan de Herrera.

^l *Mantua Carpetanorum*.

^m 2276 feet. (Ed. Encyc.)—2231 feet Fr. (M. B. Table of European altitudes.)

ⁿ "Maison du bon air"—a salubrious dwelling.

^o Fischer, Reise nach Spanien.

^p *Puerta del Sol*.

to which the people run with the greatest pleasure, because it is there that criminals are executed, but the most delightful to a real Spaniard, is the one that serves as an arena for bull-fights.

Whoever has not been a witness of these spectacles, where the blood of man is mingled with the blood of an infuriated beast, can form but an imperfect idea of them. It is still more difficult to conceive the ardour with which the people, as well as men and women of the highest rank, rush into the enclosure prepared for these dangerous combats. The artisan, insensible to the wants of his family, leaves his work, and carries his furniture or best clothes to a mount of piety, that he may procure a sufficient sum to pay for his place at the *corrida*.^a A surgeon and a priest may be seen in attendance near the amphitheatre, apparently very indifferent about the passing scene, until it has been announced to them that the *torador* is mortally wounded, when the one administers the resources of his art, and the other the consolations of religion. A combat that is exhibited gratuitously to the people, serves as a prelude to the one for which the spectators pay. The first rays of the sun have hardly illumined the horizon, when the people appear in crowds at the entrance of the circus, to see the bull let loose into the arena, where tormented by a multitude who have passed the night in taverns, in order to get a good place at the combat, it often wounds the fool-hardy drunkards that venture to attack it, until the *matador* dispatches it, and puts an end to the fight. In the mean time, preparations are made for the principal spectacle; the first places are filled with the ladies and gentlemen of Madrid, and the others with the lower orders, who can afford to pay for their amusement. The box of the king is situated opposite the gate by which the bull is driven into the arena, and another in front of the king's belongs to the municipal authorities. Before the combat commences, an officer bows to the king or to the place reserved for him, and then receives his instructions from the master of the ceremonies. The latter gives the signal by throwing up a number of keys.^b The silent crowd eagerly await the long wished moment. The *picadores* (prickers), clad in silk jackets, bespangled with gold, and adorned with ribbons of every colour, and chamois pantaloons lined with iron from the heel to the haunch, armed with long and light spears, and mounted on horses with fillets bound round their eyes, march in file to the accompaniment of trumpets before the two principal boxes, and range themselves opposite the gates. The *chulos* or tormentors in the costume of Figaro, carrying long scarlet scarfs, pass between the posts of the balustrade, which separates the arena from the spectators. The *chulos* are replaced by the *matadores*, holding a long sword in one hand, and the *muleta* in the other, a sort of small banner that they use as a buckler. After having been presented by a municipal officer to the prince and the master of the ceremonies, they retire in the same order that they entered.

A flourish of trumpets precedes the commencement of the combat. The gates open, and the *picadores* with couched lances prepare for the fight. The animal springs into the enclosure, runs round every part of it, and seeks in vain to escape. The appearance of twelve or fifteen thousand persons waving their handkerchiefs and their hats, and the shouts of joy that accompany its entrance, frighten or enrage it. It strikes the earth with its horns, beats its tail against

its sides, and attacks one of the *picadores*, who receives it with his lance, supporting it with all his strength against the shoulder of the animal; but as the iron point at the end of the lance can only gall the bull, it becomes more furious, and rushes successively against each of the *picadores*. If the men are not very dexterous, or if their lances break, they are dismounted, and their gored horses fall dead on the arena. The horsemen themselves, although their limbs are covered with plates of iron, might also be destroyed, if the *chulos* did not run forward and turn away the animal by waving their silken banners. When a sufficient number of horses have been killed, the *picadores* retire and give place to the *chulos*, to whom the perilous task is committed of plunging the *banderilla* into the body of the animal, at the junction of the neck and shoulders. The *banderilla* is a small staff about two feet long, furnished at one extremity with a bent spike, and at the other are attached many squibs and crackers.^d The light *banderillero* places himself in front of the animal, passes his arm between the horns, and fixes the *banderilla*, but if he miss his mark, he is infallibly wounded or tossed into the air by his furious adversary, while shouts of *viva* are a thousand times repeated by the crowd. Tormented by the iron and the fire, the bull bellows, bounds, turns and fights with desperate fury, when a flourish of trumpets announces its approaching fate. Assisted by four *chulos*, the *matador* holding in one hand a drawn sword, and in the other an unfurled *muleta*, presents himself with great gravity. The flag which he displays attracts the attention of the animal; the two adversaries look at each other an instant, the one to satisfy its fury, the other to ward off its attacks. The spectators are all attention; the bull springs forward, but only tearing the light silk, passes under the left arm of the *matador*, who with his right hand strikes the sword into its withers, and separating two vertebræ, dispatches his victim at a single blow. The victor is then hailed with the applauses of the whole assembly, and if he has the address not to leave hold of his sword until he presents it to the people, the ladies crown him with flowers, and the gentlemen load him with piastres. But if the *matador* strikes the animal in any other place than that prescribed by the rules of art, so that it does not die instantly on the spot, hisses and groans are his only reward. If the bull kills one *matador*, the people continue shouting *bravo*, until it falls by the hand of another. These sanguinary spectacles, not unknown in the most remote antiquity, and common in the days of chivalry, have retained something of the barbarous gallantry of the middle ages; the *matador* presents with much grace to his mistress or to a noble dame in the assembly, the ribbons placed on the back of the animal to indicate the colour of its breed. These representations, however solemnly conducted, impress the stranger with no favourable idea of Spanish civilization; for the people are not satisfied until ten or twelve bulls and about twenty horses have fallen; indeed, as a writer who resided long in Spain, and was frequently a witness of these spectacles, affirms, the combat can hardly be considered complete unless a *matador* has lost his life. But these accidents do not happen so often as might be expected, fortunately for those not familiar with such scenes, or who do not think the death of a man a very agreeable spectacle.

Madrid was bombarded in 1808 by Napoleon, who adopted that method of compelling the people to acknowl-

^a *Corrida de toros*, bull-fight.

^b —“by throwing to the officer the keys of the gates by which the bulls are let into the arena.”

^c “*Omoplate*,” shoulder-blade.

^d “A small flag, with a staff about two feet long, armed with a very sharp barb, and furnished with crackers, which are lighted by a piece of tinder the moment it is inserted in the animal.”

edge the title of king of Spain and the Indies, which he had conferred on his brother. The same brother of the emperor adorned and improved the capital of Spain. It was he who levelled with the ground the old houses in the neighbourhood of the new palace, and rendered the edifice worthy of being ranked among the finest royal residences in Europe. The interior is decorated with valuable paintings, and the twelve mirrors in the king's hall^a are said to be the largest on the continent. The royal arsenal rises near the principal front of the palace, and an elegant arcade extends along its eastern extremity. This building contains a rich collection of ancient armour, among which that of queen Isabella is still preserved; but M. Reichard, who mentions among its curiosities the sword of Francis the First,^b has forgotten that it was the only trophy retained by Napoleon, of all the victories which he gained in Spain. The royal library, valuable from its manuscripts, medals and antiquities, contains 150,000 volumes. The royal museum of natural history, and the royal academy of San Fernando, founded by Philip the Fifth, are situated in the street of Alcala. M. Mariano de Cabrerizo, a Spanish writer, has added the authority of his name to a popular fiction, in affirming that the French took away whatever was most precious in the museum of natural history to enrich their own in Paris. The Paris museum need not be augmented with the fabulous spoils which the author enumerates, for if the skeleton of the Mastodon be excepted, it is as much superior to the other in the number and selection of the different articles, and in the order in which they are classed, as it is to the different museums in the French departments. It is unnecessary to mention the places of education at Madrid, not because they are insufficient in point of number, but because the sphere of their utility is very limited. The charitable institutions are more important; they are richly endowed, and the buildings reserved for them are spacious and cleanly kept. In the general hospital, the largest in Madrid, many unfortunate persons receive every sort of assistance, and in cases of disease, the best medical treatment the capital can afford. The churches are less remarkable for their architecture than for the number of their paintings.

Madrid is not more than two leagues and a half in circumference; the public walks are the garden of the *Retiro*,^c *Las Delicias* and the *Prado*, the last a very fine plantation, in which the principal avenue is often crowded with equipages, while the others serve as a place of resort for the burgesses. Two monuments, not unworthy of any capital, may be mentioned; these are the triumphal arch of Alcala^d and the gate of Toledo; the former, like the gates of Atocha and Segovia, leads to pleasant walks beyond the walls, and the latter to the majestic bridge over the Manzanares. In summer the river may be easily forded, which accounts for the advice of a jester, who counselled the king to sell the bridge, and purchase water with the money; but in winter the abundant rains, and in spring the sudden melting of the snow accumulated on the mountains, add so much to the breadth and impetuosity of its course, that the bridge is neither too long nor too solid.

The Spanish metropolis is a place of trade and industry;

^a *Salon de los Reynos*, the hall of kingdoms—the audience chamber (Townsend).—P.

^b See the Traveller's Guide through Europe by Reichard. (Fr. Trans.) 1827.

^c Buen Retiro.

^d The gate of Alcala.

^e "On the left bank of the Manzanares, above Madrid, is the pleasant country seat, called the Prado—"

^f Alcala de Henares—"situated opposite the site of *Complutum*."

the inhabitants manufacture woollen stuffs of every colour, carpets, silks, printed linen and muslins; government keeps up at a great expense very extensive porcelain works; lastly, a fair is held in the town, which lasts from the 21st of September to the 4th of October.

Madrid stands in the midst of a sandy and sterile plain, surrounded with mountains; but in the neighbourhood some places are not destitute of beauty. The Manzanares waters the *Prado*, the much admired palace,^e where Philip the Fourth found the duchess of Albuquerque, his mistress, in the arms of the duke of Medina de las Torres. Kings, like other men, are liable to such accidents, but Philip bore it not with becoming moderation, and the lovers might have speedily atoned for their crime with their lives, had not the royal rage been restrained by an attendant.

Few other towns of any consequence are situated in the same province. The ancient *Complutum* was ruined in the tenth century; Alcala,^f however, at no great distance from it on the opposite bank of the Henares, is celebrated not only for its university, the next in importance after the one at Salamanca, but also on account of several distinguished townsmen, among whom may be mentioned the historian Antonio Solis, the naturalist Bustamente de la Camara and the immortal Cervantes. In a different direction or at the distance of eight leagues to the north-west of Madrid, is situated the town of Escorial de Abajo, an ecclesiastical burgh, of which the lands belong to the Hieronymites, for whom the superstitious Philip the Second built the Escorial,^g an immense edifice, at once a monastery and a palace. The Spanish word *escorial* signifies an *exhausted mine*. It is not improbable, therefore, that there was formerly some sort of mine in the place, or that the name was applied to indicate the great size of the building, and the enormous quantity of granite used in the construction, the working of which has formed not merely a quarry, but a valley, that from its extent might be compared with the works of nature.^h The building forms a rectangle seven hundred and forty feet in length, and five hundred and eighty in breadth; the height from the base to the cornice is not less than sixty feet. The superstitious Philip, terrified after having lost the battle at St. Quentin, and not knowing to which of the saints he should address his vows, swore if on any future day, he should retrieve his lost fortunes, to raise the most magnificent convent in the world to the saint whose name then appeared in the calendar. Having gained a victory with the assistance of the English, he hastened to perform his vows; the day on which he was successful, was the anniversary of the saint and martyr Lorenzo;ⁱ a site for the building was therefore chosen near the village of San Lorenzo. The saint had been burnt to death on a gridiron, and that circumstance determined the form of the edifice; gridirons appear in profusion among the architectural ornaments, and figures of the same instrument are sewed or embroidered on the sacerdotal habits. Four towers, each two hundred and sixty feet high, erected at the four angles of the building, represent the feet of the gridiron, the apartments reserved for the king form the handle, and the eleven square courts into which the interior is divided, indicate the spaces between the iron bars. This

The *Biblia Complutensia*, a splendid edition of the Bible, was printed in Alcala, 1512—1517.—P.

^g Span. *Escorial*.

^h We have adhered to the proper meaning of the word *Escorial*, but M. Miñano supposes the name of the palace to be derived from the Latin word *esculetum*, a forest of oaks, in allusion to the lofty trees, that formerly shaded the solitude of San Lorenzo. See *Diccionario Geografico-estadístico de España y Portugal*, art. *Escorial*.

ⁱ St. Lawrence.

wonder of Spain, as it has been called, cost the founder L.2.500,000,^a but the same wonder is one of the most gloomy and dismal residences that can well be imagined. The pictures that decorate the apartments, the chapel^b that serves as a place of interment for the royal family, the relics and the gardens, may be passed over in silence. The library contains nearly 30,000 volumes, and more than 4000 Latin, Greek, Hebrew and Arabic manuscripts.

The indolence and apathy of the Castilians are more apparent in the province of Madrid than in any other. It may be natural for the inhabitants themselves to be of a different opinion, but how else can they account for the small number of manufactories, and particularly for the inferior quality of their products? The places in the vicinity of the capital do not resemble those near the other great cities in Europe; the same movement and activity so apparent in the neighbourhood of London or Paris can nowhere be observed. It is only necessary to leave Madrid to be transported from the opulence and luxury of the capital to the wretchedness and misery that prevail in the country. The character given some time ago of the Castilian peasantry by a German traveller,^c is equally applicable to them at present; revolutions continued with little interruption for a period of thirty years have made no alteration in their manners and habits. The instruments of labour, their dress, and their food, proclaim the poverty and ignorance in which they are suffered to languish. Inveterate prejudice opposes itself to every improvement in agriculture and the mechanical arts. But this is not all; the disgust, which the sight of so wretched a population produces, is heightened by their filth; for from the dear price of linen, the trouble of washing it, and the notion that it is sooner worn out by being washed, the men never change their shirts more than once a month. The necessary consequences of the custom are a degree of uncleanness that occasions cutaneous diseases and the excessive multiplication of vermin. It is usual, not only in villages but in the populous parts of great towns, to see men and women destroying the vermin which they find on each other.

The *siesta*, a custom perhaps necessary from the heat of the climate, has been adopted since time immemorial in every part of Spain. At Madrid, the shopkeepers shut their shops from one to three o'clock in the afternoon; the workmen leave their work; all the inhabitants are asleep. In the evening, on the contrary, all are eager to enjoy the cool air; those who are idle, hasten to the public walks; the *cortejos* or gallants accompany the fair, and are continually engaged in performing those assiduous and minute attentions, which seldom fail to please a Spanish lady. Such attentions the women of Spain consider indispensable; it is certain, they have the art of captivating the men, and binding them when once subdued in chains that are only broken by length of years. The bonds imposed by the women, and the innumerable services they exact, not the vigilance of the police, have kept Madrid comparatively pure from the scandal of prostitution.

The towns in the province of Toledo are none of them distant from the banks of the Tagus. The small town of Talavera de la Reyna is situated below the confluence of the Tagus and the Alberche; the streets are crooked and

ill built; it appears probable from many remains of antiquity that it was the ancient *Libora*. It boasts of having given birth to the jesuit Mariana, celebrated as an historian, and to the learned agricultural writer, Alonzo de Herrera.^d This town has gained some celebrity by the battle fought under its walls, between the French and Anglo-Portuguese armies, on the 27th and 28th of July 1809.

Sylva, a Spanish historian, whose etymological researches are very frivolous, supposes that Toledo was founded five hundred and forty years before the Christian era by a Jewish colony, that called the town *Toledath* or the mother of nations.^{e f} The Tagus, which flows beneath the town amidst arid and naked rocks, the Moorish bridge over the same river, the elegant gate built by the Arabs, and the position of the town on a granite rock, form a sad contrast with the interior, where the only remarkable edifices are the cathedral, an ancient mosque, and the Alcazar, built by the Moors, repaired by Alphonso the Tenth, and embellished by Charles the Fifth, and the Cardinal Lorenzana. These edifices rise majestically above old buildings, and tortuous and dirty streets. The royal residence of Aranjuez, nearly seven leagues above Toledo, is surrounded with extensive and magnificent gardens; the Tagus washes the castle wall, and forms a cascade down an artificial terrace as broad as the space between the banks. A small town, built with scrupulous exactness after a plan laid down by government, rises near the palace.

The southern part of New Castile forms the province of La Mancha, in which three cities are contained, namely, Alcaraz, Almagro and Ciudad-Real, the capital. In the first, which stands on an eminence near the banks of the Guadarmena, are seen the remains of a Roman aqueduct. The second, situated in a very fertile part of the province, indicates by its name an Arabic origin; many persons from different parts of the kingdom, repair to its fair, which is held every year on St. Bartholomew's day. Ciudad-Real, famous for the tribunal of the *Santa Hermandad*,^g established by Ferdinand the Third in 1249, was also important for its manufactories and the number of its inhabitants. It contains three hospitals and a fine church dedicated to the virgin of Prado,^h the tutelar saint of the town.

Leaving the fruitful but ill-cultivated territory of La Mancha, its plains destitute of trees, its marshes and its pastures covered with flocks, we now enter Estremadura. The name of the province is derived from the two Latin words, *Extrema ora*; indicating it to have formed the boundary of the conquests gained by Alphonso the Tenth in the thirteenth century. The western extremity of the province still forms the boundary between Portugal and Spain. The Tagus and the Guadiana flowing parallel to each other from east to west, divide Estremadura into three portions, and the mountains of Mames and Montanches into two nearly equal parts. During the Roman empire it was the richest country in Spain, but now, the poorest and the worst peopled.

The inhabitants of Estremadura are more taciturn and grave than the other Spaniards, qualities which depend less perhaps on their physical constitution than on the nature of the country they inhabit; steep mountains, rapid rivers and the want of roads are so many barriers to communication.

^a "More than 60,000,000 francs."

^b Called the Pantheon.

^c Fischer, *Reise nach Spanien*. [1797.]

^d Gabriel Alphonso Herrera, born at Talavera in the 16th cent., author of a work entitled: *Libro de Agricultura*, Toledo, 1520, fol. (Beauvais, Dict. Hist.)—P.

^e See the Dictionary of Miñano, who gives it the same origin.

^f Toledo was the *Toletum* of the Romans.

^g The Holy Brotherhood—a fraternity instituted for the suppression of robberies.—P.

^h *Virgen del Prado*.

Thus, the Estremaduran, completely isolated, becomes regardless of his welfare, and careless about improving his condition; hence his habitual indolence, the blame of which, however, ought not to be imputed to himself, but rather to the Spanish government. If the Estremadurans were excited by the hopes of wealth, or any stimulus of the same sort, they might be active, enterprising, and indefatigable; for no other people are more patient of labour, none braver in war; the best horsemen in the Spanish army are natives of Estremadura.

Plasencia on the banks of the Gertes is the capital of a district, and has at a distance the appearance of a fine town; the old walls in a state of tolerable preservation, six gates, five hospitals, an episcopal palace, and particularly the aqueduct composed of eighty arches, are the principal ornaments. The Roman inscriptions and other ancient remains in the same place attest its antiquity, but it is doubtful whether it bore in ancient times the name of *Ambracia* or *Deobriga*. Coria, encompassed with walls, in which the architecture of the Romans may be easily discovered, was without doubt the ancient *Caurium*, a place mentioned by Ptolemy, although a Spanish author supposes its name to be of Arabic origin.^a The situation of Coria on a hill, the church and the old dungeon, which are larger than any other buildings, give it an imposing appearance.

Alcantara, another chief town of a district, received its present name from the Arabians; it signifies the bridge, for when these foreigners took possession of the town, they were struck with the fineness of the Roman bridge over the Tagus; that magnificent monument of Trajan's reign has resisted the effects of time and political commotions. It rises to the height of 211 feet 10 inches above the river; it is equal in breadth to 27 feet 6 inches, and in length to 568 feet.^b Of the six arches the two in the centre are 94 feet wide.^c A triumphal arch with an inscription in honour of Trajan rises in the centre, and a mausoleum constructed by the Roman architect for his cemetery stands at the extremity towards the town. The same mausoleum owes its preservation to the enormous stones of which it is built; having been changed into a small chapel consecrated to St. Julian, it is at present an object of veneration both to the towns-people and the peasantry. The town was well known in the thirteenth century, when it became the metropolis of the military order of Calatrava, which then assumed the title of the order of Alcantara. The edifice belonging to these knights may still be seen; it stands in the highest part of the city. Alcantara, with the exception of its antiquities, contains nothing remarkable; indeed it might be difficult to explain the causes of its importance when subject to the Romans, but it must have been a place of considerable consequence, since the inhabitants were able to build the bridge and other monuments which are now in ruins. Different opinions are entertained concerning the ancient name of Alcantara, but it was probably the *Norba Cesarea*, which Pliny calls *Narbonensis Colonia*.^d

Several small towns are situated on the sides or at the base of a range of mountains that extends from the Tagus to the Sierra de Montanches. Of these towns Cáceres is the most important, the capital of a district, and the ancient *Castra Cacilia*. A statue erected to the genius of Augustus,

serves still to adorn the market place. Trujillo,^e the chief town of another district, was the Roman city of *Turris Julia*, and the birth-place of the famous Pizarro. Mérida, now an insignificant town, was formerly the most flourishing of the Roman colonies; as the epoch of its origin is unknown, the Spaniards attribute its foundation to Tubal, and affirm that it was first called *Morat*, a name, according to their own confession, derived from a Greek word, which may either signify a *mulberry tree* or a *tribe*,^f for it admits of a double etymology. It cannot, however, be denied that it was called *Emerita Augusta* by Augustus, when he gave it to his soldiers as a recompense for their valour. At the time of its splendour, it was nearly six leagues in circumference; the majestic remains, which it still possesses, are the best proofs of its past prosperity, and form almost the only inducement for the stranger to visit it. Mérida rises on the declivity of a hill on the banks of the Guadiana; the old bridge over the river has been attributed to Trajan; although of very different dimensions, it is not less remarkable than the one at Alcantara for its solidity and fine preservation. It consists of sixty arches, which extend to the length of two thousand eight hundred feet on a breadth of twenty-three. Another Roman bridge, in a very entire state, bears the name of *Puente de Albargas*. Beyond the walls are situated a theatre, a naumachia, a circus, the remains of three aqueducts, and four Roman ways. The town itself is little inferior to any in Italy in the number of its monuments; within the walls may be seen a fine triumphal arch, the ruins of several temples, columns, capitals, Roman inscriptions and other remains now used in building houses.

On the banks of the Guadiana, nearer its mouth and towards the extremity of the province, is situated Badajoz,^g the capital, and the ancient *Pax Augusta*, of which the Arabic name *Beledaix* denotes a salubrious country. Very different from Mérida, it contains no monument of past magnificence; a modern bridge, however, the work of Philip the Second, may vie with the ancient bridges in Emerita Augusta; it is formed by twenty-eight arches, equal in length to 1874 feet, and in breadth to twenty-three. The cathedral is adorned with fine paintings by Mateo Cerezo and Morales, the latter of whom was born in the town. Olivenza, a fortified town, was ceded to Spain in 1801, but in maps published since that period, it is marked by mistake in the kingdom of Portugal. Zafra, a small town, remarkable for the beauty of its situation, rises in the valley of Telares. Lastly, Llerena, the chief town of a district, appears to have been the ancient *Regiana*. It stands in a plain covered with olive trees, and commanded by the mountains of San Miguel and San Bernardo, continuations of the Sierra Morena. At a short distance from the town are the fruitful pastures of St. Martin, on which numerous flocks and several thousand oxen are fattened.

The fruitful province of Andalusia is bounded by the kingdom of Algarva, Estremadura, New Castile, Murcia and the Mediterranean; but before describing it more minutely, it may be as well to examine the Sierra Morena, formerly the retreat of the most intrepid bandits, and the terror of travellers, until a French engineer traced the famous road from Madrid to Cadiz. A tribute of praise too

^a M. Miñano, Diccionario Geografico-estadístico.

^b "576 feet 11 inches"—The other measurements in the translation, are those of the original.—P.

^c Al. de Laborde, Voyage pittoresque et historique de l'Espagne.

^d *Narbonensis Colonia*. Plin. Nat. Hist. L. IV. c. 22.—P.

^e Truxillo.

^f ὁ μωρος, a portion or division—ὁ μωρος and το μωρον, a mulberry.—P.

^g Badajoz.

may be offered to the memory of a sage and philanthropist; nay the traveller who crosses these mountains, may probably inquire by what fatality men entitled to the gratitude and reward of their country have so often suffered persecution and disgrace.

The mountains of the Sierra Morena, inhabited and cultivated during the time of the Moors, were after the expulsion of these foreigners, covered with forests, which afforded shelter to robbers and wild beasts. It was proposed during the reign of Charles the Third to bring the waste lands into cultivation, and to people the most fertile districts; Don Pablo Olavides, the statesman who formed the project, was entrusted with its execution; his plans were conducted with so much zeal and intelligence, that their success surpassed his expectation. Fifty-eight villages or burghs rose on the heights which command La Mancha and Andalusia. The country was called *Nuevas Poblaciones* (New Populations),^a and formed a province of which La Carolina, the capital, was soon peopled with three thousand inhabitants. But the virtuous Olavides was hated or envied by a monk belonging to the order of the Capuchins. Having been denounced for some indiscreet expressions, which had escaped him in the heat of debate, and having languished in the prisons of the holy office, he was condemned to eight years confinement in a monastery, declared incapable of holding any place under government, and deprived of all his possessions. Olavides escaped from his prison, and took refuge in France; he remained in that country during the most sanguinary period of the revolution, and was at last permitted to return to Spain. The disgrace of the same person, the changes in the Spanish government, and its diminished resources, have retarded the advancement of these settlements.

The Andalusian character is intermediate between that of the Spaniard and the Arab; with the vivacity natural to the inhabitants in the southern climates of Europe, they unite the imagination and carelessness of the people in the east. Sober and patient, they are always gay and lively although in a state of the utmost wretchedness, but necessity renders them active, industrious, and even ingenious in discovering resources. They are considered a boastful people, says M. Miñano,^b and this trait, together with their Arabic pronunciation, accounts for the epithets bestowed on them both by Spaniards and foreigners.

The kingdom of Jaen, one of the smallest of the seven provinces in Andalusia, is divided into five districts, the chief towns of which shall be briefly mentioned. Ubeda, a pleasant town of Arabic origin, stands on a declivity surrounded by mountains and mountain passes, between the Guadalquivir and the Guadalimar; it has its woollen manufactories, and carries on a considerable trade in horses, which are much valued throughout Spain. Baeza,^c the ancient *Beatia*, rises on an elevated table-land; the adjacent country is said to be very healthy. The bishop's palace, and the church of St. Mary del Alcazar, are not the only edifices which adorn the town; the streets are broad and straight, but it may be regretted that the population is not more numerous. Andujar,^d a well built town, and important from the industry of the inhabitants, is built on the right bank of the Guadalquivir, over which a bridge of fifteen arches has been erected. There are not fewer than three manufactories of painted pottery, thirty of earthen-ware, and

five soap works; it exports every year four hundred waggons of different kinds of earthen-ware, consisting principally of *alcarrazas*, which are used in cooling water by promoting evaporation. Some authors suppose that Jaen, the capital, was the ancient *Flavium aurigitanum*; a magnificent cathedral built in the form of a Latin cross, and on the site of an ancient mosque, twelve parish churches, fourteen convents and several hospitals render it when seen at a distance, like a town of forty thousand inhabitants, although the population amounts hardly to half the number. Martos, supposed to be *Tucci colonia*, is commanded by a very high rock, from which Ferdinand the Fourth precipitated two brothers of the name of Carvajal, who were suspected without any foundation to have murdered a knight of the family of Benavides. The two brothers protested their innocence in vain, and, according to a popular tradition, while they rolled from rock to rock, a voice was heard citing Ferdinand to appear on a certain day before the judgment seat of God; on the day mentioned, Ferdinand died at Jaen.

Lucena, a considerable town in the kingdom of Cordova, and the capital of a district, carries on a trade in wine. Montilla, also the chief town in a district, is a place of greater industry, although less populous than Lucena. Four potteries, several linen manufactories, fifty oil mills and many other establishments tend to enrich its laborious inhabitants. Bujalance, which many consider the Roman city of *Calpurnium*, is situated in a large and fruitful plain that lies to the left of the road from Andujar to Cordova. The trade of the place consists in cloth and woollen stuffs.

At the distance of some leagues from Cordova, on the road that leads from Andujar, one of the finest bridges in Europe has been erected over the Guadalquivir, near the *Venta de Alcolea*. The entrance into the celebrated Cordova, the Roman *Corduba*, is not calculated to give the stranger a favourable opinion of the town. A mass of houses built without any regularity or elegance form many narrow, crooked and dirty streets. The space which the town occupies, although very great, consists for the most part of gardens; it is enclosed by old walls, flanked with large towers of Roman or Moorish construction. One monument, the only relic of Moorish power, attracts notice; it is the magnificent mosque built by Abdalrahman in the year 770, long a principal temple of Islamism, and second only to the one at Mecca; at present the sacred images of the catholic worship rise round the verses of the Koran. The edifice forms a rectangle of 620 feet in length by 440 in breadth, including an extent of 210 feet, which is laid out as a garden, and enclosed with walls and arcades. A great many pillars arranged in quincunx are crowded in the interior of the building; indeed it is affirmed that there are not fewer than 850 of different materials, such as marble, granite and porphyry. These columns are without bases or rest on very low pedestals, but they are adorned with elegant capitals, and support a double row of arches. Not far from the mosque or *mezquita*, as the Spaniards still call it, is a fine bridge of sixteen arches built over the Guadalquivir by the Romans and the Moors. In the neighbourhood of the town are seen the ruins of a building which the people call the house of Seneca; it cannot perhaps be determined whether the tradition be well or ill founded, but it is certain that Cordova was the birth-place of both the Senceas, and

^a New Settlements.

^b Diccionario geografico-estadístico de España y Portugal: art. VOL. III.—NO. 47

Andalusia.

^d Anduxar.

^c Baeça.

of Lucan, Avicenna, Averroes and Gonzalvo Fernandez, better known by the name of Gonzalvo de Cordova. In the time of the Moors, the population amounted to 300,000 inhabitants; in the seventeenth century it was reduced to 60,000; at present it does not contain more than 46,000. While the Romans and the Moors were masters of Spain, Cordova was a place of great trade and industry; the inhabitants are still employed in dressing morocco leather, an art which they learnt from the Saracens; the other manufactures are ribbons, gold lace and hats.

The two provinces that have been last mentioned are not together more important than the province of Seville. Ecija, the Roman *Stigis*,^a one of the largest towns in the province, stands between two high hills on the banks of the Genil, over which a stone bridge is erected; the heat during the greater part of the year is so excessive that the Spaniards call the town *la sartén de Andalucía*, or the frying-pan of Andalusia. Carmona, an opulent and well built town, is mentioned by ancient writers, and it still retains its ancient name; two of the gates that communicate with the town were built by the Romans. It possesses at present a considerable trade, consisting of cloth, soap, linen, pottery and morocco leather.

Seville, a town founded by the Phœnicians, consequently one of the oldest in Spain, was also one of the most celebrated both in ancient times and during the middle ages. It is still a place of great importance both from its size, the number and magnificence of the public buildings, and the wealth and industry of the inhabitants. It was called *Hispalis* by the Phœnicians on account of the fruitful country in the vicinity. Julius Cesar gave it the name of *Julia Romula* in vain, for the Arabs by changing it into *Sevilla*, indicated the fruitfulness of its situation, and thus rendered its present name analogous in meaning to the one of Phœnician origin. Seville is admirably situated; the horizon is bounded by mountains, of which the nearest belong to the Serrania de Ronda, and terminate towards the west the long chain which includes the Sierra Nevada. It rises in the midst of a plain covered with olive plantations, hamlets, villages and convents; the Guadalquivir, which fertilizes the same plain, winds at the base of the walls. The latter, flanked with 166 towers, form a circumference of two leagues, exclusively of the suburbs; if these be taken into account, the extent may be nearly doubled.^b The population of Seville was probably exaggerated at the time that Saint Ferdinand took it from the Moors; in this way the Spanish writers were perhaps desirous to magnify the glory of the conquest. It is certain, however, that since the same period the population has considerably diminished. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, it contained 130,000 inhabitants, while the cloth and silk manufactories furnished employment to 16,000 workmen; at the end of the same century, the population was reduced to 100,000, and not more than a thousand workmen were employed in its manufactories; the number of inhabitants at present does not exceed 91,000.

The Spaniards, accustomed to extol the beauty of their country, express their admiration of Seville in the following popular couplet:

^a *Astygis*. D'Anville.

^b "—will be more than doubled."

^c "In most of them, the marks of the axle-trees may be seen on either side"—i. e. on the walls of the houses.—P.

^d The interior of the city is chiefly built in the Moorish style, the streets being so narrow that a person extending his arms can touch the houses on either side.—Ed. Encyc.

Que non a visto Sevilla
Non a visto maravilla.

But Seville, with all its wonders, is a very gloomy and dirty town; the streets are so narrow that it is not safe or easy to pass through them in a carriage, yet the marks of wheels may be seen in most of them;^c in some even, a person with his arms extended might touch the opposite houses.^d There are in the town and suburbs, 564 streets, 12,055 houses, 62 squares and 32 churches. Of the fifteen gates some are of good architecture, and the one that leads to the Triana, the largest of the suburbs, forms a triumphal arch adorned with Doric columns.^e The public buildings in Seville are the greatest ornaments; among those worthy of notice are the archbishop's palace, a large and richly decorated edifice; the alcazar or palace of the Moorish kings, a work completed by Peter the Cruel and his successors, and remarkable both for the elegance and singularity of its form, and the fine gardens that surround it; also the town-house, the cannon foundery, the college of St. Elmo, the snuff manufactory, and the Lonja or exchange, a square building of Tuscan architecture, where the archives relative to the discoveries made by the Spanish navigators are preserved. The cathedral church, more imposing than any other edifice, and one of the largest in Spain, was built in the beginning of the fifteenth century. It is 400 feet in length, 300 in breadth, and 150 in height; the interior is divided into nine naves, adorned with statues, paintings and tombs. There rest the ashes of St. Ferdinand, the Spanish St. Louis, of Alphonso the Wise, both a king and an astronomer, and lastly of Christopher Columbus, on whose tomb is engraved the following simple epitaph:

A Castilla y Aragon
Otro mundo dió Colon.^f

The most curious part of the cathedral is the celebrated tower of the Giralda, the work of Geber, an Arabian architect, who raised it to the height of 250 feet, but in the year 1568, the height was increased by a hundred feet. From this square tower the view extends to the distance of more than fifteen leagues. No stair leads to the summit, but an inclined plane which is said to be of so gentle an acclivity that a horse might ascend it at full trot; it is very doubtful if the experiment has ever been tried. The cupola is surmounted by a gilt bronze figure representing Faith, and serving the purpose of a weathercock;^g although weighing more than thirty-four quintals, it is turned by the gentlest breeze.

The amphitheatre of Italica has been considered the finest ancient monument in the neighbourhood of Seville; it was formerly the principal ornament of *Santi Ponce*, now an insignificant village, but once a flourishing city,^h the chief town in a diocese, and the birth-place of three emperors, Trajan, Hadrian and Theodosius.

The remaining towns in the province may be briefly described. Urera was probably the ancient *Orippe*; it is small but well built; the walls have been destroyed; the adjacent country is fruitful in olives, vines and pasturage, on which excellent horses are reared. Moguer possesses an ecclesiastical tribunal, an hospital, two convents, two Latin schools, and a port on the Tinto, from which wines and the

^e The following verses are inscribed on the gate of Carne:
Condidit Alcides, renovavit Julius urbem;
Restituit Christo Fernandus tertius heros.

^f Columbus gave another world to Castile and Arragon.

^g Don Juan Agustin Cean Bermudez, *Descripcion artistica de la Catedral de Sevilla*.

^h The city of Italica.

other products of the province are exported; but the principal trade consists in spirits; there are not fewer than sixty brandy distilleries in the town. Huelva, the chief town of a district, at the confluence of the Odiel and the Tinto, stands on the site of *Onuba*;^a the port is perhaps as much frequented as the one at Moguer. Lastly, Ayamonte, a fortified town at the mouth of the Guadiana, on the confines of Andalusia and Portugal, has been enriched by commerce and sardel fisheries.

A recent subdivision of Seville forms at present the province of Cadiz. San Lucar de Barrameda, the nearest place in the province to Ayamonte, lies at the mouth of the Guadalquivir; as it was formerly called Lucifer,^b it has been supposed that the god of light was worshipped in the town; it carries on a trade in wines, the produce of the adjoining districts, and in different sorts of liqueurs. The neighbouring country is very fruitful, but on the opposite bank of the river, sandy plains as sterile as the deserts of Africa extend to a considerable distance.

Rota, a place celebrated for its wines, rises on the coast. Xeres or Jerez de la Frontera, the ancient *Asta Regia*, stands at the foot of a hill in a very fruitful part of the country.^c The produce of the vineyards amounts annually to 7758 tuns;^d it is deposited in cellars which from their extent and solidity may be mentioned among the curiosities of the town. An old wall in which arcades and passages have been cut, divides Xeres into two parts. On one side of the wall, the streets are narrow, and the houses are ill built; on the other, the streets are broad and regular, composed chiefly of neat and well built houses. The royal castle, remarkable for its large towers, appears to be a very ancient building. Arcos de la Frontera, a small town with long streets, ill adapted for foot passengers, because they are wholly unpaved,^e rises at the distance of four leagues from Xeres on the steep banks of the Guadalete. It is situated in the same district as the last mentioned town; antiquaries consider it the ancient *Arco-briga*.

It is necessary to cross the Guadalete to visit Cadiz, that important city, whose inhabitants are said to be the most civilized in Spain, but who imprudently and without any chance of success erected twice the standard of liberty in the course of fifteen years. *Gaddir*, which signifies a fortified place,^f was the ancient name of Cadiz; the same name was afterwards changed into *Gades* by the Greeks and Romans. Strabo attributes the foundation of Gades to the Phœnicians;^g he compares it with the most powerful cities in Italy; although the inhabitants, says the geographer, possess only a small island and but little land on the continent, they arm the largest and the greatest number of vessels that are employed in the commerce of the Mediterranean and the ocean. Cadiz, from the advantages of its position, may still be ranked among the most commercial towns in Europe. That part of the Spanish coast has undergone

^a *Onoba*, D'Anville—*Martialium Onoba*, Pliny.

^b *Φωσφορος ἱερὸν*, Luciferi fanum. Strab. L. III. p. 140, Ed. Par. 1620.

^c It is celebrated for its wines, corruptly called Sherry.

^d "72,000 hectolitres."

^e "On account of their steepness."

^f "Lieu entouré," an enclosed or fenced place—a nedge or limit, as it was thought that here were the western limits of the world. (Lempriere's Classical Diet. Anthon's Edit.)

^g L. III. c. 5. § 4.

^h This last assertion is not in the original. "The well water in Cadiz is hard, brackish and unwholesome; what is generally used is brought from the port of St. Mary, in boats kept for the purpose; what they use for washing and other domestic purposes, is the rain

water which falls in the inner courts of the houses, and is collected in cisterns." (Ed. Encyc.)—The inhabitants of Cadiz ascertained during the siege that the water in their cisterns is proper for all uses. (M. B.)—P.

many changes since the time of Strabo; it is probable that the natural mole which unites Cadiz with the isle of Leon did not exist in his time, and that Gades was situated on an island, which has since become a peninsula. This opinion appears to be confirmed by Pliny, who says that the town is situated on an island near the island of Juno, which can be no other than that of Leon. Cadiz is at present the chief town in one of the three maritime departments in Spain. Defended on all sides by ramparts and bastions, nature as well as art have contributed to its safety. It is guarded by sand banks and rocks towards the north and the west, and on these rocks are the two forts of St. Catherine and St. Sebastian. To add to its security, the Cortadura or canal has been cut across the isthmus that unites it to the isle of Leon, and by this means all communication with the latter may be easily intercepted. The blockade made by the French lasted from the year 1809 to 1812, but the only inconvenience which the inhabitants sustained, was that of bringing water at a considerable expense from the port of St. Mary, for there are no wells or springs in the town.^h The houses are well built and whitened with great care; their projecting roofs may darken the streets, but they serve as a shade against the rays of the sun. The town as a whole may bear a comparison with any other in Spain, but the edifices are by no means remarkable; the cathedral is small and shabby;ⁱ the townhouse is an irregular edifice of very ordinary architecture; the prison is without doubt the finest building in Cadiz. The good order that prevails in the interior of the prison, and the discipline to which the prisoners are subjected, are creditable to the public functionaries. If it be considered that besides the founding hospital there are five others, one of which contains more than 800 persons, who are cleanly and well kept, it may be allowed that the inhabitants are neither deficient in charity, nor injudicious in the method of administering it. The people of Cadiz are said to be better informed than the other Spaniards; at all events, if they are not so, it is not for want of schools; the city contains, besides many others, a seminary and college, of which the professors and teachers are jesuits, an academy of fine arts, a naval seminary, and schools of mathematics, surgery and medicine.^k

The isle of Leon^l is separated from the continent by an arm of the sea 600 feet in breadth, which the Spaniards call the *Rio Santi-Petri*; a bridge erected over it communicates with the road that leads to Medina Sidonia, a small town on the summit of a conical rock, famous for its medicinal waters and a particular sort of clay, so well adapted for making bricks and earthen ware,^m that these articles are exported to most parts of Andalusia. The name of the town is of Arabic origin, but the number of Roman inscriptions renders it probable that it was the ancient *Asindo*. The town and harbour of Tarifaⁿ are situated on the coast at the distance of five leagues from lake Janda, and at the

water which falls in the inner courts of the houses, and is collected in cisterns." (Ed. Encyc.)—The inhabitants of Cadiz ascertained during the siege that the water in their cisterns is proper for all uses. (M. B.)—P.

ⁱ The new cathedral, when finished, if executed according to the plan which it now displays, will be one of the most magnificent structures in Spain; it is, however, defective, both in elegance and simplicity. The old cathedral is chiefly remarkable for its pictures and treasures. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^k—"a seminary, a college of Jesuits, and also schools of the fine arts, navigation, mathematics, surgery and medicine."

^l Isla de Leon.

^m "Fire bricks and pottery."

ⁿ Tarifa.

southern extremity of Spain. It was the Roman *Mellaria*, a place of some repute for its salt works^a in the time of Strabo. As a fortified place, it may be of considerable importance; but the inhabitants have attempted without success to unite it to the small island of the same name, and from which it is only separated by the distance of three or four hundred feet.^b

The road that leads to the province of Granada, the most important in Andalusia, is at one part not more than two leagues removed from Gibraltar, an almost impregnable rock that has belonged to the English since the war of the succession; an account of it shall be given in the description of the English possessions.

In the rich country now to be described, where the towns rival each other in industry, one may ascend from the low and burning plains on the Mediterranean to the cold regions which have given the name of Sierra Nevada to the principal chain which extends through the province. Cool springs temper the heat of the climate, and the meadows are enamelled with flowers; the same province is intersected with delightful vallies, and better watered than any other in the Peninsula; it has been so much favored by nature, that it was the last which the persecuted Moors determined to abandon. Granada^c contains besides several important towns. Ronda, the first town on the road towards Madrid,^d is divided into two parts by a frightful precipice, which reaches from the summit to the base of the height on which it is built. The chasm is about five or six hundred feet in depth, and a torrent flows through it. The torrent, which is called the Gaudalvin, an Arabic word that signifies literally a hollow stream, lower down takes the name of the Guadiara, and falls into the sea between Estepona and Gibraltar. Two bridges connect the two quarters of the town; the largest or the new bridge is so much elevated above the torrent that the passengers can hardly hear the noise of the waters. A stair consisting of 400 steps leads to the cascade of El Tajo. Ronda, as its name indicates, stands on the site of *Arunda*, a place mentioned by Pliny and Ptolemy. The ruins of the ancient *Acinipo*, the present *Ronda la Vieja* or Old Ronda, are not more than two leagues distant. The remains of a theatre may be still seen; several inscriptions, medals and statues have of late years been discovered. Estepona, a maritime town, is situated at the base of the Sierra Verneja or vermilion mountains, well known for their mines of plumbago. Marbella,^e the chief town in a district abounding with minerals, might become an important place, if the roads were kept in such a state as to afford better means of communication; it exports different manufactures, and many vessels frequent the port on account of the fisheries in the neighbourhood. The streets are straight; it is adorned with several fountains and a fine public walk, from which the view extends over the Mediterranean. According to a tradition, the same view was so much admired by Ferdinand and Isabella, that the queen, struck with the beauty of the sea, exclaimed, *Que mar tan bella!* which exclamation, say the chroniclers, accounts for the name of Marbella. Whatever the origin of its present name may have been, it cannot be doubted that the place is very ancient; it has been supposed that it was called *Barbesola*,

^a *ἡ αἰγιαλὸς ἔχρησα*. Strab. Lib. III. p. 140, Ed. Par. 1620.

^b "—by a channel a few hundred feet in breadth."

^c The kingdom of Granada, divided into the provinces of Malaga and Granada. The towns which follow, from Ronda to Antequera inclusive, belong to the province of Malaga.—P.

^d Qu. Cadiz Ronda is situated near the western extremity of the

but it may be considered more probable that it stands on the site of *Cilniana*, a town mentioned in the Itinerary of Antonine.

It is only in the latter part of the year that rains are common in the fine climate of Malaga; in other seasons, the sky is almost always serene and cloudless. The base and sides of the mountains that enclose the bay on which Malaga stands, are covered with olive and orange trees, and fruitful vineyards, or varied with cotton fields and plantations of sugar cane. Thus situated, the town enjoys the advantages of a fine climate and a convenient harbour. The men are affable and polite; the women are considered the fairest of any in Andalusia. Malaga is encompassed with a double wall, defended by bastions and a castle built by the Moors, on the summit of the rock which commands the town. Two extensive moles shelter the harbour against every storm; on one of them revolving lights have lately been erected. The Alameda, or public walk, is surrounded with elegant houses, and adorned with several statues and a fountain. The inhabitants are supplied with water from a fine aqueduct, a work which Molina, a wealthy citizen, built at his own expense. Most of the old Moorish houses have been replaced by modern buildings; the episcopal palace, a very large edifice, is built in the best style of architecture; the cathedral has been equally admired; its tower reaches to the height of 260 feet. The present town rises near the site of the ancient *Malaca*, a place of great trade, which Strabo affirms was founded by the Phœnicians.

The rich vineyards of Malaga produce annually about 13,340 tuns^f of wine. There are not fewer than thirty different sorts of grapes; they are classed according to the seasons in which they ripen. The early grapes are collected in June; they yield a thick and sweet wine which is prized by many; they are valuable, too, in as much as they furnish the best raisins, a very lucrative branch of the Malaga trade; but for that purpose they must be cut at the middle of the stalk, and allowed to dry fifteen days in the sun, when they are afterwards packed. The ordinary grapes are gathered in September, and their produce furnishes the strong and dry wines, which are exported into different countries. But the late grapes produce the best wines; one sort, called the *guindas* wine,^g brings the highest price; it derives its name from the buds of a particular cherry-tree, which are put into the vats. The products of Malaga are exported by the nations that consume them; out of all the ships which enter the harbour, certainly not more than a seventh part are Spanish vessels.

A road that winds along the coast, leads from Malaga to *Velez Malaga*, which although insignificant in point of population, is a place of considerable industry and trade;^h it stands on the site of *Menoba*, and the vineyards in the neighbourhood are almost as much famed as those of Malaga.

Antequera, the ancient *Antecaria*, situated between the mountains of the same name and the Guadiaro, contains a greater number of inhabitants than the last mentioned town. The Lovers' Mountain (*Peña de los Enamorados*) rises in the vicinity; it has been celebrated by an act of heroism not unexampled in the history of Spain during the middle

province, to the eastward of Cadiz and to the northward of Gibraltar.—P.

^e Marvella.

^f "160,000 hectolitres."

^g *Vino de guindas*—from *guinda*, a cherry.—P.

^h "—a small industrious and commercial town"—Population in the statistical table, 14,000.

ages and even in modern times. A Christian knight had been taken prisoner by a Moorish prince; during his captivity he fell in love with the daughter of the infidel; resolved to celebrate their union in a Christian country, and at the foot of the altar, they had proceeded to the frontiers, when they were overtaken by the prince and his troops; they sought a hiding place in the caves of the mountain, but the enraged father ordered the soldiers to seize the fugitives. His daughter remonstrated that she was a Christian, and that she had married, and threatened to destroy herself if he approached; but the father was inexorable, and the two lovers rushed headlong from the summit of a precipice. A cross indicates the place, and serves still to commemorate the event.

The province of Granada is divided into two nearly equal parts, the northern and the southern. The towns in the southern are either ports, or situated at a short distance from the sea. Almuñecar,^a of which the harbour is sheltered from the east and west winds, stands at the foot of a hill, where are seen the remains of a citadel, that was used as a treasury by the Moorish kings, and also as a prison for their ambitious relatives. The country round Motril is fruitful in the sugar cane, and according to the Spaniards, the rum extracted from it, is not inferior to any from the West Indies;^b the town is about two leagues from the shore; it stands on a road that leads in one direction to Málaga, in the other to Almería, a city that has been for ages wealthy and industrious, occupying the site of *Murgis*, a town of which the origin is lost in the night of time; the harbour, which the ancients called *Portus Magnus*, is still well frequented.

Loja^c situated at the foot of a chain that bears its name, on the left bank of the Genil, is noted for its salt springs. Alhama, of which the Arabic name signifies a *thermal spring*, stands higher above the level of the sea than any other town in Europe. The Moorish houses, the old walls that encompass it, and other peculiarities render it difficult of description. The country above it is covered with snow during six months, and scorched by the sun the rest of the year. The baths at a quarter of a league from the walls, are much frequented. The waters are sulphureous and slightly coloured; the place from which the spring issues is arid and desert. When the rays of the sun fall on the water in the baths, it exhibits a singular appearance, in as much as it seems to be covered with an unctuous film; in cold weather vapours rise from it, and the channels through which it flows are lined with a white and soft substance. The road to Velez Malaga extends across the mountains of Alhama, and the traveller observes a curious passage, the Puerta de Zaflaraya, a natural gate in the midst of high rocks; no sooner has he passed it, than very different scenery appears before him; the eye wanders over an immense extent of country, embracing the southern declivities of the Bætic range, the coasts of Granada, the Mediterranean, and the African shores.

But the same road leads to the important place which proved fatal to the Moorish power in Spain.^d On the left bank of the Genil, and in a pleasant country, is situated the town of Santa Fe, which was almost destroyed by an earthquake in 1807. It was founded by the Castilian heroine, the wife of Ferdinand the Catholic. During the

siege of Granada, the queen made a vow not to change her shift until the capital had opened its gates. To intimidate the enemy her camp was changed into a fortified town, and the town was called Santa Fe. The Moors fought long and valiantly, but it appeared at last that resistance was vain. It was observed that the queen's shift had been so long worn that it assumed a yellow hue; hence the origin of what is called to this day an *Isabella colour*. It was also within the walls of Santa Fe that Ferdinand and Isabella approved of the first expedition undertaken by Christopher Columbus.

The walks on the banks of the Genil indicate the approach of Granada, through which the Daro flows; it is encompassed by woods, and watered by limpid streams, while the gardens and groves on the neighbouring heights diffuse their fragrance to a distance. The Sierra Nevada is about half a mile^e from the town; its summits are covered with eternal snow, but the cold of winter is never felt at its base. Granada was founded by the Moors; the present state of the town may be contrasted with what it was in the time of its splendour. When the crescent rose above the mosques, it contained 400,000 inhabitants; it occupied a circumference of three leagues, which was defended by more than a thousand towers. It is still adorned with several fine buildings; there are two large squares, and sixteen of a smaller size, many public fountains, seven colleges, eleven hospitals, an elegant theatre built by the French, and sixty-three churches, the most remarkable of which are the churches of San Gerónimo, Santa Cruz, San Juan de Dios, and the cathedral, the latter an imposing edifice, in which are contained the tombs of Ferdinand and Isabella, of Philip the First, and of Queen Joan. But these edifices appear insignificant near others for which the people of Granada are indebted to the genius and luxury of the Arabs. Charles the Fifth, during the splendour of his power, erected in vain a palace which was to surpass in magnificence whatever had been constructed by the Moors; for in beholding this palace which was planned and executed while the arts were reviving in Europe, one does not so much regret that it remains in an unfinished state, as that a part of the Alhambra was destroyed in order to obtain a convenient site. This edifice of Charles the Fifth, although large, and adorned with porticos and the most costly marble, is infinitely inferior to the Moorish palace and fortress, in which the apparent freshness of the ornaments, the galleries supported by light columns, the elegance of the courts, and the arcades that surround them,^f indicate its superiority over the modern buildings in Granada. The same town was the birthplace of the poet Hurtado de Mendoza, and of the jesuit Suarez, who has obtained a sad celebrity in the provincial letters of Pascal. At a short distance from the walls may be seen the site of *Eliberis*, a Roman town, where valuable antiquities have been discovered.

Guadix, situated in a valley on the banks of the Rio Guadix, is the metropolis of a district; it was within its old walls that the Moors made a long and obstinate resistance after the conquest of the capital. It stands probably near the site of *Acci*, a Bætic city; that it does so might be inferred from the ancient name without any other proof, for by prefixing the word *guadi*, which signifies *running water*, the Arabs changed it into *Guadiacci*, which has since been corrupted into Guadix. The country round Baza abounds

^a Almuñecar.

^b "—is equal to that of Jamaica."

^c Loja.

^d Granada

^e "A quarter of a league."

^f "The elegance of the court of the baths, and the arcades surround the court of the lions—"

in hemp and flax; the town rises in a fruitful valley at the foot of a mountain which bears its name; it was the ancient town of *Basti*, the capital of the *Bastitani*. Lastly, Huescar, situated in the same district as Baza, and on the banks of the Barbato, carries on a trade in woollen stuffs; the village of Huescar la Vieja near its walls is all that remains of *Oscá*, a place founded by the Carthaginians.

Another province on the continent remains to be described, namely, that of Murcia, formerly entitled a kingdom, and contiguous to Andalusia, New Castile and the province of Valencia. It hardly extends beyond the basin of the Segura; it is divided into nine districts.

Lorca, one of the most important towns in the province, is the ancient *Eliocroca*; its situation on the northern declivity of the Sierra del Caño, rendered the calamity that befel it in 1802, more disastrous. A reservoir in which the streams of the neighbouring torrents are collected, and which serves to supply the country people with water for the irrigation of their lands, burst suddenly, inundated all the lower part of the town, and destroyed more than six hundred persons together with a great number of cattle. The loss sustained by the inundation in the country and in the town was calculated at 50,000,000 reals.^a Murcia, a wealthy and populous city, is situated in a plain intersected by the Segura, the waters of which are confined by an embankment. The cathedral is the finest edifice, but both the outside and the interior are loaded with ornaments; the other public buildings are the townhouse and the royal silk manufactory;^b the raw material with which the last is supplied, forms the principal wealth of the district. It appears from Roman inscriptions and other antiquities that Murcia was formerly called *Vergilia*. Carthage, the most important town in the province, both from its commerce and its port, which may contain forty ships of the line, and a great many smaller vessels, was founded by Asdrubal the Carthaginian. The territory in which it is situated, separated from that of Murcia by lofty heights, contained so many mines that it was long to the Romans what Mexico was afterwards to the Spaniards. They worked silver and different useful metals. A very large cavern, about three miles^c distant from the town, now called the cave of St. John, is nothing else than an ancient mine. The thermal springs in the neighbouring mountains are still frequented, and many labourers are employed in working alum. Carthage, one of the finest cities in Spain, is defended by several forts along the coast, and also by the fortress of Atalaya on an eminence which commands the walls. The naval arsenal is very large; the yards, docks and rectangular basin occupy nearly the western half of the town. The cathedral is the most remarkable edifice; it is formed by three naves, and within them are contained several richly sculptured altars. The depth and size of the harbour in this chief town of a maritime department are not the only advantages which it furnishes to the Spanish navy.

Ivica or Ibiza,^d one of the Balears, at no great distance

^a "The loss sustained by the inundation in the neighbouring country was estimated at more than 50,000,000 reals"—The loss was estimated at 200 millions of reals. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^b "The townhouse and the building in which silk is prepared"—There is in Murcia, a considerable establishment for spinning and twisting silk. (Rees' Cyc.)—P. ^c "Three leagues."

^d See p. 827. The *b* and *v* in Spanish, are interchangeable, as well as the *z* and *c*. Many Spanish proper names, with *z* or *c*, are written with *s* simply in English authors.—P.

^e In Valencia.

^f Ivica.

'Junc.' rushes—properly of esparto grass. See page 843, note a.

from Carthage, is still nearer the port of Denia;^e Iviza, the capital, stands on the declivity of a steep rock, which rises near a bay; on the summit of the same rock are the bishop's palace, the cathedral and the governor's castle. The town is encompassed with walls, which although they are no security against the attacks of pirates, defend it at least against the natives of the island; for the latter are so much oppressed by taxes, that finding it impossible to pay them, they are apt to revolt. The country round the town is marshy but fruitful in cotton; the rest of the island abounds in a sort of pitch obtained from the Aleppo pine (*Pinus Halapensis*), and which along with the produce of the salt works forms the two principal branches of commerce.

Ivica contains besides some scattered groups of habitations that have been dignified with the name of villages. If the inhabitants are rude and uncultivated, it should be considered that they have been long degraded by superstition and poverty. Their songs consist of one or two modulations; the monotonous sounds of the flagelet, accompanied with the tambourine and the castanet, make up all the music that they use in their wild and ungraceful dances.

The costume of the peasants consists of a short jacket and tight pantaloons that reach to the middle of the leg; they wear a red woollen cap; their *spardilles* or shoes resemble in form the wooden shoes worn by the French; they are made of matweed,^f and attached by cords of the same substance. The dress of the women is more elegant; they wear a large round hat a little inclined on one side, and a handkerchief that covers the neck and descends to the waist, but open behind in order to display their long hair; three necklaces of different sizes are placed above the handkerchief, to two of which crosses are attached;^g a narrow but richly embroidered apron contrasts well with a dark petticoat; the *spardilles* are of the same shape as those worn by the men.

The singular manner by which marriages were celebrated in the Balearic islands in the days of Diodorus Siculus, has been mentioned in the account of the ancient inhabitants. The present custom, which appears to have originated from the ancient, although less immoral, is not less ridiculous. As soon as a villager obtains the consent of his future bride, he is considered by her parents as one of the family; but the ceremony does not take place until the end of a year^h at least; within that period, the young lads in the neighbourhood are permitted to visit the bride on certain days, and to remain alone with her; according to a French traveller, they emulate each other in dissuading her from her purpose by enumerating the vices and bad qualities of her intended husband; the bride is constrained to hear them without a murmur, and as the lover must leave the room when they enter, he suffers during his absence the same vexation which, in all probability, he has before inflicted on others.^k

Formentera or, as the Spaniards call it, Formentera, is so near to Ivica, that it might be easy and without doubt useful to unite them.^l The inhabitants are scattered in

^h "A large round hat, a little inclined on one side, covers a handkerchief which is tied under the chin and descends to the waist, but is open behind to display their long black hair: three necklaces of different sizes are arranged on their bosoms, to two of which a cross is suspended." ⁱ "Two years"

^k M. J. Cambassède, Excursions dans les îles Baléares.

^l Qu. in description. It is separated from Ivica by a channel above two miles wide (Ed. Encyc.)—4 miles (Crutwell.) The island of Formentera is south of Ivica two miles and a half; the passage between being called the Channel of Yvica. Tuckey's Mar. Geog. vol. II. p. 176—P

several villages; the island has been represented as infested with serpents, wolves and foxes, but the only animals in the woods and meadows are sheep and goats, which from neglect have become wild; the flamingo and other birds of passage abound on the shores.

Cabrera, at a short distance from Majorca, is inhabited by some shepherds, whose wealth consists in their goats. It is well wooded, and three springs serve to supply the inhabitants with wholesome water. The sufferings which the French prisoners experienced on the island about the end of the last war, must ever be remembered with regret by the friends of humanity; they were allowed to perish for want of food, and their bones scattered on the island, attest the cruelty of those to whose care they were entrusted.^a

The island of Majorca contains sixteen towns, and the average population of each may amount to 4500 inhabitants;^b but Palma, the capital, peopled by 34,000, is the only one worthy of being described. It is encompassed with walls about seven or eight feet thick, with thirteen bastions fifty paces in breadth, and commanded by a castle on the hill of Belver. The houses are built of stone, but the excessive breadth of the balconies darkens and confines the streets. The Lonja, which rises near the port, is the only edifice that recalls the former splendour of the town. The tomb of Jayme II.,^c king of Majorca, serves to adorn the cathedral; his father conquered the Moors, and took possession of the island in the year 1229. The town, long the principal mart for the commerce between Europe and the east, carries on at present no more trade than what is necessary to supply the wants of the islanders. The Jews are despised by the other inhabitants; many of them are employed in manufacturing jewellery and trinkets.

The *Pages* or rural inhabitants of Majorca wear a very different dress from that of the people in Ivica; a round jacket without a collar, sandals, bare legs and loose breeches render their costume not unlike that of the Greek peasants, but they may be distinguished by a broad hat, which serves to shade the visage. The women wear sandals; in other respects their dress differs little from that worn in Ivica.^d The people may be perhaps more superstitious than those in Spain, but they are also more hospitable; as there are no inns in the island, they never refuse to admit strangers, and to share with them whatever they possess.

The people in Minorca resemble those of Majorca in their manners and in their dress, but they are said to be the least superstitious of the Spaniards. Five towns are situated on the island. *Janna*, now Ciudadela,^e was probably founded by the Carthaginians; with the exception of Mahon, the capital, it is the largest town in Minorca. Broad and straight streets, and clean and well built houses, render Mahon an agreeable residence; the cathedral and townhouse^f correspond ill with the rest of the city. The boldness of their pirates,^g and the safe retreat afforded by their harbour, enabled the inhabitants to amass considerable wealth during the war against Napoleon. The harbour indeed is one of the

finest in the Mediterranean; the celebrated Andrew Doria is said to have been the author of a Spanish proverb, according to which, the only four good ports in that sea, are June, July, August and Port Mahon.^h It is about a league in length, and a thousand or twelve hundred yardsⁱ in breadth; the sides are formed by two steep heights. The breadth of the entrance is about 300 yards,^k and vessels can sail in the neighbourhood, without being endangered by rocks.

Having thus endeavoured to describe the principal towns in Spain and its islands, it remains for us to make one or two remarks on the commerce and industry of that fine country. It has been already seen that it abounds in soda, salt, iron and different metals, that it produces oil, fruits and wine, the best wool in the world, and silk that is only surpassed by that of Italy. The value of the wines, which the Spaniards consider the most lucrative of their productions, might be considerably increased, if any thing like an equitable system of duties were introduced. It exports at present about twenty-five or thirty thousand casks, and the price obtained for them does not exceed L.625,000. The silk in the provinces of Arragon, Valencia, Granada and Murcia, might soon rival any in Italy, if exportation were encouraged, and the mulberry cultivated with care. The mines, although rich in different metals, do not afford all the advantages that might be expected from them. Lastly, could it be believed that the Spaniards, with so great an extent of coast, were dependent on foreigners for all the dry or salt fish which they consume. A Spanish author calculates that the money given every year for imports, in that single article, exceeds L.500,000; thus the consumption in the interior nearly counterbalances all the profits it derives from the fecundity of the soil.

The insignificance of their foreign trade ought chiefly to be attributed to the indifference of the Spaniards. Although from their situation, few nations have such facilities in forming a mercantile navy, still the Spanish flag is the one which mariners observe very rarely on the sea. The Spaniards hold some intercourse with different ports in the Mediterranean, but with few in the Baltic; if they cross the Atlantic, it is only on account of their American possessions.^l

The taxes with which the products of agriculture and industry are loaded, the diversity of weights, measures and money, the bad state of the roads, and the scarcity of canals, of which the most useful remain unfinished, may be considered the principal causes which have led to the decay of Spanish commerce. But all those evils might be easily remedied, and the country contains within itself the elements of prosperity. The time may come when government, aware of the true interests of Spain, will pursue an opposite course to that which has been hitherto followed. If industry were encouraged, if salutary reforms were introduced, and if the real advantages of the country were no longer sacrificed to the imaginary advantages of American possessions, Spain might become one of the wealthiest and most flourishing regions in Europe.

^a For the details of these proceedings, disgraceful to a civilized nation, the reader may consult the work of Cambassède.

^b "—16 towns of from 3000 to 6000 inhabitants."

^c James, king of Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica, son of James I. king of Arragon, who conquered these islands from the Moors. James II. king of Arragon, was the son of his elder brother, Peter III. of Arragon.—P.

^d "The handkerchief used as a headdress by the women, is open before and thrown back upon the shoulders; in other respects it does not differ from that in Ivica." The headdress, called *rebozello*, consists of a double handkerchief, the top of which covers the head, and is tied

under the chin; then extending over the shoulders, and falling half way down the back, the two ends meet, cross and tie before. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^e Ciudadela.

^f "Government house."

^g Privateers.

^h Junio, Julio, Agosto y Puerto Mahon,

Los mejores puertos del Mediterraneo son.

ⁱ "500 or 600 toises."

^k "Breadth, 150 toises."

^l These being now lost to the mother country, except the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico, its American trade must of course be greatly restricted.—P.

It may be necessary to mention a small territory on the confines of France and Spain, nominally neutral and protected by these two great states. Although the republic of Andorra is twice as large as that of San Marino in Italy, the former remains unnoticed,^a while the other is described in most geographical works. It occupies a valley in the Pyrenees, and is bounded on the east, the south and the west by the corregidories^b of Puycerda and Talarn in Catalonia, and on the north by the department of the Arriege. The whole territory is about seven leagues in length by six in breadth; it contains thirty-four villages or hamlets, and is divided into six communities, namely, Old Andorra, the capital, Canillo, Encamp, Massana, Ordino and St. Julian. The thermal springs near the hamlet of Caldes are still frequented, and the iron in the territory furnishes employment to many of the inhabitants.^c The valley, watered by several streams, of which the three largest are the Balira, the Ordino and the Os, is crowned by inaccessible mountains. Rich in the products of the three natural kingdoms, it contains quarries of fine marble, inexhaustible iron mines and

^a It holds a place, however, in the excellent work entitled: *Tableau de la Balance politique du Globe*, by Ad. Balbi.

^b *Corregimientos*.

valuable timber, which is transported by the Balira and the Segre to Tortosa, and from thence to the Mediterranean. The forests and the mountains abound with game and different animals, such as wild goats and wild boars, bears and wolves. Part of the land produces excellent tobacco.

Louis the Debonnaire ceded the sovereignty of Andorra to the bishops of Urgel; the latter possessed it jointly with the counts of Foix from the thirteenth century until the accession of Henry the Fourth to the throne, when the county of Foix was united to France. From that time the French kings retained feudal rights over it; but in the year 1790, these rights were abolished, and the small republic of Andorra was rendered independent of France.

The government is composed of two syndics, elected by a general council of twenty-four members, who are chosen for life by the six communities. The people speak the Catalonian dialect, and are under the spiritual authority of the bishop of Urgel. Happy in their seclusion, the quarrels of ambitious men never disturb their peaceful labours.

^c "There are thermal springs near the hamlet of Caldes, and four forges in the territory."

STATISTICAL TABLES.

POLITICAL DIVISION OF SPAIN.

Lieutenancies.*	Corregimientos.†	Governments.	Alcaldias Mayores.‡	Lieutenancies.	Corregimientos.	Governments.	Alcaldias Mayores.
Pampeluna	—	Pampeluna	—	Ledesma	—	Ciudad Rodrigo	Ciudad Rodrigo
Vitorria	Guipuzcoa	St. Sebastian	—	—	—	San Felices de los Gallegos	—
Oviedo	Bilboa	—	—	Valladolid	Valladolid	—	Valladolid.
	Orense	Corunna	Corunna.		Medina del Campo	—	—
	Betanzos	Ferrol	Ferrol.		Olmedo	—	—
	Baños de Molyas	—	—		Puebla de Sanabria	Puebla de Sanabria	—
	Baltar	—	—		Tordesillas	—	—
	Linares	—	—	Avila	Madrigal	—	—
	Verin	—	—		Arevalo	—	—
Santiago	Cambados	Salvatierra	Salvatierra.	Burgos	Burgos	—	Burgos.
	Ulloa	—	—		Briviesca	—	—
	Rairiz da Veiga	—	—		Lerma	—	—
Soto Mayor	—	—	Soto Mayor.		Santo Domingo de la Colzada	—	—
Barcelona	Barcelona	Barcelona	Barcelona.		Castrojeriz†	—	—
	Albaracin	Berga	Berga.		The Merindas of Old Castile**	—	—
	Cervera	Cervera	—	Segovia	Segovia	—	Aguilar del Rio Alhama.
	Barbastro	—	—		Soria	—	—
	Benavarre	—	—		Agreda	—	—
	Borja	—	—		Alfaro	—	—
	Gerona	Gerona	Gerona.		Logrono	—	—
	Calatayud	Calatayud	Calatayud.		Arnedo	—	—
	Figuerras	Figuerras	Figuerras.		Calahorra	—	—
	Moya	—	—		Riaza	—	—
	Lerida	Lerida	Lerida.	Santander	—	Santander	Santander.
	Manresa	Manresa	Manresa.		—	Santona	—
	Mataro	Mataro	Mataro.	Badajoz	—	Badajoz	Badajoz.
	Puigcerda§	Puigcerda	Puigcerda.		Caceres	Olivenza	Albuquerque.
	Talarn	Talarn	—		Coria	—	—
	Tortosa	Seo de Urgel	—		Plasencia	Alcantara, O. M.	—
	Valle de Aren	Rosas	—		Trujillo	Gata, O. M.	—
	Vich	—	—		Guadalcanal, O. M.	Jeres† de los Caballeros, O. M.	—
	Villa Franca de Peñades	—	—		—	Llerena, O. M.	—
Zaragoza	Zaragoza	—	Zaragoza.		—	Merida, O. M.	—
	Cincavillas	Cincavillas	Cincavillas.		—	Valencia de Alcantara, O. M.	—
	Daroca	Daroca	Daroca.		—	Villa Nueva de la Serena, O. M.	—
	—	Alcañiz, O. M.	—	Madrid	Madrid	—	—
	Fraga	—	—		Alcala de Henares	—	—
	Huesca	Huesca	Huesca.		Chinchon	—	—
	Jaca	Jaca	Jaca.	Guadalaxara	Guadalaxara	—	Guadalaxara
	Tarazona	Monzon	—		Atienza	—	—
	Torrijas	—	—		Ita	—	—
	Tarragona	Tarragona	Tarragona.		Jadraque	—	—
	Teruel	Teruel	Teruel.		Medina Celi	—	—
Leon	Leon	—	Leon.		Molina de Aragon	—	—
	Astorga	—	—	Toledo	Toledo	Ocaña, O. M.	—
	Ponferrada	—	—		Talavera de la Reyna	—	—
	Benavides	—	—		Illescas	—	—
	Boñar	—	—		Lillo	—	—
	Sahagun	—	—	Cuenca	Cuenca	—	Alarcon.
Palencia	Palencia	—	Palencia.		Huete	—	—
	Carrion	—	Aguilar del Campo.		Requena	—	—
	Reynosa	—	—		San Clemente	—	—
	Becerril de Campos	—	—		Sisanta and Vara del Rey	—	—
	Dueñas	—	—		Utiel	—	—
	Herrera de Rio Pisuerga	—	—		Tarazona	—	—
	Toro	—	—		—	—	—
	Torquemada	—	—		—	—	—
Zamora	—	Zamora	Zamora.		—	—	—
	—	—	Alaejos.		—	—	—
Salamanca	—	Salamanca	Salamanca.		—	—	—
	—	—	Alba de Tormes		—	—	—

* "Intendancies." The translator has applied the same term *Licutenancy*, to two entirely different classes of divisions, to neither of which is it applied in the original. See note ^a, page 130.—P.

† *Corregimiento*, the district over which the jurisdiction of a *corregidor* extends.

‡ *Alcaldia Mayor*, the district subject to a higher *alcalde*.

§ *Puycerda*.

|| Military Order.

†† Castro Geriz.

** These *merindas** are six in number, and are situated in the province of Burgos; Campo, Horna and Valdclugana form part of them.

* *Merindad*, the jurisdiction of a *merino* (royal judge and superintendent or inspector of sheep-walks).—P.

†† Xeres. See page 867.

Lieutenancias. Ciudad Real	Corregimientos. Ciudad Real	Governments. Peñas de San Pedro	Alcaldias Mayores.
	Alcaraz	Almaden, O. M.	—
	Villa Nueva de los Infantes	Almagro, O. M. Infantes, O. M.	—
Valencia	Valencia	—	Valencia.
	Alcoy	—	—
	—	Alcira*	Alcira.
	—	Alicante	Alicante.
	Castellon de la Plana	Castellon de la Plana	Castellon de la Plana.
	Denia	Denia	—
	Jijona	—	—
	Morella	Morella	Morolla
	Onteniente	Murviedro	—
	Orihuela	Orihuela	Orihuela.
	Peñiscola	Peñiseola	—
	San Felipe	San Felipe	San Felipe
Nuevas Poblaciones	—	—	La Carolina.
Jaen	Jaen	Martos, O. M.	—
	Andujar	—	—
	Ubeda	—	—
	Alcala la Real	—	Alcala la Real.
	Alcaudete	—	—
	Marcha Real	—	—
Cordova	Cordova	—	Cordova.
	Bujalance	—	Aguilar de la Frontera.
	Lucena	—	—
	Montilla	—	—
	Montoro	—	—
	Pedroches	—	—
Seville	Seville	Ayamonte	San Lucar la Mayor.
	Almonte	San Lucar de Guadiana	—
	Carmona	—	—
	Ecija	—	Ecija.
	Gibraleon	—	—
	Moguer	—	—
	Niebla	—	—
	Paradas	—	—
	Pruna	—	—
	Rota and Chipiona	—	—
Cadiz	—	Cadiz	Cadiz.
	Alcala de los Gazules	Puerto de Santa Maria	Puerto de Santa Maria.
	Arcos de la Frontera	San Lucar de Barameda	San Lucar de Barameda.
	Chiclana	—	—
	Conil	—	—
	Xeres de la Frontera	—	Xeres de la Frontera.
	Trebujena	Tarifa	Tarifa.
	Villa Martin	—	—
Granada	Granada	Granada	Granada.
	Ujijar, in the Alpujarras	—	—
	—	Alheria	Almeria.
	—	—	Alboloduy.
	Antequera	Motril	Motril.
	Baza	—	Antequera.
	—	—	Adra, Berja, and Dalias.
	Coin	—	—
	Guadix	—	Calahorra de Granada.
Malaga	—	Malaga	Malaga.
	Gibraltar	—	—
	Marbella	—	—
	Ronda	—	Ronda.
	Velez Malaga	—	—
Murcia	Murcia	Cieza, O. M.	Murcia.
	Albacete	—	—
	Chinchilla	—	—
	Mula	—	—
Carthagena	—	Carthagena	Carthagena.
Mallorca	Mahon	—	—
Palma	Palma	Palma	Palma.
	—	Iviza	—

DIVISION OF SPAIN INTO LIEUTENANCIES,†
WITH THE NAMES OF THE PROVINCES, THEIR POPULATION, AND THAT OF THE PRINCIPAL TOWNS IN EACH PROVINCE, ACCORDING TO THE LATEST DOCUMENTS.

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
Navarre	Navarre	272,000	Pampeluna,	15,000
			Tudela,	8,000
			Estella,	6,000
The Biscayan Provinces	Guipuscoa,	127,000	Tafalla,	5,000
			St. Sebastian,	9,000
			Fontarabia,	2,000
			Tolosa,	5,000
Biscay,	133,000	Vergara or Bergara,	4,000	
		Bilboa,	15,000	
Alava,	85,000	Orduña,	3,000	
		Vittoria,	7,000	
Asturias	Asturias,	420,000	C. Lieutenancy of Galicia.	
			Oviedo,	10,000
			Aviles,	6,000
			Gijon,	6,000
			Santiago,	28,000
			Pontevedra,	4,000
			Padron,	4,000
			Muros,	4,000
			Betanzos,	5,000
			Ferrol,	13,000
Galicia	Corunna,	73,000	Corunna,	18,000
			Lugo,	7,000
			Orense,	4,000
			Tuy,	6,000
			Ribadavia,	2,000
			Mondonedo,	6,000
			Ribadeo,	3,000
Aragon	Aragon,	770,000	D. Lieutenancy of Arragon.	
			Saragossa,	55,000
			Jaca,	3,000
			Alcañiz,	6,000
			Barbastro,	7,000
			Borja,	3,000
			Fraga,	5,000
			Huesca,	9,000
			Carinena,	3,000
			Calatayud,	6,000
			Daroca,	6,000
			Montalban, †	3,000
			Teruel,	7,000
Taragona, §	10,000			
Catalonia	Catalonia,	1,125,000	E. Lieutenancy of Catalonia.	
			Barcelona,	120,000
			Cervera,	5,000
			Figueras,	7,000
			Gerona,	6,000
			Lerida,	12,000
			Manresa,	13,000
			Mataro,	13,000
			Tarragona,	11,000
			Tortosa,	16,000
Villa Franca de Peñades	4,000			
Vich,	12,000			
Old Castile	Avila,	107,000	F. Lieutenancy of Old Castile.	
			Avila,	4,000
			Arevalo,	2,000
			Burgos,	12,000
			Aranda de Duero,	4,000
			Segovia,	12,000
			St. Ildefonso,	4,000
			Soria,	5,000
			Calahorra,	6,000
			Agreda,	3,000
Santander,	183,000	Santander,	18,000	
		Leon,	5,000	
		Astorga,	4,000	
Palencia,	205,000	Palencia,	10,000	
		Carrion de los Condes,	3,000	
Toro,	152,000	Toro,	9,000	
		Zamora,	7,000	
Salamanca,	235,000	Salamanca,	14,000	
		Ciudad Rodrigo,	4,000	
Valladolid,	195,000	Valladolid,	32,000	
		Medina del Campo,	3,000	
		Medina del Rio Seco,	4,000	
		Tordesillas,	3,000	

* Alzira, Algecira.
† "Captain-Generalships." Spain is divided into eleven grand military departments, (exclusive of the islands), the chief command of

which resides in the governor, who assumes the title of captain-general, to which the governor of Navarre adds that of viceroy. Ed. Encyc.—P.
‡ Montalvan. § Tarazona. || "Girone."

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.						
G. Lieutenancy of Estremadura.										
Estremadura	Estremadura, 670,000	670,000	Badajoz,	12,000						
			Albuquerque,	6,000						
			Alcantara,	3,000						
			Caceres,	10,000						
			Ceclavin,	5,000						
			Llerena,	6,000						
			Merida,	5,000						
			Olivenza,	10,000						
			Plasencia,	6,000						
			Truxillo,	4,000						
			Xeres de los Caballeros,	9,000						
Zafra,	10,000 ?									
H. Lieutenancy of New Castile.										
New Castile	Madrid,	348,000	Madrid,	201,000						
			Alcala de Henares,	4,000						
	Guadalaxara, 217,000	217,000	Guadalaxara,	7,000						
			Brihuega,	4,000						
			Signenza,	5,000						
	Toledo,	347,000	Toledo,	15,000						
			Aranjuez,	4,000						
			Consuegra,	6,000						
			Guardia,	4,000						
	Cuenca,	328,000	Ocaña,	5,000						
			Cuenca,	7,000						
	La Mancha, 375,000	375,000	Requena,	10,000						
			Ciudad Real,	10,000						
			Alcaraz,	10,000						
Manzanares,	9,000									
I. Lieutenancy of Valencia and Murcia.										
Valencia	Valencia,	1,048,000	Valencia,	66,000						
			Alcala de Chisvert,*	6,000						
			Alcira,	8,000						
			Alcoy,	18,000						
			Alicante,	23,000						
			Benicarlo,	5,000						
			Castellon de la Plana,	15,000						
			Carcagente,	5,000						
			Concentayna,	7,000						
			Callera,	7,000						
			Denia,	3,000						
			Elda,	4,000						
			Elche,	4,000						
			Gandia,	6,000						
			Murviedro,	6,000						
			Orihuea,	25,000						
			Oliva,	5,000						
			Segorbe,	6,000						
			San Felipe,	15,000						
			Vinaros,	9,000 ?						
			Villa Real,	8,000						
			Xixona,	4,000 ?						
			Murcia,	Murcia,	458,000	Murcia,	35,000			
						Albacete,	9,000			
Almansa, †	7,000									
Callaspara,	3,000									
Carthagena,	29,000									
Cehegin,	10,000									
Chinchilla,	10,000									
Jumilla,	8,000									
Lorca,	40,000									
Totana,	8,000									
Villena,	12,000 ?									
Yecla,	8,000 ?									
J. Lieutenancy of Andalusia.										
Andalusia,	Andalusia,	1,300,000				New Populations, ‡	13,000			
			Jaen,	267,000	La Carolina,	3,000				
					Jaen,	13,000				
					Andujar,	10,000				
			Cordova,	370,000	Alcala Real,	14,000				
					Alcaudete,	6,000				
					Baeza,	10,000				
					Baylen,	4,000				
			Cordova,	370,000	Martos,	10,000				
					Ubeda,	15,000				
					Cordova,	46,000				
					Baena,	14,000				
					Bujalance,	14,000				
					Lucena,	19,000				
					Montilla,	13,000				
			Priego,	16,000						
			K. Lieutenancy of Granada and Malaga.							
			Andalusia	Granada	1,108,000	Granada,	80,000			
Adra,	9,000									
Alhama,	6,000									
Almuñecar,	5,000									
Almeria,	19,000									
Baza,	10,000									
Guadix,	9,000									
Malaga	1,108,000	Loja,		14,000						
		Motril,		10,000						
		Torviscon,		15,000						
		Malaga,		52,000						
		Antequera,		20,000						
		Estepona,		9,000						
		Marbella,		4,000						
Cádiz,	245,000	Ronda,	18,000							
		Velez Malaga,	14,000							
L. Lieutenancy of Majorca.										
Balearic Islands	Balearic Islands, }	250,000	Majorca	Palma,	34,000					
				Manacar,	9,000					
				Pollenza,	7,000					
			Minorca	250,000	Soller, †	8,000				
					Mahon,	19,000				
					Alayor,	5,000				
					Ciudadela,	7,000				
			Ivica	250,000	Mercadal,	4,000				
					Ivica,	5,000				
					Ivica,	5,000				
Total population, 13,560,000										
Table of the Spanish Colonies.										
Africa	Africa,	11,000	Presidios, or fortified places on the coast, }	Ceuta,	9,000					
				Alhucemas, }	2,000					
				Melilla	2,000					
			Canary Islands, 196,000	196,000	196,000	Teneriffe	Santa Cruz,	8,000		
							San Cristoval,	9,000		
						Grand Canary	196,000	Palmas,	9,000	
								Aguimez,	5,000	
								Arucas,	4,000	
						Palma, Lancerota, Teguisa,	196,000	196,000	Guia,	3,000
									Tirajana,	3,000
Oceanica	Oceanica,	2,640,000 ?	Island of An-nobon, Island of Fernando Po, }	1000						
				Philippine Islands, Marian Islands, }	2,640,000 ?	Luconia	Manilla, 140,000 ?			
						Cavite,	6,000			
			Tayabes			13,000				
			Cuba			2,640,000 ?	Havanna,	130,000		
				Bayamo,	12,000					
				Matanzas,	7,000					
			America	America,	1,240,000	Antilles,	Puerto Principe,	30,000 ?		
							Santiago,	20,000		
							Porto Rico, San Juan,	30,000		

* Gisvert or Xibert.
 † Almansa, Almança.
 ‡ See p. 857.

§ Ossuna.
 || Algeziras.
 †† Soler.

Total population of the colonies,	4,088,000
Total population of Spain,	13,560,000*
Total population of the Spanish monarchy,	17,648,000

Number of Hospitals and other Institutions.

Hospitals,	2,231
Houses of entertainment for monks and ecclesiastics, †	106
Foundling hospitals,	67
Places of retreat,	32
Prisons,	5,898
Colleges,	333
Houses of education,	168

Number of Clergy in 1826. ‡

Archbishops and bishops,	61
Canons,	2,363
Prebends,	1,869
Curates,	16,481
Vicars,	4,929
Incumbents having great benefices,	17,411
Do. small benefices,	9,088
Expectants (<i>demandantes</i>),	3,467
Hermits and pilgrims,	1,300
Number of men in the convents,	61,327
Do. women do.	31,400
Total number,	149,696

Cattle, &c. in the kingdoms of Leon and Castile, according to the documents published by M. Miñano in 1826.

	Belonging to Laymen.	Belonging to Ecclesiastics.	Total Number.
Horned cattle	2,729,551	215,334	2,944,885
Horses	361,523	38,972	400,495
Mules	206,967	16,679	223,646
Sheep	16,792,788	1,894,371	18,687,159
Goats	4,828,068	359,600	5,187,668
Asses	618,342	23,446	641,788
Swine	2,551,152	177,131	2,728,283
Hives	1,467,773	229,820	1,697,593

* The number of people in the hospitals, prisons, colleges, and ecclesiastical seminaries has not been determined. The same remark is applicable to the number of criminals,* smugglers, gypsies and persons without any means of subsistence. Their number has been vaguely estimated by M. Miñano at 127,345

The ecclesiastics amount to	149,696
The army and navy,	64,000
Inhabitants of Spain,	13,560,000

Thus the total population is equal to 13,901,041

* "Criminals condemned to the galleys."

† "Hospices"—*Hospicios*, almshouses, especially for decayed ecclesiastics.—P.

‡ The following is the table in the original:

Archevêques et évêques,	61
Chanoines,	2,363
Ecclesiastiques prebendés,	1,869
Curés de paroisses,	16,481
Vicaires,	4,929
Bénéficiers ordonnés majeurs,	17,411
Id. ordonnés mineurs,	9,088
Postulans (<i>demandantes</i>),	3,467
Ermites et pèlerins,	1,300
Dans les couvens, hommes,	61,327
Id. femmes,	31,400
Total,	149,696

Spanish Revenue.

	Pounds St.	Francia.
Customs	939,170	22,540,000
Tobacco	625,000	15,000,000
Salt	410,917	9,860,000
Stamps	137,900	3,310,000
Lottery	90,000	2,150,000
Tax on the population of Granada	8,750	210,000
<i>Lanzas</i> (contributions exacted from the grandees as an equivalent for the lances or horsemen which they furnished formerly to the crown)	19,170	460,000
<i>Cruzada</i> (ancient tax levied for the crusades)	197,087	4,730,000
<i>Excusado</i> (subsidy granted by the pope for the revenue of the clergy)	215,000	5,160,000
<i>Noveno</i> (ninth part of the tithes granted by the pope)	242,917	5,830,000
<i>Tercias</i> (two ninths of the tithes)	125,000	3,000,000
<i>Diezmo</i> (tax on the river fishings in Seville)	417	10,000
Half of the annats belonging to the secular clergy	9,325	225,000
<i>Casa de Aposento</i> (ancient tax claimed by the king's purveyors)	7,292	175,000
<i>Penas de Camera</i> (fines incurred after three appeals to the supreme council)	12,500	300,000
<i>Mesadas</i> , &c. (ecclesiastical dues and annats)	15,422	370,000
Posts, gunpowder, saltpetre and other products	1,320,000	31,670,000
Total	4,376,776	105,000,000
Amount of the national debt	150,000,000	4,000,000,000

Army.

Effective men, 50,000§

Navy.

Ships of the line,	10
Frigates,	16
Other vessels,	30
Men in the naval service,	14,000

The following table for 1787, is taken from Townsend's Travels in Spain, vol. 2. p. 213:

Parochial clergy, called <i>curas</i> ,	16,689
Assistants, called <i>tenientes curas</i> ,	5,771
Sacristans, or sextons,	10,873
<i>Acolitos</i> , to assist at the altar,	5,503
<i>Ordenados de patrimonio</i> , having a patrimony of three reals a day,	13,244
<i>Ordenados de menores</i> , with inferior ecclesiastical orders,	10,774
<i>Beneficiados</i> , or canons of cathedrals, and other beneficiaries,	23,692
Monks,	61,617
Nuns,	32,500
<i>Beatus</i> ,*	1,130
Syndics, to collect for the mendicants, †	4,127
Inquisitors,	2,705
Total,	188,625—P

* Women who wear a religious habit, and are engaged in works of charity.

† *Sindicos*, depositaries of the alms of some religious houses.

§ The army is organized for a force of 120,000 men, exclusive of the militia, which consists of 40,000. †

‡ The army consists of 65,530 men, including 4,200 guards, and is to be doubled in time of war. Hassel, Statistik, 1822.—P.

BOOK CXL.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—France.—Historical notice.

The influence of France may be compared to that which ancient Greece possessed over the civilized world; the French language has become the language of courts and ambassadors; the literature of the same people has been admired by the enlightened of every nation; since the revolution, French philosophers have contributed, perhaps more than those of any other country, to extend the limits of science, and French armies crowned with laurels, have dictated their laws to Europe. Those, who consider philosophically certain questions by which geography may be changed into a new science, must examine the causes on which the characters that distinguish a people from neighbouring nations, depend. They cannot, in the present instance, be attributed to climate, for the extreme degrees of cold or heat, that modify the physical and moral powers of the inhabitants, are not felt in France; neither can the causes be discovered in the inequalities of the soil, for there are no extensive plains or lofty chains of mountains, which by determining men to become husbandmen or shepherds, accelerate or retard the progress of civilization. The question, therefore, depends on other causes, and its solution is not without interest in the description of a country, whose inhabitants have enlightened Europe, planted the seeds of freedom in America, and overturned empires in their political commotions.

The population of France belongs to three different races: viz. the *Celtic*, which forms nearly four fifths of the inhabitants, the *Germanic* or the people in the ancient provinces of Flanders and Alsace, and in part of Lorraine, and lastly, the *Pelasgian*, diffused over the country near the Mediterranean, and in Corsica.^a The changes occasioned by civilization may modify, but cannot wholly destroy the character of a people. It is easy to discover the French of the present day in the description of the Celts, given by Cæsar, Strabo and other writers. Although they mixed with the Franks, their conquerors, the traits by which they were distinguished, have not been effaced. The *Celtæ-Galli* or Gauls were gay, frivolous, quick of apprehension, easily excited, prompt in forming their resolutions, brave in battle, attached to their country, and jealous of their freedom. Their frankness and impetuosity are so great, adds the Greek geographer, that each man thinks it incumbent on him to resent an injury offered to his neighbour.^b They speak often of their glorious deeds, says Cæsar,^c but from their natural inconstancy, they are presumptuous after success,

and dejected after defeat. The ancients describe them as ostentatious and fond of ornaments,^d affable to strangers, and practising hospitality; according to their laws, the man who murdered a stranger, was punished with death, while he who murdered a native, was only sent into exile. At a very remote period, they elected their own magistrates, limited the authority of their princes, and never granted subsidies until they had deliberated in their popular assemblies. Their politeness distinguished them from all the people, whom the Greeks and Romans comprehended under the name of barbarians. Such are the accounts left by the ancients of the Celts, and they are in some respects still applicable to the French. Thus, too, the difference which has been observed between the same people and the other inhabitants of Europe, may be perhaps explained. The Celts were indebted to their physical constitution for the qualities which rendered them to a certain degree susceptible of perfectibility; these qualities have been transmitted from generation to generation; the soil which they occupied, and which they still possess, has been rendered more productive by their labour, and so long as the progress of improvement continues, France is likely to be the most flourishing country in Europe.

The people of the Celtic race whom the ancients called *Galli* or *Valli*, were renowned for their conquests more than seven centuries before the epoch which has been assigned to the foundation of Rome. It is unnecessary to indicate the period of their first migrations; history has preserved but a confused remembrance of them. It is known that they made several invasions into Italy, and that the Romans, while in the height of their power, employed vast armies to subdue them. Sixty years of war and carnage were hardly sufficient to reduce their country into Roman provinces, which occupied nearly the same space that the kingdom of France does at present. The glory of terminating these expeditions was reserved for Cæsar, and it is from the writings of the same person that the Romans derived their knowledge concerning the different nations in that part of Gaul which they called Transalpine (*Gallia Transalpina*). When that general entered the country, it was inhabited by three principal tribes or nations: viz. the *Celtæ* and *Aquitani*, who, although they spoke distinct dialects, belonged evidently to the Celtic race, and the *Belgæ* of Germanic extraction, who inhabited the northern part of the country. Gaul was divided into four provinces by Augustus;^e Probus subdivided it into seven,^f Diocletian into

^a This division seems to have been derived not so much from ethnographical principles as from the physical character of the inhabitants.

^b Strabo, Book IV. ch. 4.

^c De Bello Gallico, Liber III.

^d Ammianus Marcellinus, Book LXV. chap. 13.

^e Belgium (*Gallia Belgica*), Celtic Gaul (*Gallia Celtica*), Aquitaine (*Aquitania*), and the Narbonnaise (*Gallia Narbonensis*).

^f Belgium, the first and second Germany, the Lyonnaise, the Viennoise, the Narbonnaise and Aquitaine

twelve,^a Valentinian into fourteen,^b and during the reign of Gratian, the number amounted to seventeen.^c We shall enumerate the inhabitants of the fifteen provinces which made up the present territory of France.^d

The First Narbonnaise (*Narbonensis Prima*), formed by Roussillon, the greater part of the county of Foix and Conserans, was inhabited by the *Sardones*, a people probably sprung from an Illyrian colony, and by the *Volcae*, divided into the eastern and western; the former were surnamed the *Aræcomici*, their lands extended to the banks of the Rhone; the latter or the *Tectosages*, a warlike people, carried their arms into Germany, and founded Ancyra in that district of Asia Minor, which was called Galatia from its Gallic inhabitants.

The Second Narbonnaise (*Narbonensis Secunda*), which comprehended the greater part of Provence, was inhabited by the *Tricorii*, a people mentioned by Livy in his account of Hannibal's expedition, by the *Saluvii* or *Salyes*, a tribe formidable to their neighbours, and also by the *Oxybii*, who distinguished themselves in the wars against the Romans.

The Maritime Alps (*Alpes Maritimæ*) contained part of Dauphiny, Provence and Piedmont. The *Caturiges*, who inhabited that part of the province included in France, disputed with Cæsar the passage of their mountains.

Novempopulania comprehended the territory of Gascony, Armagnac, Bearn and Lower Navarre. It was peopled by the *Boii*, whom Ausonius calls *Picci*, because their country abounded with pitch or resin, by the *Ausci* who inhabited Auch, by the *Bigerrones* in Bigorre and Bearn, who covered themselves in winter with the skins of animals, and lastly, by the *Tarbelli* and the *Tarusates*, who resisted Cæsar and Crassus.

The First Aquitaine (*Aquitania Prima*) was the most important province of Gaul; in it were comprehended Quercy, Rouergue, Auvergne, Bourbonnais, Marche, Limousin, Velai with Gevaudan and another portion of Languedoc, Berry, and a part of Poitou. It was peopled by the *Cadurci*, whose principal city was Cahors, by the *Arverni* or inhabitants of Auvergne, one of the most warlike nations of the Celtic race, by the *Lemovices* or Limousins, who raised an army of ten thousand men, and by the *Bituriges Cubi*, who possessed an extensive territory long before the invasion of Cæsar.

The Second Aquitaine (*Aquitania Secunda*) comprehended a part of Poitou, Saintonge, Angoumois, Perigord, Agenois and the rest of Guienne. The inhabitants were the *Pictones* or *Pictavi*, the *Santones* in the territories of Saintes, Cognac and Angouleme, the *Petrocorii* or ancestors of the Perigourds, the *Meduli* in the country of Medoc, and the *Bituriges Vivisci* or people of Bordelais.

The Viennoise (*Viennensis*) included part of Provence together with the county of Venaissin,^e part of Dauphiny together with the principality of Orange, part of Languedoc, and part of Savoy together with the territory of Geneva. The inhabitants were the *Anatili* on both banks of the Rhone, the *Cavares* and the *Allobroges* on the right bank of the same river, the *Vocontii*, a warlike people, included by Rome in the number of her allies, and lastly, the *Helvii*.

The Great Sequanaise (*Maxima Sequanorum*) was formed

by part of Burgundy, Franche-Comté and Bassigny, together with Bresse and a portion of Switzerland. All the French part of the same province was included in the territory of the *Sequani*, from which the Romans imported their best bacon.^f

The First Lyonnaise (*Lugdunensis Prima*) was made up of Lyonnais, Beaujolais, Forez, and a part of Burgundy, Nivernais, Franche-Comté and Champagne. It was inhabited by two powerful nations, namely, the *Ambarri*, who, during the reign of the Elder Tarquin, sent colonies into Italy, and the *Ædui*, the allies of the Romans before the invasion of Gaul by Cæsar; the latter were governed by a president or elective chief, who was not permitted to leave the territory of the republic.

The Second Lyonnaise (*Lugdunensis Secunda*) comprehended Normandy, French Vexin and the greater part of Perche. It contained nine different tribes, and a resemblance still subsists between their names and the names of different parts of the country. The *Caleti* inhabited the country of Caux; the *Ebuovices*, the territory of Evreux; the *Lexovii*, that of Lizieux; the *Saii*, that of Seez; the *Bajocasses*, that of Bayeux; the *Venelli*,^g that of Valogne; the *Abrincata*,^h that of Avranches; the *Viducasses*, the city of Vieux, now a small village near Caen; and the *Veliocasses*, Vexin.

The people of the Third Lyonnaise (*Lugdunensis Tertia*), were the *Redones* in the territory of Rennes, the *Veneti* in that of Vannes, a wealthy and commercial people, the *Namnetes* in that of Nantes, the *Arvi* on the banks of the Arve, a feeder of the Sarthe, the *Cenomani* in the country round Mans, the *Andecavi* in the territory of Angers, and the *Turones* in that of Tours. Thus it appears that the province was made up of Brittany, Maine, Anjou and Touraine.

As to the Fourth Lyonnaise (*Lugdunensis Quarta*), six different tribes were settled in Beauce, the Isle of France, Brie, a part of Champagne, Burgundy and Nivernais, and in Gatinais and Orleanais; these tribes were the *Carnutes* in Chartrain,ⁱ the *Parisii* round Paris, the *Meldi* in the territory of Meaux, the *Tricasses* in the neighbourhood of Troyes, the *Senones* who inhabited Sens and Auxerre, and sent armed colonies into Italy, and lastly, the *Aureliani* in the territory of Orleans.

The First Belgium (*Belgica Prima*) was formed by the dutchy of Luxemburg, and by part of the territory of Treves and the province of Gelders. It was partly inhabited by the *Treveri*, a people that have been already mentioned, and by the *Caresi*, of whom some account shall be given in the description of the Netherlands. The people in the French part of the province were the *Mediomatrici* who inhabited Messin,^k the *Verodunenses* in the country round Verdun, and the *Leuci* who possessed a considerable territory, including Bar, Toul and part of Lorraine.

The different tribes that occupied the Second Belgium (*Belgica Secunda*,) were the brave and proud *Nervi*, who inhabited Hainault, Cambresis, and part of the Netherlands; the *Morini*, an industrious people, who carried on a trade in linen, and who occupied part of Picardy and French Flanders; the *Atrebates*, whose name has some analogy with that of Artois; the *Ambiani* in the territory of Amiens, who

^a The first and second Belgium, the first and second Germany, the Great Sequanaise, the first and second Lyonnaise, the Narbonnaise, the Viennoise and Aquitaine, to which were added, the Greek Alps, comprehending part of Switzerland and Savoy, and the Maritime Alps, including part of Provence and the county of Nice.

^b By the subdivision of Aquitaine into three parts, namely, the first and second Aquitaine and Novempopulania.

^c By the division of the two Lyonnaise into four, and of the Narbonnaise into two.

^d The Greek Alps formed a part of Savoy; the second Germany will be described in the account of the Netherlands.

^e "Le Comtat Venaissin."

^f Strabo, Book IV. chap. 3. § 2

^g *Unelli*, D'Anv.

^h *Abrincatui*, D'Anv.

ⁱ "Le Pays Chartrain," the country of Chartres.

^k "Le Pays Messin," the country of Metz.

were renowned for their cavalry; the *Bellovaci*, who were settled in Beauvaisis; the *Silvanectes*, who possessed Valois or the country round Senlis; the *Suessiones*, a powerful people in Soissonnais and part of Champagne; the *Remi*, who inhabited the territory of Reims and Laon; and the *Catalauni*, who occupied the country round Chalons.

The First Germany (*Germania Prima*) extended along both banks of the Rhine; beyond the limits of the French part of the province, it was peopled by the *Treveri*, the *Nemetes*, the *Vangiones* and the *Tribocci*, which have been already mentioned in the account of the Bavarian circle of the Rhine; but part of the *Tribocci* were settled in the neighbourhood of Strasburg and Saverne, while the *Rauraci*, the allies of the Helvetii, inhabited the districts round Neuf-Brisach.

Different dialects were spoken by the tribes or nations that made up the Celtic race. Some persons amongst them, more learned than the rest, appear to have been acquainted with the Greek characters; it is probable, however, that the Veneti and other tribes called *Armorican*, because they lived near the sea,^a adopted the written characters of the Phœnicians in consequence of their commercial intercourse with that people. As to the Irish Celts, it is supposed that they made use of distinct characters. The only Celtic languages yet remaining, are the Gaelic still spoken in several parts of the British islands,^b and which is divided into several branches or dialects;^c the Cambrian^d or Celto-Belgic, traces of which may be discovered in Flanders and the kingdom of the Netherlands; and lastly, the *Breyzad* or Low Breton, spoken by the peasants in Brittany, of which there are not fewer than four dialects, namely, the *Leonard*, used in the neighbourhood of St. Pol de Leon, the *Treconian*^e spoken by the people of Treguier, the *Cornish*^f in the territory of Quimper Corentin, and the *Vannetan*^g in the territory of Vannes.^h

Celtic Gaul formed a vast federative state, consisting of petty republics, in which the governments were of two different classes; in some the chiefs were elected for a limited period; in others the office was held during life, and these magistrates assumed the name of kings. Matters of the greatest importance, and questions concerning peace or war, were agitated in the general assemblies formed by the deputies from these republics. The time in which they were held, was the beginning of spring, and every free man was obliged to repair to them, for it was the season not only of the most important civil, but of the most solemn religious festival. "In their assemblies," says Strabo,ⁱ "the Gauls observe a custom which is peculiar to them; if any one interrupts the person who is speaking, the usher of the assembly, holding a naked sword in his hand, orders him to be silent; if he continues, the orders are repeated a second and a third time, but if he still persists, his mantle is rent in several places."^k According to a Greek poet and geographer,^l a band of musicians assisted in their councils, and when the tumult of the speakers interrupted the deliberations, it was the business of the band to play such music as was likely to have some effect in allaying the passions.

^a From the Breton word *Armorik*, compounded of the preposition *ar*, on or above, and *morik*, a diminutive of *mor*, which signifies the sea.

^b See the account of England.

^c The Irish, the Highland Scotch, and the Manks.—P.

^d "*Kumbrë*."—The Welsh call themselves *Cymri* (pron. *Kymri*), and their language *Cymreg*. Adelong.—*Cymro*, *Cymro*, plur. *Cymry*, *Cymry*, a Welshman. *Cymruæg*, *Cymruæg*, the Welsh language. Owen's Welsh Diet.—P.

^e The Treconian (*Treconien*). Adelong.—P.

^f *Cornouaillier*.

^g "*Vanneteux*."

In the earliest ages, the people of the Celtic race were divided into many wandering tribes; at a later period they became stationary, but the desire of liberty made them avoid the enclosure of cities; their towns always open, consisted of cottages separated by gardens, and situated on the skirts of a wood, or the banks of a river. Agriculture was reserved for the slaves of both sexes; freemen devoted themselves exclusively to the profession of arms, and like the present Swiss, when they could not find employment in their own country, they enlisted in the service of a foreigner. They reared a great number of oxen, horses and sheep, and they lived on the milk and flesh of their cattle, and the produce of the chase. If Pliny may be believed, the same people, who adopted so readily the usages of civilized life, were *anthropophagi* before the arrival of the Romans in Gaul. The skulls of their enemies slain in battle, were girt with gold or silver, and served as drinking cups in their banquets; wine, hydromel, and beer sparkled on the board; they passed from one person to another, but they were never offered to the ignoble, or in other words, to those who had not distinguished themselves in an engagement, for in early times, among the Celts, as well as among every other barbarous people, titles of nobility were only granted to such as had shed the blood of their fellow-creatures. It has been said that the custom of duels was introduced into the country by the Franks; but the honour which the Celts attached to the profession of arms in the remotest ages, established amongst them the right of appeal to the sword, and a Celt was disgraced by refusing a challenge. A freeman was never seen in public without his arms, hence, without doubt, the custom, which the revolution has modified, of wearing a sword at the court and on occasions of ceremony. Long hair was considered a great ornament by both sexes; they stained their fair hair of a red colour by means of a particular unguent, in the same manner as their descendants render the hair white by the use of powder. The men wore long chains of gold round their necks, and loaded their arms and wrists with bracelets of the same metal. They rubbed their face with butter to make it shining, and the women used the foam of beer for the same purpose.

Polygamy was not permitted by the Celts. When a girl was marriageable, her parents invited all her suitors to a feast, and the first to whom she presented the washing vessel, was the person of her choice. In the marriage ceremony it was customary for the bride to address her husband in the following manner—You are my master and my husband; I am your servant. The husband had the power of life and death over her, and if a wife was convicted of having killed her husband, she was burned alive.^m Adultery was severely punished, and divorce was sanctioned by law. Public assemblies, marriages and funerals were so many occasions for sumptuous repasts, which usually terminated in dancing.

The Celts had no temples; they thought the greatness of the divine power, accorded ill with the smallness of human buildings; it was in the forests that they offered up their prayers to heaven; they there placed shapeless stones

^h There are only twenty-two letters in the *Breyzad*; among them may be remarked the nasal *n*, the *j*, the *ch* and the liquid *l* of the French, and the German *ch*. See the *Atlas Ethnographique* by Adrian Balbi.

ⁱ Book IV. ch. 4. § 1.

^k "—a piece is cut from his mantle large enough to render it of no further service." M. B. A correct translation of the Greek original. *τελευταίον δε αφαιρεί τῆ σαγῆ τσσαυτον ὅσον ἀρχήσον ποιήσαι τὸν λοιπὸν*. Strabo, Lib. IV.—P.

^l Scymnus of Chios; the period in which he lived, has not been ascertained. ^m Cæsar, de Bello Gallico, Book VI. chap. 19

near each other, so as to enclose a sort of sanctuary, or they erected a huge and isolated stone, around which their religious meetings were held. Although, according to Cæsar, they worshipped the same gods as the Romans, it is certain they considered it impious to represent the divinity under the form of a man. The isolated stones, called *menhirs* and *peulvans*, or a lofty and venerable oak, were the symbols which they adored. They admitted an infinite intelligence, the first cause of the harmony that prevails in the universe. *Teut* or *Teutates*, the Celtic Mercury, and the creator of the world; *Esus*, or their Mars; *Kernunos*, or their Bacchus; *Ogmios*, or their Hercules; and *Belen*, *Woden* and their other gods, were only secondary divinities. They rendered besides a sort of religious homage to the four elements, to springs, fountains and rivers, and to the sun and the moon. It was by the light of the moon that the priests made the multitude assemble in their ancient forests or in other places that excited the mind to superstition. Their priests were divided into different classes. The *Eubages* studied and interpreted nature;^a the bards or *Saronidæ* cultivated poetry, that their laws might be more readily committed to memory by the people; they also sung the exploits of heroes, and transmitted the history of great events to posterity; the *Vates* sacrificed the victims, and the druids were the sages who predicted futurity after examining the entrails.^b The latter, skilled in casuistry, directed the people in matters of conscience; versed in all the sciences, it was supposed they could cure all diseases. They administered justice, and they presided in the assemblies of the nation, and at the judicial trials called the judgments of God, in which the proofs by fire, iron and water, determined the guilt or innocence of the accused. In short, they possessed so much credit that no affair of any consequence, relative to public or domestic policy, could be undertaken without their advice. They led the people into the belief that guilty actions and sins offended the divinity, and that expiatory sacrifices were necessary to deliver the soul from impending wrath; hence the great number of animals, which were slain; but as man is the noblest of animals, they thought human blood most acceptable to the gods. The victims were generally chosen among the prisoners of war; but on occasions of public calamity, fanatics offered themselves voluntarily to be sacrificed, and died contented in leaving behind them an example of devotedness, and a great reputation for piety. The Celtic clergy made use of their religion to inculcate the practice of moral duties; they affirmed that the gates of paradise were closed against those who died by their own hands; thus suicides were numbered among the acts of the wicked. He who outraged public morals, was liable to be excommunicated, by which he was prevented from mixing in civil or religious assemblies, and was regarded as an object of abhorrence by his fellow citizens. The druids established fasts for political purposes; they enjoined their disciples to abstain from animal food in the middle of summer, because in that season of the year, vegetables were considered more wholesome.

The oak was held in veneration by the Celts, and the mistletoe, which is so seldom seen on the same tree, was probably for that very reason consecrated to the divinity. It was a sovereign remedy for every evil, and the water in which it was infused, rendered sterile animals fruitful.^c The

year was divided into lunar months, and on the first day of every year, the druids forming an imposing band, marched through the forests, cut the parasitical plant with a golden knife, collected it in a white *sagum* or tunic, and distributed it afterwards to the eager multitude. The ceremony was announced by the priests, who travelled through the country and summoned the inhabitants by repeating with a loud voice,—*aguillaneuf*;^d an exclamation which is still known in some of the provinces.

The druids acknowledged a chief to whom they submitted in all things, and who resided in Chartrain. None were admitted to the sacerdotal office until after a noviciate of twenty years. Their wives shared the veneration in which their husbands were held by the people; they were the judges of family quarrels, and their decisions could not be revoked; in the art of predicting futurity, they acquired a greater celebrity than the men; hence perhaps the origin of the popular superstitions concerning fairies, so long believed in different countries in Europe.

The Romans, aware of the advantages they might derive from the courage of the Celts, respected their municipal privileges; they were anxious, however, to civilize them, which was easily done by making them adopt their arts and laws. Provincial governments and the title of Roman citizen were conferred on the chiefs. The Celtic language was mixed with the Latin, particularly in central Gaul, which served as a communication with Germany; but it was necessary to deliver the people from the yoke of the druids. Cæsar,^e Tiberius^f and Claudius^g employed alternately persuasion and force to abolish the horrid practice of immolating human victims. The forests were destroyed; the people in time repaired to temples, and altars were erected to the gods of the *Capitol*. The religion of the conquerors was mingled with the ancient worship of the druids; and druidesses resided in the temples, where they officiated as priestesses, but they were permitted to remain one day in the year with their husbands,—a privilege they enjoyed while their ancient faith was in its purity; other persons who had taken vows of celibacy, performed in Gaul the offices of vestal virgins.

But druidism was not wholly abolished when the conquerors and the conquered embraced Christianity. It is probable that the first Christians who converted the Celts, sanctioned certain practices which might contribute to the benign influence of Christianity on a superstitious people; the same practices were approved by Rome, and adopted afterwards in different countries. The Christians had no difficulty in considering the druids magicians or men under the power of the devil; the persecuted priests and their persecuted partisans were unable to resist the zeal and knowledge of the new proselytes.

Half a century had hardly elapsed, after the Roman power had been divided into the western and eastern empires, when the Roman provinces were dismembered by the barbarous nations, that had been too long oppressed by the rulers of the world. The Burgundians and other people of the same origin, known by the name of Visigoths, founded about the beginning of the fifth century two contiguous kingdoms in the heart of Gaul. The former besides a part of Switzerland and Savoy, possessed Franche-Comté, Bresse, Dauphiny, Lyonnais, the greater portion of Nivernais, and the

^a Ammianus Marcellinus.
Pliny, Book XVI. chap. 44.

^b Diodorus Siculus, Book V.

^d Perhaps *Au gui l'an neuf*, to the mistletoe, it is the new year. Tr.

^e Lucan, Book II.

^f Pliny, Book XXXI. ch. 1.

^g Suetonius, ch. 26.

adjoining country, which from these inhabitants has been called Burgundy. The banks of the Loire were the northern limits of the Visigoths; they ruled over the centre and the south of France, including Provence, the county of Nice, and even a part of Spain.^a Numerous hordes that issued from Germany, settled in the Netherlands; they founded some years afterwards, under the command of Pharamond, a petty kingdom, of which the southern limit may be represented by a line drawn from the mouth of the Somme through Amiens and Rethel, including Treves with part of its territory, and terminating on the left bank of the Rhine, a short way below Mayence.^b Sixty years afterwards, the same Franks, under the conduct of king Clodovech or Clovis, destroyed the remains of the Roman power in Gaul, and made themselves masters of all the country between the last mentioned boundary and the limits of the Visigothic and Burgundian kingdoms. At a later period, they crossed the Rhine, extended their conquests into Germany, and left colonies in that part of the country which has been since called Franconia.

Gaul was thus divided during twenty years; a third part of the surface was occupied by the Franks, rather the protectors than the oppressors of the Gauls, who were confounded with the Romans, because they had adopted their manners and laws. The victors were distinguished by their appearance, their language and their dress. The Franks wore short boots; the arms and the rest of the leg were bare; the body was covered with a narrow and short tunic, bound by a girdle; their long and fair hair descended below their shoulders.^c Their weapons were a long sword, a *francisca* or two-edged hatchet,^d several javelins divided near the extremity into three branches, representing what the French have since termed a *fleur de lys*, and lastly, a small buckler which they used with great address. The chiefs abolished most of the imposts; they allowed the ancient inhabitants to retain their customs and magistrates, reserving to themselves the right of appointing dukes over the provinces, counts over the towns, and viscounts over the burghs and villages; but, in the councils of the prince, the Gauls preserved that credit and ascendancy, which are the consequences of superior knowledge.^e The proprietors were compelled to share their land with the invaders, but the peasants and the working classes remained in a state of slavery. The slaves of the king were distinguished from the slaves of the Franks and the Gauls; among the latter, many possessed slaves, because the Gallic nobility had been preserved. The Burgundians and the Goths, more barbarous than the Franks, clothed themselves with the skins of wild beasts. The first might be discovered by a round visage, small and sunk eyes, broad shoulders and a deep chest. The second were distinguished by a darker complexion, aquiline nose, lively eyes, full black beard, and long plaited hair.^f Their barbarity or rudeness rendered the Gauls impatient of their yoke, and the same cause contributed, in a great degree, to the destruction of their monarchies. The ambition of Clovis soon reduced the Visigoths to the necessity of migrating into Spain. After the death of that prince, his sons divided France into four kingdoms, of which Paris, Orleans, Soissons

and Metz, were the capitals. Additional territory was afterwards acquired, and by succession, conquest, usurpation, or in consequence of murders and other crimes, the different parts of France and the kingdom of Burgundy were united in the seventh century under a single head. A century afterwards, France was governed during some years by Charlemagne and his brother Carloman, but the first became sole master, and rendered it powerful by his conquests.

France has never been so extensive and powerful as it was under Charlemagne; it was then divided into two parts, the western and the eastern. The first comprehended Provence, *Gothia* or *Septimania*, now Languedoc, *Vasconia* or Gascony, Aquitaine, *Burgundia* or Burgundy, *Neustria*, including Brittany, Normandy and Flanders, and lastly *Austrasia*, formed by all the country situated between the mouth of the Rhine and Jura. The countries on the south and on the north of the Alps, and the territory extending from the right bank of the Rhine to the mountains of Bohemia, and the banks of the Elbe, made up eastern France. In other words, Charlemagne reigned over the greater part of Italy, and over Switzerland, Bavaria, Hesse, Saxony and Friesland. In the countries extending between the banks of the Drave and the Danube, and those of the Elbe, several nations were also tributary to the same monarch.

The weight of such an empire was too great for his successor. Louis the Debonnaire, a weak father and a feeble prince, spent his time in contending against his revolted children, and died after having divided amongst them a crown which he was unworthy to wear. France was governed during a century by the princes of the same race, but the kingly power was weakened by the abuses of the feudal system; and when Hugh Capet took possession of the throne in the year 987, he was merely the first baron in the kingdom, and reigned only over Picardy, the Isle of France and Orleanais. The policy of that prince and his successors was to increase the power of the crown by humbling and degrading the nobility. Berry was purchased in 1100 by Philip the First from the viscount Eudes Arpin; and king John erected it into a duchy, which became the appanage of one of the sons of France. Louis the Gross made no acquisitions or conquests, but by liberating the towns,^g he raised a barrier against the encroachments of the feudal lords. In 1202, Philip Augustus wrested Touraine from John, king of England,^h who had succeeded to it as the descendant of its counts; and in the following year, the same Philip made himself master of Normandy, which, from the time of Charles the Simple, had been ceded in perpetuity to Rollo and his Norwegians. Amaury de Montfort gave up Languedoc to Louis the Eighth, and the cession was ratified by a treaty made with St. Louis in 1228. Jane of Navarre, by her marriage with Philip the Fair in 1284, united the county of Champagne, which she had received as her dowry, to the dominions of her husband. In 1307, the inhabitants of Lyonnais having gained their freedom, compelled their archbishop to acknowledge the authority of the same king.

Dauphiny, which derived its name from Guy the Eighth,

^a The kingdom of the Visigoths was founded by Ataulphus in 411, and that of the Burgundians by Gunderic in 413.

^b It is generally admitted that the kingdom of the Franks was founded in the year 420.

^c Sidonius Apollinaris, Book IV. epistle 20.

^d "A *francisque*, or two-edged battle-axe."

^e Gregory of Tours, Books III. VI. VII. VIII. and IX.

VOL. III.—NO. 48 25

^f Sidonius Apollinaris, Panegyrics of Avitus and Anthemius.

^g "Communes"—municipalities. Charters granting municipal rights may be found in France A. D. 974, long before the twelfth century and the reign of Louis VI. or the Gross, the period usually understood as the era of the rise of cities. Rankin's Hist. of France, Vol. III. p. 255.—P.

^h "Jean Sans-Terre"—John Lackland.

the bravest of his princes, surnamed the Dauphin, because he wore on his helmet the figure of a dolphin, was ceded to Philip of Valois in 1349, on condition that the eldest sons of the French kings should assume the title of Dauphins, and also that the country should form a separate sovereignty, and never be incorporated with the kingdom. Charles the Fifth took Poitou, Aunis, Saintonge and Limousin from the English. Charles the Seventh, in consequence of his victories over the English, added to his dominions, in 1453, the greater part of Guienne and Gascony. Louis the Eleventh humbled the power of the great, and had the good fortune to acquire Maine and Anjou by inheritance, conquests made by Philip Augustus, but more than once detached from the crown, and conferred on princes of the blood. The same monarch seized the duchy of Burgundy, declaring himself the lawful heir, although there existed at the time a duke of Burgundy, Nevers and Rethel. It was stated however in letters patent, that the duchy had been united to France with the free will of the states on the following conditions, namely, that the people were not to be deprived of their natural judges, that no subsidy was to be imposed without the consent of the three orders, and that the taxes, which the people had hitherto paid on wine and the other products of the province, were to be abolished. The same king took possession of Provence, having proved by several witnesses that Charles of Anjou had made him his heir. The inhabitants received the same privileges as those which had been granted to Burgundy. Since that period, the French kings have on several occasions styled themselves counts of Provence. Francis the First availed himself of the rights which he had acquired by the revolt of the Constable Bourbon, and in 1527 obtained Auvergne, Bourbonnais and Marche, which belonged to the prince. Some years afterwards, Brittany, of which the inheritance had devolved on his son Francis, was united to the kingdom. In consequence of this junction, Brittany was exempt under his successors from most taxes, being merely subject to a voluntary impost voted by its states. The same gallant and chivalrous king was a poet and friend of the fine arts; flattery has designated him as the protector of letters, although he established the censorship; he was not considered cruel, although by his presence he added the weight of his authority to the punishments of the inquisition. In the same reign the assemblies of the notables were substituted for the states-general,^b but the crown derived little advantage from the change, for notions of civil and religious liberty were then gaining force; they proved the harbingers of political commotions, and served as instruments for the ambitious and discontented to excite the people.

The corruption of the court and nobility under Henry the Second, Francis the Second and Charles the Ninth, were favourable to the reformation. The principles of the new religion accorded well with the growing desire for knowledge, but the question became a political one, and the royal party confounded the reformers and their partisans with the opponents of absolute power. The massacre of St. Bartholomew, considered an act of political wisdom by Catharine de Medicis and her son, was devised and executed to rid royalty of its enemies. But the designs of the League

^a "In their letters addressed to the province."

^b The States-general consisted of deputies chosen by the three estates, namely, the nobility, the clergy, and the people. The assemblies of the Notables were formed by a number of persons from all parts of the kingdom, chiefly selected from the higher orders of the state by the king himself. Ed. Encyc.—P.

assumed a very different appearance during the reign of Henry the Third, for it appeared to be the chief object of the party to put the crown of France on the head of a Spanish prince. Henry the Fourth, whom the catholic chiefs held in execration, ascended the throne, and added to the kingdom all that then remained of the dominions of his fathers, or Bearn, the county of Foix and part of Gascony. France during the reign of Louis the Thirteenth was twice agitated by civil wars; but the policy of Richelieu saved the kingdom, and his master gained new laurels by the conquest of Artois in 1640, and of Roussillon in 1642.

The reign of Louis the Fourteenth contributed to the aggrandisement of France; that monarch obtained Nivernais by the total extinction of the feudal system; he took Flanders by conquest in 1667, and some years afterwards made himself master of Franche-Comté; lastly, by a treaty with the emperor of Germany in 1697, the cession of Alsace was ratified. Under Louis the Fifteenth, Lorraine, formerly a portion of the states belonging to Lothaire,^c of whom it bears the name, was added to the kingdom; it was shortly afterwards ceded to Stanislaus, king of Poland,^d on condition that it should be restored to the crown after his death, an event which happened in 1766. The republic of Genoa gave up Corsica for a sum of money two years afterwards.

Such were the extent and importance of the French territory, during the latter part of the long and peaceful reign of Louis the Fifteenth; and the king, whose death was not regretted by the nation, left to his successor the difficult task of realizing the expectations which his virtues seemed to promise. The well informed classes were able to appreciate the institutions which they desired, and the king consented to adopt them. But it was necessary to introduce reforms into the finances, and the middling classes were more jealous than ever of the privileges of the nobility. The states-general were no sooner convoked than their respective interests gave rise to two parties; the deputies of the third estate, full of confidence in public opinion, swore never to separate until they had framed a constitution. It was accepted by Louis the Sixteenth, and the pope ceded Avignon and the county of Venaisin to France. The kingdom having been divided into eighty-three departments, the assembly was dissolved.

It was succeeded by the legislative assembly, composed of men who did not understand the advantages of a representative system, and who allowed themselves to be ruled by a party. The acts of the sovereign were purposely misrepresented, and the people dreamed of a republic. A new era soon commenced, marked by a political fanaticism, of which history affords no other example, and by crimes, of which the recital fills the mind with horror. Louis the Sixteenth yielded to the storm, and died with the resignation and tranquillity of a virtuous man. France was shortly afterwards governed by a handful of persons, who, under the name of equality, divided the inhabitants into classes, under the name of liberty, established the most sanguinary despotism, under the name of fraternity, sought associates among the dregs of the people, and under the name of reason, abolished Christianity, and substituted the ceremonies of pagan mythology. Anarchy reigned within, but France repelled

^c Grandson of Louis the Debonnaire. The country was first called *Regnum Lotharii*, then *Lotharingia*, afterwards *Loherrene*, *Lorraine*, and lastly *Lorraine*.

^d Lorraine, which had been previously considered as a duchy belonging to the empire of Germany, was conquered by the French in 1733, and in 1736 ceded to Stanislaus, king of Poland.—P.

foreign armies, while the different parties in the national convention, proscribed, banished and massacred each other. The government was overturned, and the management of affairs committed to two councils and five directors; if they possessed great influence, both abroad and at home, it was owing to the victories of the French. The principality of Montbelliard was united to the republic in 1796, and the free territory of Mulhausen in 1798. But after the directory had existed five years, it was destroyed by the efforts of a few, at the head of whom was the young general, who had distinguished himself in Italy and on the plains of Egypt. Bonaparte was named first consul; he put an end to factions, acquired new glory in Italy, and dictated conditions of peace to the emperor of Germany.

The treaty signed at Luneville on the ninth of February 1801, confirmed France in the possession of additional conquests. The course of the Rhine from Wissemburg to the place where it is called the Waal, served as a limit to the republic, and beyond the same point, Belgium, Antwerp and Flushing were included within the northern frontiers. The same rich territory formed the twelve departments of Mont-Tonnerre, the Sarre, Forêts,^a the Rhine and Moselle, the Sambre and Meuse, the Ourthe, the Roer, the Lower Meuse, Jemappes, the Dyle, Deux-Nethes^b and the Scheldt. Porentruy on the east of the ancient boundaries was united to the department of the Upper Rhine. The country round Geneva and Chambéry formed the departments of Lemnan and Mont-Blanc, and the county of Nice was changed into the department of the Maritime Alps. By the treaty of Amiens, peace was restored to Europe on the twenty-seventh of March in the following year, and England gave up the French colonies which she had seized during the preceding wars.

In the year 1804, Napoleon converted the laurels of Montenotte, Arcole, Rivoli and Marengo, into an imperial diadem, and received in Paris, from the hand of the sovereign pontiff, the unction with which kings are consecrated, and, as if to heighten the splendour of a title, which added nothing to his glory or his power, the anniversary of his coronation, in the following year, was the day in which he gained a very memorable victory, by defeating the Austrian and Russian armies on the plains of Austerlitz; the treaty of Presburg was the result of the campaign, and by that treaty Prussia ceded to Napoleon all its rights to the dutchy of Cleves, together with the country of Neufchatel and Vallengin and the territory of Anspach, the last of which was exchanged for the dutchy of Berg with Bavaria, which was at the same time erected into a kingdom. The emperor of Austria gave up Dalmatia and the Venetian states, and relinquished to him the title of king of Italy. Piedmont and Liguria were added to France, and changed into the departments of the Doria, the Sesia, Marengo, the Po, the Stura and Montenotte.

The importance of the empire was still farther increased, when its chief became the protector of the German and

Swiss confederations. A new rupture, followed by new victories, changed again the state of Europe; the battles of Jena and Friedland brought about the treaty of Tilsit,^c in consequence of which the confederation of the Rhine was more than doubled in importance, and France obtained possession of the Ionian islands. In the following years, Kehl, Cassel and Wesel on the right bank of the Rhine were added to the departments on the left, and the grand dutchy of Tuscany, the dutchies of Parma and Placentia, the territories of Spoleto and Rome, the Valais, Holland, Friesland, Hanover, the bishoprick of Munster, the county of Oldenburg, and the possessions attached to the free towns of Bremen, Hamburg and Lubeck, were transformed into French departments.

Napoleon ruled over the greater part of Europe; when emperor, he changed kingdoms into republics, and when emperor, republics were changed into kingdoms; he founded monarchies in Germany; twice he spared the crown of Prussia, but lavished the best blood and the treasures of the empire to place his brother on the throne of Spain. Having lost the best army in the world on the frozen plains of Russia, and been abandoned by his allies on the field of battle, he made a glorious resistance in France against the combined efforts of Europe. On the 31st of March 1814, his capital was occupied by the foreigners whom he had often vanquished. Compelled to abdicate, he retired to the island of Elba, leaving to the ancient family of the Bourbons a kingdom which had been confined by treaties within its former limits. The territories of Montbelliard and Mulhausen were all that France retained of her republican conquests.

The institutions, for which the French were indebted to the wisdom of Louis the Eighteenth, made them forget the disgrace of a foreign occupation, but the reports of the disaffected were believed and circulated through every part of the kingdom; Napoleon, availing himself of the general discontent, landed at Frejus on the 1st of March 1815, and entered Paris along with the troops that were sent to take him prisoner. He immediately levied an army to oppose the attempts of foreign princes, gained the victory of Ligny, and was defeated the next day on the plains of Waterloo.^d Having abdicated in favour of his son, he entrusted himself to the generosity of the English government; and the man who at one time thought the world too small for his ambition, was banished to an arid and volcanic rock in the midst of the ocean.

France lost a territory of twenty square leagues in extent, which had been fortified by Louis the Fourteenth;^e it paid to the foreigners whom it maintained during five years, an indemnity of 700,000,000 francs, or nearly L.29,200,000; yet by means of a good government and wise institutions, it has recovered from its calamities, and resumed the rank which it held among the kingdoms of Europe.^f

According to its present limits, France extends from seven degrees nine minutes, to the west of the meridian of Paris, to five degrees fifty-six minutes, to the east of the same

popular basis, and its nearer adaptation to the principles of liberty. The form of monarchy is retained, but its principle may be considered as essentially abandoned. The king no longer rules by his own right, but by the will of the people; he is no longer a sovereign *jure divino*, but a citizen king, holding his power from a grant of the national representatives. So the charter is no longer a gift of the king to the people, but a constitution established by the latter, and simply sworn to by the king. These are great points gained; and if France confines herself to her own internal consolidation and improvement, and can avoid the encroachments of administrative power on the one hand, and the tumults of popular anarchy on the other, she may become what England has been, in theory, since the revolution of 1688,—a monarchical republic.—P. (Dec. 1830.)

^a "Les Forêts"—The department of the Forests, including the greater part of the grand dutchy of Luxemburg.—P.

^b The Two Nethe—so called from two small rivers of that name (the Great and the Little Nethe) in the territory of Antwerp.

^c It was signed on the 7th of July 1807.

^d The battle of Ligny was fought on the 16th of June, and that of Waterloo on the 18th.—P.

^e The territory of Saar-Louis, annexed to the Rhenish possessions of Prussia.—P.

^f The recent revolution (July 27-29, 1830) has given a new turn to affairs in France. The immediate effects of the revolution have been the change of dynasty from the elder branch of the Bourbons to the branch of Orleans, the establishment of the charter on a new and

meridian, and from forty-two degrees twenty minutes to fifty-one degrees five minutes of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by a part of the Channel and the Straits of Calais, the kingdom of the Netherlands, the grand dutchy of Luxemburg, the Prussian provinces on the Lower Rhine, and the Bavarian circle of the Rhine; on the east by the grand dutchy of Baden, Switzerland and the Sardinian States; on the south by the Mediterranean and Spain; and on the west by the Atlantic ocean and a different part of the Channel.

The greatest dimensions of its frontiers may be determined by two lines, the one drawn in the direction of north-west to south-east from the most western point on the coast of Brest to Antibes, forming an extent of $239\frac{1}{2}$ leagues,^a and the other drawn from Givet in the Ardennes to Mount Huromba in the Pyrenees, to the south-east of St. Jean Pied de Port, being about 208 leagues in length. The greatest breadth of the kingdom is about 206 leagues from Kersaint in the department of Finisterre to the confluence of the Lauter and the Rhine in the department of the Lower Rhine. The extent of the coasts, including their sinuosities, has been calculated at 490 leagues.^b The total superficies, including that of Corsica, amounts to 26,739 square leagues. The population about the beginning of the year 1827, was equal to 31,820,000 souls, or on an average to more than 1191 individuals for every square league. Although the population has considerably increased since the revolution, for in the year 1790, the same surface contained only about 25,000,000 inhabitants, and, in 1814, the period of the restoration, 28,500,000, it is not less certain that France might be much more populous. Thus if two departments be taken, forming nearly the two extremes, namely, that of the North which contains 3,403 inhabitants for every square league, and that of the Lower Alps, which contains only 415, the mean term would be 1714 individuals, and if such were the average number of inhabitants for every square league in the kingdom, the total population of France would amount to 45,000,000. The fruitfulness of the soil cannot be denied, but before so great a number of inhabitants can be maintained, agriculture must be much improved, the different branches of industry must be extended, and new sources of wealth created.

Corsica, the third largest island in the Mediterranean, possesses within itself the elements of prosperity which may one day render it the finest of the French colonies. It is equal in surface to 495 geographical square leagues.^c

The history of the island from the remotest ages to the period when it was united to France, forms only a distressing picture of war, bloodshed and revolt. Herodotus affirms that it was first inhabited by the Phœnicians, who gave it the name of *Collista*; before that period it was called *The-*

^a Twenty-five of these leagues are equal to a degree.

^b Their extent, exclusively and inclusively of their sinuosities, may be seen by the following table:

	Straight line.	Sinuosities.
Coasts of the Mediterranean,	85 leagues.	120 leagues.
Atlantic,	145 "	195 "
Channel,	135 "	175 "
	365 "	490 "

^c It is situated between $41^{\circ} 17'$ and 43° N. lat. and between $6^{\circ} 12'$ and $7^{\circ} 12'$ E. long. from Paris.

^d Herodotus, Book IV. ch. 147.

^e There appears to be a great degree of confusion in the above passage. The passage quoted from Herodotus refers only to the island of Thera in the Archipelago. He simply states that the island took its name of Thera from Theras; that it was previously called *Collista** (not *Collista*;) and that it had been occupied by a colony of Phœnicians

* Καλλιστη.

rapne. It was afterwards peopled by a colony of Lacedæmonians or, according to Seneca, of Phocæans, who called it *Thera* from Theras, the name of their chief.^d Owing to the frequent communications between the islanders and the Greeks, it received from the latter the names of *Cyros*, *Cermeatis* and *Corsis*;^e but the Romans having taken it from the Carthaginians, styled it *Corsica*, a name of which the origin is uncertain.

The characters which the ancients have left us of the inhabitants are apparently contradictory. Strabo describes them as living by plunder, and as more savage than wild beasts. "If a Roman general," he adds, "advances into the interior, takes some forts, and brings a certain number of slaves to Rome, their ferocity and stupidity afford a singular spectacle. They consider it either not worth their while to live, or they remain in a state of complete apathy and indifference. However small the price may be for which they are sold, their masters soon discover that they have paid too much for them." But, as the annotator on Strabo^f remarks, Diodorus Siculus bears witness to the contrary. According to that writer, the Corsican slaves are the best servants of any; they are from habit singularly clean.^h Their aversion to their conquerors has tended to preserve the manners of their ancestors. They are still sober, brave, hospitable and enthusiastic in their love of freedom. They may be distinguished by lively eyes, a stature about the middle size, and a dark complexion.

Corsica was added to the dominions of the Goths after the fall of the Roman empire; but the inhabitants neither lapsed into the barbarism of their masters, nor submitted to the feudal system which they established. The effects of the conquest were battles, murders and crimes of which history has preserved a confused remembrance. The Goths were succeeded in the eighth century by the Arabs and Saracens, who remained but a short time in the island. It was reserved for the rising republic of Genoa to impose a cruel and tyrannical yoke on the people, which lasted, with many interruptions, during a period of nine centuries. In the same period the people experienced all the vicissitudes that result from resistance and submission; at one time asserting their independence, at another yielding to their oppressors. Rome attempted the conquest of the island; the Pisans took it from their rivals during the eleventh century, but in the twelfth, the latter gained it anew. In the course of the thirteenth century it was nearly taken by the Pisans, and during the fifteenth by Alphonso the Fifth, king of Arragon. Genoa ceded it in 1465, and took it back shortly afterwards from the duke of Milan. In 1553, Henry the Second assisted the Corsicans, and freed them from the Genoese; but six years after their deliverance, the island was restored to the

left by Cadmus, before it was settled by the Lacedæmonians under Theras. These statements of Herodotus are partly confirmed by Strabo. On the contrary, Seneca simply states, in which he is confirmed by Diodorus (Lib. V.), that Corsica was settled by a colony of Phocæans (Epigramm. super exilio, Ep. l. v. 1.) and that the Greeks from Phocæa who founded Marseilles first settled in the island (De Consolat. cap. 8.) He farther states in the same place, that the earlier history of the island was involved in the darkness of antiquity. *Therapne* was the name of a town in ancient Crete. (Pliny.)—P.

^f Strabo, Book V. ch. 4. § 5.

^g M. Gosselin.

^h "The Corsican slaves, says Diodorus, are better than all others for useful service, for which they are by nature peculiarly adapted." This conveys the correct sense of the Greek original, in which not a word is said of their cleanliness. "Ταδε ανθρωποτα κυρια διαφερει δοκει τωι αλλωι διωλιω εις τας κατα τον βιων χειρας, φυσικης ταυτης της ιδιοτητος παρακολουθησης."—P.

ⁱ Diodorus Siculus, Book V. § 13.

republic by the treaty of Chateau-Cambresis. Promises of assistance were offered, but never fulfilled, and the inhabitants, almost reduced to despair, had recourse to revolt in 1564. Men were not wanting, who could organise and direct insurgents, but none were found capable of liberating their country. Tranquillity was restored each time Genoa promised to abolish their grievances, but when she resumed her authority, her promises were broken. While the different parties against the Genoese were divided on the choice of their leader, a German baron, Theodore Von Neuhof, landed in the island, offered his services to the insurgents, and gained so great an ascendancy over them, that he was proclaimed king. Without talent as a general, without energy as a monarch, he was unable to disperse the Genoese, or to unite the factions which enfeebled his ephemeral kingdom. Twice he sought in foreign countries resources and supplies, which he could not find at home, and during his absence, an auxiliary army furnished to Genoa by France, put an end to the revolt. The French had hardly left the island before a new insurrection broke out, and king Theodore returned in 1741. Eight years afterwards the French

conquered Corsica, and restored it to the Genoese, but the latter found a formidable enemy in Pascal Paoli. It was not enough that he repelled the oppressors; he became the liberator and lawgiver of his country. Deputies were sent by him to the principal courts of Europe, announcing that the Corsicans, no longer submitting to the treachery of Genoa, had proclaimed their independence. The republic of Genoa ceded in 1768, the sovereignty of the island to France. The people did not confound in their hatred the Genoese and the French; many submitted voluntarily, and the independent party was annihilated after a single campaign. The efforts and genius of Paoli were employed in vain; he left his country, and found an asylum in England. An unforeseen event called him from his retirement; the French revolution having commenced, he repaired again to the island, and with the assistance of the English repelled the French. Paoli intended to found a republic, when the king of Great Britain was proclaimed sovereign of Corsica; but the inhabitants were mistrustful of the English, and an easy victory freed them from British supremacy.

BOOK CXLI.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Physical Geography of France.

THE different sciences of which the object is to extend our knowledge of nature, have thrown additional light on geography. Physical geography, a new department of science, possessing many attractions, has thus been created. In its application to France, it indicates the connexion of the different chains of mountains, the rivers that rise from them, the fertility or barrenness of the soil, the different windings of the coasts, the fish that are found in the seas and rivers, and the animals indigenous to the mountains and plains. The science of geology tends to illustrate physical geography; descending into the depths of the earth, it reveals the nature of the strata beneath the surface, and the mineral riches contained in them. It may be necessary, therefore, to advert to some elementary principles of geology, which are no longer contested, and to describe in a few words the formation of the different deposits comprehended within the limits of France, and the volcanic convulsions of which it has been the theatre.

The northern declivities of a part of the Pyrenees, and the western of the Alps, form a portion of the southern and eastern boundaries of the kingdom. It is obvious that the other mountains in France form, together with those last mentioned, part of the summit line, which divides Europe into two great declivities. The Pyrenees unite with the Cevennes, and the Cevennes with the Vosges, while the latter meet Jura on the south, and form the Ardennes on the north. In the present state of geographical science, in order to determine the points of junction or separation between different mountains, it is necessary to determine the nature and formation of the rocks which compose them; and as the same remark is equally applicable to their boundaries and ramifications, the study of mineralogy becomes indispensably necessary to all those who do not confine their inquiries to the systems of ancient geographers, or to political and arbitrary divisions ever liable to change.

According to this method, the mountains in the interior of France may be designated the *Franco-Celtic group*. It belongs to the vast Alpine range, and consists of two principal chains, namely, the *Ceveno-Vosgian* and the *Armorican*. The first, separated from the Pyrenees by the valley in which is situated the canal of Languedoc, is formed on the south by the Black Mountains, the Espinouse, the Garri-guen and the Cevennes proper. A branch called the Levezon stretches towards the south-west from Mount Lozere in the Cevennes, while the mountains of Aubrac extend to-

wards the north-west. In the same direction, the mountains of Margeride connect the Cevennes with the Cantal and Mont-Dor,^a the last of which includes the Puy de Saucy, the highest summit in central France. A long but not a very high chain passes from these two branches to the Loire, in which the loftiest points are Mount Olouze, Mount Jurgean^b and the heights of Gatine. A much shorter chain, situated between Mount Lozere and the Mezen,^c formed by the mountains of Forez and those of La Made, stretches northwards to the banks of the Loire. The Mezen, the Pilat,^d the mountains of Charolais, and the Cote d'Or, together with Mounts Moresot and Tasselot, the plateau of Langres, and the Faucilles, form the connecting link between the Cevennes and the Vosges. The heights of Morvan extend towards the north-west near the banks of the Ouche, and terminate in low hills at the sources of the Vernisson. The Vosges, which are separated on the south-east from the chain of Jura only by a valley now traversed by the canal of Monsieur, extend on the north to the banks of the Rhine. Branches of the same range extend towards the north-west near the sources of the Moselle, and form different ridges, covered with the thick woods of the Ardennes. They are divided anew into two other branches near the sources of the Oise, one of which terminates at the Straits of Calais, and the other near the coasts of the Channel. It appears from their geological composition and other circumstances which shall be afterwards mentioned, that the various divisions of the Cevennes and the Vosges are only different parts of a single chain.

The Armorican chain consists of four divisions, which extend in different directions. It commences on the western coasts of ancient Brittany, where it divides itself into two branches known by the names of the mountains of Arree and the Black Mountains; the former are situated on the north of the Aulne, and the latter on the south of the same river. The Menez mountains extend eastwards, and a series of hills beginning near the sources of the Vilaine, runs towards the south, and, but for the course of the Loire, would join a part of the preceding chain. The northern extremity of one branch forms Cape La Hague; another on the east stretches to the heights of Beauce, which are separated by the valley of the Vernisson from the mountains of Morvan. It is thus that the two chains may be considered as forming but a single group.

France may be divided into fifteen basins, viz. four principal basins, one German, two Belgian, and eight connected in the text, which may be considered a translation of *Mons Duranius*.

^a Mont-Dor, which Sidonius Apollinaris calls *Mons Duranius*, is generally written Mont-d'Or, as if its Latin name had been *Mons Aureus*. Ramond proposed to call it Mont-Dore, after the name of the river which rises from it; but as the same river is called the Dordogne after its junction with the Dogne, we have adopted the name

^b Odouze and Jargean, p. 879.

^c Mezin, p. 898, 900.

^d So called from the Latin word *Pileatus*, because its summit is often covered with a cap of clouds.

with the coasts. The basin of the Garonne is formed by the Pyrenees on the south, the Cevennes on the east, and the Cantal, together with Mounts Odouze, Jargean and Beron, on the north. The Gironde discharges all its waters into the ocean. The Garonne, of which the name is a translation of the Latin word *Garumna* or *Varumna*, has its source in the valley of Aran in the Pyrenees. The Gers and the Save, which descend from the same mountains, are the only feeders of any consequence on its left bank; but on the right, it receives the Arriege,^a the *Auriger* of the ancients, and the Pactolus of Gaul,^b the Tarn, enlarged by the Aveyron, the Lot by the Truyere and the Celle, and lastly, the Dordogne, which rising from Mont-Dor, is fed by the waters of the Cere, the Vezere and the Isle. The Garonne receives the name of the Gironde after its junction with the Dordogne. The tide is perceptible in the river at thirty leagues from its mouth; the length of its course is about two hundred and fifty miles.^c Rafts and timber are floated down the stream from a place about two leagues above the small town of St. Beat, and it becomes navigable at Cazerès in the department of the Upper Garonne. A number of islands and sandbanks below Ambès,^d where it joins the Dordogne, render the navigation dangerous. The banks are bordered by heaths or downs at no great distance from its mouth, and the breadth of the river exceeds seven miles,^e but it becomes gradually narrower, and enters the ocean by a passage little more than two miles^f in width.

The basin of the Rhone, bounded on the north by Jura, on the west by the chain formed by Mount Pilat, Mount Mezen, the mountains of Saone^g and the Cevennes, and on the east by several mountains which may be considered the counterforts^h of the Alps, extends on the north to the Vosges, while its waters are discharged on the south into the Mediterranean. The Rhone, the *Rhodanus* of the ancients, rises from beneath the glaciers of Mount Furca, and enters France at some leagues to the east of St. Dizier. It is one of the most rapid rivers in Europe; the declivity has been estimated at thirty-three feet in each league.ⁱ The principal feeders on the right bank are the Ain, the Saone, the Ardeche and the Gard; it receives on the left, the Isere, the Drome, the Aigues and the Durance, the last of which rises at the base of Mount Genevre. The Rhone begins to be navigable at Seyssel on the boundaries between Savoy and the department of the Ain. The length of its course is equal to a hundred and eighty leagues, and of these a hundred and twenty are included between the frontiers of France and the Mediterranean. After it passes Beaucaire, it becomes less rapid; it flows slowly into the sea, and divides itself into four branches, in which several banks render the passage difficult.

The length of the basin watered by the Loire is still greater; it is bounded on the east by the mountains of Charolais, and part of the Cevennes, on the south by the mountains of Margeride, the Cantal and Mont-Dor, on the south-west by the heights of Gatine, and on the north by the hills, which form the plateau of Beauce, and which unite with the Armorican chain. The Loire rises from Mount Gerbier le Joux, at some leagues from the Mezen. It runs

first northwards, being separated from the Allier by the mountains of Forez and those of La Made; it then bends to the north-west, and continues in that direction until it reaches the neighbourhood of Orleans; beyond the last mentioned place, it flows westwards, and enters the ocean after a course of two hundred and twenty leagues. The mean depth of its waters is more than seven, but less than ten feet,^k and the declivity of its course, about twenty-three feet on each league.^l Rafts and timber are floated on its stream from the village of Retournac, at five leagues above Beauzac in the department of the Upper Loire; it becomes navigable a short way above Roanne in the department of the Loire. The Mayenne, swollen by the streams of the Sarthe and Loir, enters it on the right, but it receives no other important river from the same side, as it is not confined in that direction by lofty hills. Several large rivers which fall into the Loire, rise on the left from the chain of mountains, in which are situated the highest summits in central France; the principal of these rivers are the Allier, the Cher and the Vienne. The alluvial deposits conveyed by it, obstruct its mouth, and form sand banks which are daily increasing; thus in some places, the depth which was formerly twenty feet at low tide, does not at present exceed seven or eight.

The sinuous course of the Seine or the ancient *Sequana* traverses a basin formed on the south by the extension of the Armorican chain, which separates it in that direction from the Loire, and joins the mountains of Morvan; it is enclosed on the east by Mounts Moresot and Tasselot, the plateau of Langres, and the heights that separate the Meuse from the Aisne; while it is bounded on the north by the Faucilles and the Ardennes, which unite with the chalky hills that follow the course of the river to its mouth. The Seine rises between Chanceaux and Saint Seine, at the foot of a hill connected with the plateau of Langres. Timber is floated on it from the village of Oigni, in the department of Cote d'Or, but it does not become navigable until it reaches the village of Marcilly at its junction with the Aube. On the right bank, it receives the Marne at Charenton near Paris, and the Oise near Conflans St. Honorine above Poissy. The feeders that enter it from the left, are the Yonne at Montcreau and the Eure near Pont de l'Arche. The length of its course is about a hundred and sixty leagues. When the tide is full, the breadth of its mouth gives it a very majestic appearance, but at low tide, it looks like a number of canals flowing in the middle of an oozy bed. It is not easy to imagine the changes which take place during the equinox, and more particularly at the time of the syzygies; the billows enter the mouth of the Seine by narrow passages, rise to a considerable height, are precipitated into the bed of the river, and impede the course of its waters. The cry of the *Barre* then becomes a signal of alarm, and the houses on the banks have been more than once destroyed. The same sort of phenomenon has been observed at the mouth of the Loire, and also at that of the Garonne, where it is called the *Mascaret*.

Having thus briefly described the four principal rivers in France, it remains for us to cross the Vosges and to examine the Germanic basin or the basin of the Rhine. Formed

^a "Ariège."

^b The gold borne down by the waters of the Arriege, is at present found in too inconsiderable quantities to be worked with profit.

^c "150 leagues."

^d "Bec d'Ambès"—the point of land at the confluence of the two rivers. The town of Ambès or Ambez is in the immediate vicinity.—P.

^e "14,000 metres"—more than eight miles.—P.

^f "4000 metres"—nearly two and a half miles.—P.

^g Sone, p. 898.

^h Buttresses or outworks.

ⁱ "30 feet per league" Fr. meas.

^k "Mean depth from 2 to 3 metres."

^l "22 feet per league" Fr. meas.

by the declivities of the Black Forest and the Vosges, it extends from Huningen, at the foot of the lowest declivities of Jura, to those of Mount Tonnerre. The course of the Ill, the largest feeder it receives, is equal to about thirty-six leagues; it rises near the burgh of Winckell in the department of the Upper Rhine, and throws itself into the river at the distance of two leagues above Strasburg. The Moselle is a feeder of the Rhine, and for that reason its basin, although a separate one, may be considered as forming a part of the other.

On the west of the Germanic basin, are the two Belgian basins, the first of which is watered by the Meuse, a considerable river that traverses only a small part of France. It rises from the heights which form the plateau of Langres, a short way above the village of Meuse. The long and narrow basin of the river is bounded by the Ardennes, and the heights of the Moselle. It begins to be navigable at Verdun, and continues so to the frontiers of the kingdom.

The second Belgian basin, or that of the Scheldt, is formed by two ranges of hills, one of which on the north-east commands the course of the Meuse, while the other extends towards Calais. The country is watered by the Scheldt, which holds no inconsiderable rank among rivers, both because it receives several navigable feeders, and because it discharges itself into the North Sea.^a It takes its rise near Castelet in the department of the Aisne, and becomes navigable below Condé, at no great distance from the confines of France.

Of the remaining eight basins, five discharge their waters either into the Channel or the Ocean. The basin of the Somme is enclosed by the chain of hills that was last mentioned, and by another which extends towards Cape La Heve; its principal stream takes its rise at Font-Somme in the department of the Aisne, and may be considered a river,^b to which the Miramont, the Avre and the Cellé are tributary. It is navigable from Amiens to St. Valery, where it throws itself into the Channel after a course of about forty leagues.

The Orne receives the Noireau, the Aize, the Odon and other small rivers; it rises near Seez, in the granite heights on the north of Alençon; its basin is bounded by a northern branch of the same heights, and by another that stretches towards Cape La Hague. The course of the Orne is about thirty leagues, and it discharges itself into the Channel.

The basin contiguous to that of the Orne, may be called the basin of the Rance, from the name of the principal river, which, however, is not more than eighteen leagues in length. It is formed by the chain which serves as a limit to the preceding basin,^c and which proceeds westwards, under the names of the mountains of Menez and Arree, till it terminates to the northwards of Brest.

The mountains of Menez, and a chain of hills, extending

^a See, on the relative importance of rivers, the article *Rivières*, in the fifth volume of Physical Geography in the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*, by M. Huot. [The sentence in the text to which the note refers, is scarcely adapted to any other language than the French, and owes its propriety to the peculiar meanings attached to the words *fleuve* and *rivière*; the first implying a navigable stream which empties directly into the sea or other reservoir, and which receives other navigable streams or branches, and the second a stream which falls into another larger stream, or which does not receive navigable branches. The writer in the original, says that "the Scheldt deserves to be ranked among *fleuves*, because it receives several navigable *rivières*, and because it empties into the North Sea."—P.] ^b "Fleuve."

^c The granite heights to the north of Alençon, the southern limit of the preceding basin.—P.

^d "It is navigable for boats only for the space of 580 metres, where it

from the north to the neighbourhood of the Loire, bound the basin of the Vilaine, a small river which rises near Juvigné, and is rendered navigable by sluices at the village of Cessan; it is enlarged by the Meu, the Seiche and the Don, and reaches the ocean after a course of forty-five leagues.

The Charente, a sinuous river, about eighty-five leagues long, rises near the village of Cheronnac in the department of the Upper Vienne. The Ne, the Seugne and the Boutonne are the principal feeders; it begins to be navigable at Montignac, a few leagues above Angouleme, and throws itself into the ocean, opposite the isle of Oleron. Its basin is bounded by a chain that descends from the heights of Gatine, and by a range of hills, which separate it from the basin of the Garonne.

The basin of the Adour is bounded on the south by the Pyrenees, and by a chain of hills that extend from those mountains to the sandy plains of the Gironde. The river flows from the declivities of the Pic du Midi, and forms a cataract of a hundred feet in height, a short way above Bagneres. The length of its course is about seventy leagues; it quits the vallies of the Pyrenees, and receives the Midouze, the Luy, the Gave de Pau, the Gave d'Oleron, the Bidouze and several other streams. The Adour cannot be considered either a useful or important river; its course is very rapid, and the inundations occasioned by the melting of the snows, desolate the fields in the neighbourhood of the banks. It begins to be navigable at St. Sever, and throws itself into the Gulf of Gascony at Bayonne.

The Aude rises from a lake or pond of the same name in the Eastern Pyrenees, about a league from Mount Louis; the Orbieux, its principal feeder, is not navigable. The length of its course is about fifty leagues; boats, however, are seldom seen on it, until it joins the canal at Narbonne.^d The basin of the river is enclosed by Mount Espinouse, the Black Mountains and the extreme branches of the Pyrenees.

The basin bounded by the Moorish mountains, the mountains of Esterel, and their ramifications, is watered by several rivers, of which the Argens is the most important; it is formed by several streams that unite at Chateau Vert. The waters of the Artuby fall into the Argens, which enters the Mediterranean, after a course of twenty-four leagues. It is not navigable, and although it flows between high and rocky banks, it often inundates the adjoining fields, and forms pestilential marshes. The Hérault traverses the eastern part of the same basin from the Cevennes to the sea, a distance of twenty-eight leagues.^e

France is watered by ten great rivers, by a hundred and eight that are navigable, and by more than five thousand smaller streams and rivulets.^f But in order to complete the hydrographical account of the same country, it is necessary to notice the lakes and lagoons.^g Of the former, one only

joins the canal of Narbonne; the branch which falls into the Mediterranean, is only proper for floating timber."

^e There must be a mistake in this passage. The Hérault traverses the eastern part of the basin watered by the Aude. The basin watered by the Argens is in the eastern part of Provence, that river entering the Mediterranean at Frejus.—P.

^f "10 *fleuves*, 108 navigable *rivières*, and more than 5000 smaller *rivières* and rivulets."

^g "Étangs."—On the coast of Provence and Languedoc are a great number of inlets of the sea, which the French call *étangs*. They have a communication with the sea through a narrow channel, by which they are supplied with their waters, which are consequently salt. Ed Encyc.—They resemble the Venetian lagoons, and the sounds, bays and other inland waters between the sea islands and the main land, along the south shore of Long Island, and the coast of the S. States.—P.

need be mentioned; it is the lake of Grand-Lieu in the district^a of Nantes; it is formed by the waters of the Boulogne, the Ognon, and other small rivers, and it discharges itself by the Achenau into the Loire. It is about two leagues and a half in length, and nearly two in breadth. The only large lagoons in France are situated in the maritime departments in the south-west and south-east. That of Carcans in the department of the Gironde is about two leagues long by one and a half broad; it communicates with that of Canau, which is not much smaller. That of Biscarosse in the Landes is nearly of the same dimensions as the first; these, as well as others of a smaller size, are separated from the sea by downs. The boundary on the coast of the Mediterranean, between the departments of the Eastern Pyrenees and the Aude, divides that of Leucate, which is about three leagues long, into two almost equal parts. That of Sigeau, nearly four leagues in length, is situated in the department of the Aude. That of Thau, in the department of the Herault, is nearly as long as the last; it exhibits two phenomena not unworthy of notice; in the first place, it is salt, although fed by many fresh water springs; secondly, a sort of subterranean water-spout rises several feet above the surface near the northern extremity, and forms by its fall a circular pool.^b It communicates on the north-east by means of a natural channel with the lagoons of Maguelonne, Perols and Manguio, thus forming a length of more than thirty miles.^c The lagoon of Bere^d in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, may be almost considered a gulf; it enters the sea by the canals of Martigues and the Tour de Bouc. It is about fifteen leagues in circumference, and a great quantity of salt is deposited in its calm and still waters. Several artificial ponds, not inferior in size to natural lakes, are situated in the interior of France; among others, that of Villers in the department of the Cher, and that of Indre^e in the department of the Meurthe; the first is about six leagues in circumference, and the second, four. The Seille, a feeder of the Moselle, issues from the last.

Two large promontories are situated on the French coasts; that of La Hague or La Hogue protrudes into the Channel, at the extremity of a department of the same name,^f while that of Raz forms the most western point in the department of Finisterre. The waves are broken into foam at the base of the last cape, and the view from its summit extends to a great distance along the ocean.

The same coasts are indented by large and deep gulfs; that of St. Malo in the Channel, includes the bay of St. Brieux^g on the left, and forms at its extremity the bay of Cancale, famous for its oysters. The road of Brest^h on the western coast of Finisterre might be more correctly called a bay, of which the depth at low tide is not less than from ten to fifteen fathoms, and the circumference about eight leagues; it communicates with the ocean by the strait called Le Goulet or the Gullet. The bay of Douarnenez to the south is still larger; its entrance is formed by Cape Chevre and Cape Raz. The bay of Morbihan, which gives its

name to a department, is about eight leagues in circumference. The bay of Bourgneuf, which is broader, but not so deep as the last, extends almost to the mouth of the Loire. The gulf of Gasconyⁱ which forms part of the ocean is bounded by the coasts of France and Spain; it receives at its extremity the small river Nivelle. The most important gulf in the Mediterranean, is the gulf of Lions, incorrectly written Lyons;^k an error which has led some geographers to suppose that it was called after the town of the same name, from which, however, it is more than fifty-five leagues distant in a direct line. During the middle ages, it was styled the sea or gulf of the Lion, because, from the frequency of tempests, it was formidable to mariners. It is known that St. Louis, after having embarked at Aigues Mortes, in 1269, was detained in the gulf by a storm which lasted three days.^l It is bounded by the coasts of five departments, namely, the Eastern Pyrenees, the Aude, the Herault, the Gard and the Mouths of the Rhone. Four bays are formed by the coasts in the department of the Var; namely, the bays^m of Cavaleire, Grimaud, Napoule and Juan.

It is unnecessary to mention all the islands near the coasts of France; Jersey and Guernsey are more important than any others in the Channel, but as they are under the government of England, they shall be described in the account of that country. The isle of Ushant (Fr. *Ouessant*) on the coasts of the ocean is surrounded by other smaller islands of the same name, and lined with rocks, which render the approach to it dangerous. It is equal to two square leagues in superficial extent, and its soil is by no means unfruitful. Groaix, a more productive island, is chiefly inhabited by fishermen. Belle-Isle, about four leagues in length, and two in breadth, yields rich pasturage. Noirmoutiers, equal to four square leagues in extent, is peopled by industrious inhabitants. Yeu is formed by a granite rock, covered with a light stratum of vegetable earth; the surface occupies a space of nearly six square leagues. The isle of Re, about five leagues long, and fifteen in circumference, is bounded by rocks on the north and the west. The land is ill provided with wood, and unfruitful in corn; the wealth of the inhabitants consists chiefly in the produce of their vineyards. Oleron, an island of considerable importance, is about six leagues long, and two broad; its salt marshes are very valuable. Camargue, an island in the Mediterranean, is formed by the alluvial deposits brought down by the Rhone; with the exception of a large marsh, the soil affords excellent pasturage. The isles of Hyeres,ⁿ of which the principal are Porquerolles, Port-Croz, Bagneaux and the isle of Titan or Levant,^o stretch to the distance of seven leagues from east to west; they are fruitful in oranges, strawberries and different aromatic plants. The islands of Lerins or those of St. Marguerite and St. Honorat are encompassed with reefs and almost uninhabited. Corsica is situated to the south-east of the latter islands; from its importance it is necessary to enter into some details concerning it.

^a "Arrondissement."

^b In it is a deep spot called *Ayysse*, from which rushes up a column of fresh water with such force as (in conjunction with strong winds) to produce at times waves dangerous to boats. The waters of this spot being much warmer than the surrounding ones, a circular space remains unfrozen in the hardest winters, when the rest of the lake is a sheet of ice. Tuckey's Maritime Geography, vol. II. p. 178.—P.

^c "23,000 toises."

^d "L'Indre"—Lindre (Vosgien)—P.

^e *La Manche*—the department of the Channel.

^f "St. Brieuc."

^g Brest Water.

^h Bay of Biscay

^k "—the gulf of the Lion (*du Lion*), incorrectly called the gulf of Lyons (*de Lyon*)."

^l We may mention the testimony of William of Nangis, a monk of the thirteenth century, and a biographer of St. Louis. "Mare Leonis nuncupatur, quod semper est asperum, fluctuosum et crudele." See also Mémoires de l'Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres, tom. xii. p. 210.

^m "Gulfs."—The coast from Marseilles to the limits of Italy, has a great number of small indentations, improperly named gulfs, between the rocky headlands. Tuckey's Maritime Geography, vol. II. p. 179.—P.

ⁿ Hyeres.

^o The easternmost island, whence the latter name.—P.

The island is partly covered with mountains, forming a group belonging to a range which a French geographer^a has denominated the Sardo-Corsican, because it is a continuation of the mountains in Sardinia. This group consists of the chain of Mount Caona on the south, the mountains of Cagnone in the centre, those of Frontogna on the north-west, and the chain of Titime on the north. Different counterforts or branches project laterally from these chains, and enclose numerous vallies or small basins. The seven of most consequence are those watered by the Tavignano and the Golo on the east, and the vallies of the Valinco, the Taravo, the Gravone, the Liamone and the Fango, which descend towards the western declivities of the island. None of these rivers are navigable. Several lagoons are situated on the eastern coast, the largest of which or that of Biguglia is nearly eight miles in length.^b The chain of Titime terminates at Cape Corsica^c on the north, the most important of any in the island. The numerous mountains that descend on the western side, enclose many bays and gulfs, among others, the gulfs of Valinco, Ajaccio, Porto and St. Florent. Several small islands are situated near Corsica, but none of them are of much importance.

Before we proceed to examine the soil in the different parts of France, it may be proper to make some remarks relative to the geology of the country. Granitic rocks or such as are anterior to the appearance of organized beings, are seen on the summits and declivities of the Pyrenees and the Alps, but the granite in the former is less ancient than the granite in the second. The granitic masses support volcanic summits in the Cevennes proper, and particularly in the Cantal and Mont-Dor. The granite in the Cevenno-Vosgian group disappears in the neighbourhood of Avalon, and is seen anew at the two extremities of the Vosges, or in other words, at the sources of the Moselle, and in the vicinity of the Ardennes. Granitic rocks also prevail in the Armorican chain, forming the crests of the small basins, watered by the feeders of the Lower Loire, and of that of the Vilaine, and covering almost all the surface in the departments of the Lower Loire, Morbihan, Finisterre, the North Coast, the Ille and Vilaine and the Channel.

From the remains of the granitic rocks, triturated and united by the action of water, are formed the masses of old sandstone which extend near the limits of the former. But at the time that their molecules were cemented, continents existed, for in their inclined strata are found vegetable remains. Extensive deposits of the same rocks are situated at the base of the Cevennes, on the banks of the Tarn, in the neighbourhood of St. Etienne, near Brives, in the territory of Bourbon l'Archambault, and on the banks of the Cher and the Auron. The same rocks bound the Vosges on the west and the south; they form their summits from the sources of the Sarre to the base of Mount Tonnerre, and appear again on the banks of the Moselle in the vicinity of Sierck.

The ancient ocean has left traces of its existence in every country on the earth; as its waters became gradually lower, calcareous strata and beds of sea salt were deposited on the declivities of the rocks which have been already indicated,

^a M. Brouguière, *Tableau des Montagnes*.

^b "Length 13,000 metres." ^c "Cap Corse"—Cape Corso.

^d Roofing slate, a variety of argillite, the chain of hills in which it is found, being a branch of the primitive mountains in Brittany.—P.

^e The remarks in the above sentence refer to the *Ichthyosauri*, in the original; but the *Ichthyosauri* were characterized by a short neck, and a very long tail, whereas it was the *Plesiosaurus dolichodeirus* which was distinguished by a very long slender neck, consisting of thirty vertebræ. The other characters belong to the *Ichthyosauri*.—P.

^f M. Geoffroy de St. Hilaire.

and in basins of which the limits are still apparent. The whole chain of Jura may be considered the highest region of these deposits, which are supported on the south by the base of the Lower Alps, the Cevennes and the Pyrenees, and on the east by the base of the Higher Alps, and which form on the right of the Saone, the mountains of Charolais, the Cote d'Or and the plateau of Langres. The same deposits become lower towards the Mediterranean, and their declivities also extend in the direction of the Channel, occupying a zone, which may be traced from the banks of the Tarn to Valogne in the neighbourhood of Cherbourg; they form the ridge of the Ardennes, terminate at the sources of the Serre, and re-appear in the vicinity of Boulogne sur Mer.

But a second series of sediments is deposited on the latter formations, exhibiting to the south of Angouleme and Perigueux, and at the distance of some leagues to the north of the Garonne, the arenaceous and calcareous substances which belong to the chalk formation. It might be said that they have been accumulated in the depths of vast Caspian seas, of which the remains on the banks of the Dordogne, the Ille, and the Charente, extend to and are lost in the ocean, where they form the island of Oleron. Another deposit, much greater than the last, occupies an immense basin which, in its irregular windings, stretches into England, and which terminates on the west towards the range of hills, that diverges from the Armorican chain to the Loire, and that forms in the neighbourhood of that river the tegular schistus^d of Angers, while it extends on the south to the heights of Gatine, the ridge of Issoudun, and the hills near Bourges, on the east to those of Auxerre, and the declivities of the plateau of Langres and the Ardennes, and on the north beyond the Baltic.

The animals that existed in these Caspian seas differed wholly from any that now frequent the ocean. Among those that the naturalist considers the most remarkable, are large reptiles, which may be compared to monsters engendered in the imagination, exhibiting the singular spectacle of a head like a dolphin's, with the teeth of a crocodile, placed at the extremity of a long neck, consisting of eighty vertebræ, and attached to the body of a lizard.^e The remains of the marine reptiles, called *Ichthyosauri*, have been found in the blue marl near Honfleur, while those of the *Plesiosaurus*, an animal resembling a lizard, and about nine feet in length, have been collected near Boulogne and Auxonne. A third animal, to which a French naturalist^f has given the name of *Teleosaurus Cadomensis*, resembled in some respects the crocodile;^g it is found in the quarries near Caen.

At a period subsequent to the formation of the chalk basins, which cover a great part of Champagne, Normandy, Touraine, Picardy and Artois, the traces of smaller seas have been left in France. These traces may be discovered wherever there are beds of coarse limestone,^h similar to the kind used for building in the neighbourhood of Paris, or wherever there are arenaceous deposits resembling the strata beneath the same rocks.ⁱ The smallest of these Caspian seas, if they may be so called, covered a portion of the coun-

^e "Gavial"—Gangetic crocodile. "It is considered by Geoffroy as intermediate between the mammalia and the crocodiles." M. B.—P.

^h "Calcaire grossier"—lower marine limestone in the Paris basin.—P.

ⁱ "Resembling the lower strata of the coarse limestone." The lower beds are very sandy, so as sometimes to form a calcareous sandstone. The coarse limestone is succeeded below by the Plastic clay and sand formation, which rests immediately on the chalk.—P

try now watered by the Rhone, in the lower part of its course; the limits of it may be traced in the departments of the Herault, the Gard, Vaucluse and the Mouths of the Rhone. Another, and a somewhat larger sea, was situated to the north of the former, and was bounded by the declivities of Jura, and by those of the Cote d'Or, and the mountains of Charolais. The basin which it formed reaches from the north of Dijon to the south of Valence. A third, of still greater dimensions, covered almost all the surface in the departments of the Tarn, the Upper Garonne, the Gers, the Landes, the Gironde, and lastly, the Lot and Garonne. But the largest of them all extended over the departments of the Loiret, the Seine and Oise, and the Oise, and partly over the departments of the Aisne, the Seine and Marne, the Eure and Loir, the Loir and Cher, the Indre and Loire, and the Indre. The basins of these Caspians were not drained at the same epoch. While the one on the north, the last that has been mentioned, is formed by marine calcareous strata, in which the organic remains belong to animals wholly different from any that now frequent our seas, in the basin through which the Garonne flows, are found many shells similar to those of animals still existing. Deposits of gypsum, which repose on the calcareous strata, and which appear to have been formed in the depths of fresh water, seem to indicate that lakes succeeded the seas in the two basins of Paris and Avignon. Graminivorous quadrupeds frequented the banks of these lakes; but they were part of a creation very different from the one which now inhabits the surface of the earth. Their bones have been collected, examined and compared by a celebrated naturalist,^a and with the aid of a science, which has been brought by the same person to a high degree of perfection, their forms have been discovered, and even their habits conjectured. It is in the strata of Montmartre, Belleville and Montmorency, in the quarries of Aix, and in the calcareous marl near Orleans and on the Rhenish limits of France, that the bones of these ancient animals have been found. From their peculiar conformation, and the marked characters which distinguish them from every living being, names have been assigned them, which either indicate their antiquity, or the forms of their jaw-bones and teeth. Thus the Palæotheriums (ancient animals) have been divided into seven species, of which the largest is almost equal in size to a horse, and the smallest not larger than a hare. The only animals to which they bear any resemblance in shape, are the tapirs that exist at present in the new world. The Anoplotheriums (defenceless animals) are divided into six species, the largest of which is three feet high by five long, and the smallest not larger than a rat. The remains of the Lophiodons^b are chiefly found in calcareous marl; they resemble the tapirs in many respects, the difference consisting principally in their greater or smaller size.

At the period when the marine calcareous masses in the departments round Paris were covered with fresh water, there must have been large lakes in the highest part of France, among the mountains in the departments of Puy-de-Dôme, Cantal, the Lozere and the Ardeche, which deposited their sediment immediately on the granite; for no marine calcareous rocks have been observed in that lofty country. These basins appear to have discharged their waters in a northern direction, and to have augmented by their rupture the analogous de-

posits, which were forming in the great northern basin.^c In the deposits of these lakes are contained a great many organic remains, some of which are of the same kind^d as those of Montmartre, while others belong to hippopotami and to the *anthracotherium*, an animal in some respects similar to the hippopotamus. In addition to these might be mentioned the remains of reptiles and birds, different from any that now exist; and what is a new fact in the science, the eggs of gallinaceous birds perfectly entire. Lava and basalt rest above these fresh water basins; although the volcanoes from which they were vomited are now extinguished, their height and their craters still excite admiration. While they were emitting flames, animals existed in that part of France, which at present are only found in the warmest climates. Among these were elephants, rhinoceroses, hyenas, lions, stags of an immense size, and those large quadrupeds called mastodons, that have disappeared from the surface of the earth, but of which the remains are still collected in the new world. The most of these animals succeeded those which have been already described, and of which the remains are found in marl and gypsum; in Auvergne, however, their remains are contained in alluvial soils which are covered by ancient streams of lava and basalt, and from which it may be easy to prove the existence of volcanoes at different periods in that part of the country. It must not, however, be imagined that those large animals, which now inhabit Africa and Asia, were confined to the banks of the Allier. In the alluvial deposits that cover the floors in the caverns of Montpellier, are found tigers, lions, hyenas, panthers and hippopotami. Similar alluvial deposits^e in the vallies throughout France contain the remains of the same quadrupeds, and very many have been collected in the country round Paris. It is certain, therefore, that the climate of France, and, in general, of all the temperate regions, was at the period in which these animals existed, much warmer than at the present day.

The greatest part of Corsica belongs to the granitic formation. Calcareous rocks similar to those in the Alps and Jura are observed in two different parts of the island, namely, on the eastern coast a little to the north of Porto Vecchio, and on the northern coast near the gulf of St. Florent. More recent calcareous rocks and calcareous sandstones, which were left by the ocean, the last time it covered the present continents, are only observed in the southern part of the island, in the neighbourhood of Bonifacio.

The account that has been given of the different geological deposits in France, in the order of their formation, may prepare the reader to judge more readily of the mineral riches in the same country. From the variety of these deposits, some notion may be inferred of the substances which are contained in them.

We may commence with the rocks that are used in the arts, and which serve to decorate edifices and monuments. In the department of the Higher Alps are found grey, green, and rose coloured granite, and sienites of various colours, long confounded with granite, but more valuable from the fine polish of which they are susceptible. Besides these substances, there are brown and fine green porphyry, variolites with white, brown or black spots on a green or violet ground, and serpentine of a grey, green or brown colour, or veined with different shades. The same rocks are found in

^a M. Cuvier. See *Recherches sur les Ossemens Fossiles*, 5 vols. 4to. 1823.

^b From *λοφος*, a crest or hill, and *οδους*, a tooth.

See the introduction to the work entitled, *Recherches sur les Os-*

semens Fossiles du département du Puy-de-Dôme, by MM. Croizet and Jobert, 4to. 1828.

^d "Belong to the same genera."

^e "Terrains de transport"—diluvium.—P.

Corsica, but with more numerous varieties. Porphyry abounds in the Vosges, and granite is by no means uncommon in other departments, such as those of the Lower Loire, the Channel and the Sarthe. It was employed in paving the streets of different towns, but for some years past, the lava of Auvergne has been substituted in Paris for the same purpose.

Frenchmen long envied the marble quarries of the Italians, ignorant that others in their own country, might rival the most renowned in Italy. At present, different sorts of marble are worked in no less than forty departments; the best kinds are situated in the departments of the Upper and Lower Pyrenees, the Upper Garonne and the Eastern Pyrenees, particularly the schistous marble of Campan, which is of a red, green or delicate rose colour, and was first brought into repute by Louis the Fourteenth, who used it in decorating the palaces of Trianon and Versailles. Among others, in those departments, we might enumerate the marble of Sarancolin, which resembles a breccia, several kinds of statuary marble, and at least twenty other varieties, which it is unnecessary to particularize. Those who have seen the eight pillars that support the triumphal arch in the Place du Carrousel, may form a correct notion of the red and white marbles in the department of the Aude. The marbles in the department of the Arriege are of a dark blue or violet colour; the two sorts in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, have been incorrectly called Aleppo and Memphis marbles.^a Two different kinds in the department of the Herault, the one of a white, and the other of a red^b colour, have served to adorn several edifices in the capital. Statuary, cipolin and other kinds of marble are obtained in Corsica, and the varieties in the departments of the Isere and the Ardeche are not less numerous. The marbles of Jura and the Lot are employed in those two departments; quarries of a finely grained and white coloured marble are situated in the department of the Vienne. It would be superfluous to mention all the departments in which the same substance is found; suffice it to say that it is obtained in those of Puy de Dome, the Lower Charente, the Saone and Loire, the Var, the Higher Alps, the Cote d'Or, the Aube, the Maine and Loire, the Sarthe and the Straits of Calais.

Other rocks, less ornamental but more useful than marble, are worked in different parts of France. Many workmen are employed in the extensive slate quarries at the base of the Pyrenees, and in the departments of the Maine and Loire, the Meuse and the Ardennes. Limestone, admirably adapted for building, is worked in the departments of the Dordogne, the Herault, the Loire, the Cote d'Or, the Yonne, the Meuse, the Moselle, the Oise and the Seine. Other kinds, not inferior to the last, are common in the departments of the Seine and Marne, the Seine and Oise, Calvados and the Channel. Excellent lithographic stones are procured from the neighbourhood of Mulhausen, Belley, Dijon and Chateauroux.

The ancient provinces of Burgundy, Champagne, Flanders and the Isle of France abound in clay, which the inhabitants convert into bricks and tiles. The decomposed feldspar contained in the granite rocks near Limoges and

St. Yrieix, furnishes kaolin, a very useful substance in the manufactory of porcelain. Pipe clay, not inferior to any other on the continent, has been long worked near Forge les Eaux in the department of the Lower Seine; another sort near Elbœuf in the same department, is much used in claying sugar. The clay in the neighbourhood of Beauvais and Montereau is employed in manufacturing the finest pottery. The departments of the Yonne, the Cher and the Lower Charente abound in flint;^c and the small town of La Ferté sous Jouarre exports millstones of the same substance^d to different countries of Europe, and even to America. The soft chalk in the departments of the Marne, the Seine, and the Seine and Oise, is fashioned into different shapes, and sold as an article of commerce;^e lastly, the gypsum obtained in the neighbourhood of Paris, furnishes the plaster so much used in the capital.

An increase has of late years been very perceptible in the products that form the mineral riches of France, and they may still be greatly augmented. The following is a list of the different metals obtained from the French mines in the year 1826.^f

Lead, reduced to the metallic state	6,453 quintals.
Sulphuret of lead	1,642 "
Copper, in the metallic state	1,394 "
Native arsenic	50 "
Antimony, reduced to the metallic state	412 "
Oxide of Manganese	7,550 "
Cast iron (first fusion,) bars, and steel	1,587,350 "
Silver, in ingots	3,286 lbs. avoirdupois. ^g

Lead ore is more common in France than in many other countries; it was from the mines of argentiferous lead in the departments of Finisterre, the Lozere and the Vosges, that the above quantity of silver was obtained. Mines of the same sort, at present unworked, are situated in the departments of the Arriege, Puy de Dome, the Upper Vienne, the Two Sevres, the Channel, and the Lower Rhine. The mountaineers in the department of the Isere sell frequently pieces of silver ore to the jewellers in Grenoble, from which it might be inferred that the mine of Chalanche, and perhaps others at no great distance, are very valuable. Manganese abounds so much in France, that it contains more than sufficient to supply the whole of Europe. Gold has been found in the alluvial soils deposited by several rivers. Many individuals formerly employed themselves in collecting particles of gold on the Salat, which issues from the Pyrenees, on the Sexe and the Gardon that rise in the Cevennes, on the Arriege and the Garonne near Toulouse, on the Rhone near the frontiers of the department of the Ain, and on the Rhine below Strasburg. At present, however, the trade of a gold-searcher is not very profitable, for on the banks of the Rhine, which are supposed to contain the greatest quantity, the value of the gold collected from Bale to the neighbourhood of Mayence, does not exceed in ordinary years L.625.

The other mineral substances, worked in France, make up a considerable part of its territorial wealth. Coal is found in thirty-two departments; others possess lignite, a different combustible,^h sulphate of iron, alum, mineral pitch and petroleum. Salt springs, and a mine of rock salt, discovered in 1819, are situated in the department of the Meurthe; the

^a "Brèche d'Alep—brèche de Memphis."

^b "Griotte"—spotted with red and brown.

^c "Gun-flint"—found in chalk and limestone.—P.

^d Buhrstone—found in beds in the fresh-water limestone of the Paris basin.—P.

^e "It is used in the arts by the name of Spanish white."

See the Report on the products of French industry in the year

1827, by M. A. Heron de Villefosse, Inspector of Mines, and Member of the Academy of Sciences, in the *Annales des Mines*, t. II. 1827.

^g "1,162 kilogrammes."

^h A fossil vegetable that retains its ligneous texture, and of a later formation than coal—[including jet, moor coal, bituminous wood, brown coal, and earth coal.—P.]

vine occupies both these regions, and another still farther to the north, but does not succeed beyond a line which commences at a point some leagues northwards from the mouth of the Loire, and thence extending towards the north-east, passes to the south of the sources of the Eure, follows the contours of the heights which bound the right bank of the Oise, and stretching to the north of the Aisne and of Verdun, terminates on the north-east at the Rhine. Beyond this boundary the vine gives place to the apple. These limits, however, must not be considered as rigorously exact. Thus, maize might be cultivated in the country round Metz, for it thrives in the gardens; a considerable quantity is indeed cultivated in Brittany on the southern declivities of the mountains of Arree, and also in some parts of French Flanders.

The neighbourhood of the sea, by rendering the climate milder, extends its influence to vegetation; the fig and the myrtle, which seem to require a warm climate, flourish in very different latitudes. The first yields excellent fruit without shelter, in the neighbourhood of Havre and Cherbourg, while the same plant not only requires a favourable exposure in the vicinity of Paris, but the fruits are later and never so good. The myrtle grows in the open air in Cotentin, at Brest, and in Belle-Isle en Mer. At a hundred leagues farther south, but at a greater distance from the sea, it does not resist the severity of the climate without much care. The melon grows almost without culture on the coasts of Lower Normandy, but it is well known how much labour is bestowed on it in the neighbourhood of Paris, where, nowever, some sorts are produced, that surpass the best in Italy.

Lastly, the elevation of the soil has a great influence on different plants; thus the chestnut tree flourishes from the mountains of Forez and Auvergne to the southern extremities of France, and grows naturally in several woods round Paris.^a

The only useful plants really natural to France, are the fig, the apple, the pear and the plum; it ought not, however, to be forgotten that among the acotyledonous plants, the truffles in the neighbourhood of Angouleme and Perigueux, so much prized by gourmands, are indigenous to the country. Many useful and ornamental plants have been naturalized by culture; the cherry tree brought from Asia by Lucullus, was, as well as the vine, first planted in France by the Romans. The Greek colonies on the coasts of the Mediterranean transported thither the olive, a plant indigenous to Mount Taurus, and the raspberry-bush from Mount Ida. Since the discovery of the New World, France has obtained the acrivola^b of Peru, the lycopersicon^c of Mexico, the potato of Virginia, and the maize which has been incorrectly called Turkey corn.^d The humble parsley was brought from Sardinia, and the cardoon from Barbary. The pomegranate was also conveyed from Africa, and planted in the southern regions of France.

The gardens, the orchards and the fields in the same country, are now adorned with the productions of Asia; the orange, the lemon and the white mulberry are indigenous to China, the black mulberry to Asia Minor, the apricot to

Armenia, and the peach to Persia. Other plants first imported from Asia are now common, such as the almond, the walnut and the finest kinds of melons. Lastly, the kidney bean, the white endive and the pumpkin have passed from the burning climate of India to the temperate countries of western Europe. The gardener has been enabled by his art, to preserve in France, the lily of Palestine, the sunflower^e of Peru, the dahlia of Mexico, the balsamine of India, the reseda of Egypt, the angelica of Lapland, the tuberose of Ceylon, the tulip of Turkey, and the inodorous ranunculus, the only monument of St. Louis' pious expedition into Syria. The weeping willow, now common on the banks of rivers, was obtained from the neighbourhood of Babylon.

Near the most common forest trees in France, such as the oak, the birch, the elm, the ash and the beech, may now be seen the false acacia,^f which Robin brought from Virginia, different American oaks, and the horse chestnut tree, indigenous to Turkey in Asia. The Norwegian and Canadian firs now grow in the highest regions of the kingdom. To the aspen tree, and the black and white poplars, originally natives of the country, are added other species from Italy and America. But all the woods and plantations in France do not occupy a greater surface than 17,500,000 English acres^g—an extent too small not to render it peculiarly desirable to employ all the means necessary for the preservation of the forests.

Local industry, climate, and a favourable exposure, add in several departments to the value of certain plants. Forests of resinous trees extend along the sea coast in the department of the Landes, throughout an extent of thirty or forty leagues; in the same country and in the department of the Lot and Garonne, the *Quercus suber* or cork tree is cultivated. The firs of the Vosges and Jura are used by the house carpenter; indeed in that part of France, few or no firs are imported from northern countries. The pine furnishes the peasant of Brittany with a substitute for oil and candles. The fruit of a particular kind of cherry tree, that abounds in the Vosges, yields by distillation a *kirschenwasser*, not inferior to any that can be had in the Black Forest. The mulberry, the olive and the orange are cultivated in the southern departments. The fruit of the plum tree forms a considerable branch of commerce in the departments of the Var, the Lot and Garonne, and the Indre and Loire. The finest fruits in the country round Paris are the chasselas^h of Fontainebleau, the peach of Montreuil and the cherry of Montmorency.

Different garden vegetables have acquired, on certain soils, a superior quality; one or two instances may be mentioned, among others, the kidney beans in the neighbourhood of Soissons, the carrots of Amiens, and the artichokes in the country round Laon.ⁱ The vineyards in France yield two hundred and fifty different sorts of wine; they extend over a surface of 5,000,000 acres,^k and their mean produce is estimated at 880,000,000 gallons.^l The best sorts of wine are obtained from the ancient provinces of Champagne, Burgundy, Lyonnais, Dauphiny and Bordelais.

To divide the soils of France into seven different classes, after the example of Arthur Young, might lead to errors

Heliotrope; a shrub generally cultivated for the almond scent of its flowers.—P.

^f *Robinia Pseudacacia*, the common locust tree of N. America.

^g "7,000,000 hectares." ^h A variety of grape.

ⁱ See in the Statistical Tables, the quantity of land employed in the culture of different vegetables.

^k "2,000,000 hectares."

^l "35,000,000 hectolitres."

^a M. De Candolle, Flore Française, tom. ii.

^b *Tropaeolum*, Indian cress or Nasturtium.

^c *Solanum Lycopersicon*. Tomato or Love Apple.

^d M. Morcau de Jonnés, corresponding member of the Academy of Sciences, read a paper in 1828 to the Academy, in which he proved the American origin of maize.

^e "Tournefort"—*Heliotropium peruvianum*, Peruvian Turnsole or

which have been too often repeated.^a As there is not a single department in which the surface does not consist of lands, more or less rich, light, stony or sandy, how can twenty-one departments be arbitrarily classed under rich or heavy soils, nineteen under heath lands, eight under chalky soils, two under gravelly soils, fifteen under stony soils, as many under mountainous lands, and six under sandy soils? The study of geology tends to correct such mistakes; thus, what has been called vegetable earth, is merely an alluvial stratum, formed while the surface of the different formations was covered with fresh water; the same stratum is more or less fruitful in proportion to the quantity of decomposed vegetables contained in it; if thin, it mixes with the rocks that support it; if imperceptible, sand, clay or calcareous substances, exposed to view, form a soil in which the perfection of agriculture consists in supplying the defects of nature. Lastly, the inequalities in the surface have a great influence on the fertility of different soils, because in low vallies the alluvial deposits are greater than in plains, and the latter for the same reason are more fruitful than hills or lofty ridges. It would not, however, be difficult to point out a great extent of surface, where the soil, naturally sterile, might be fructified by the efforts of industry, and a judicious system of agriculture. A great part of the Vosges and the Pyrenees and almost the whole of the Dauphinese Alps are very unfruitful, although the Cevennes, in which the rocks are of the same kind, prove what may be done by the persevering labour and industry of man. In that part of the country, as well as in some parts of Auvergne, walls are raised at different distances, along the sides of the mountains, in order to retain the alluvial deposits, which otherwise would be carried by the waters to the lowest vallies. The southern portion of the department of the Gironde, and almost the whole of that of the Landes, are covered with sands, which might become wholly unproductive, if the inhabitants did not avail themselves of the plant best adapted to the nature of the soil, namely, the maritime pine, which yields a great quantity of resin, and thus enables them to carry on no inconsiderable trade. If the same sands are mixed with any calcareous substance, such as the fossil shells in the neighbourhood of Bordeaux, they form a soil favourable to the culture of the vine; they may be even rendered productive by force of manure, as for example, the plain of Boulogne near Paris. By the same means, the present sterile sands of Sologne in the department of the Cher, and others in Brittany might be cultivated. The chalky plains of Champagne are fruitful wherever their surface is covered with an alluvial deposit of argil; but in the more arid parts of the same province,^b different evergreen trees might be planted. The importance of encouraging agriculture in France, may be admitted from the fact, that the surface of unproductive or waste lands, cannot be estimated at less than 10,000,000 acres,^c or in other words, at a twelfth part of the whole kingdom. If so great a surface were rendered productive, a considerable increase must necessarily follow in the number of inhabitants, since more than a sixth part would be added to the amount of arable land in France, which is considered equal to 57,000,000 acres.^d The average produce of the same land,

^a The above mentioned division is still adopted in the last edition of Guthrie's Geography. Tr. ["In the last edition of the French work entitled: L'Abregé de la nouvelle Géographie universelle, d'après Guthrie, par Hyacinthe Langlois, 1823."]

^b Champagne Pouilleuse—so called from its sterility.

^c "4,000,000 hectares."

^d "23,000,000 hectares."

• The hectolitre contains nearly three English bushels. Tr. [The

according to the most correct calculations, is equivalent to 51,500,000 hectolitres^e of wheat, 30,300,000 of meslin, 6,300,000 of maize, 8,400,000 of buckwheat, 32,000,000 of oats, and 20,000,000 of potatoes. It follows from the nature and position of the soil in different parts of France, that eleven departments, namely, those of the Lozere, the Creuse, Finisterre, the North Coast, the Channel, Calvados, the Orne, the Lower Seine, the Somme, the Straits of Calais and the North, are wholly destitute of vineyards, that about forty produce flax, and that hemp is extensively cultivated in fifty-seven.

It is unnecessary to enumerate the plants that compose the French Flora; it may be observed, however, that they are divided into more than 830 genera and 6000 species, a number greater than that in Germany, although the latter country is larger than France.

The wild animals that frequent the mountains, woods and fields, are not so numerous as in Germany, because the forests are not so large, and the mountains not so extensive. The black bear (*Ursus Pyrenaicus*) and the brown bear are found in the French part of the Pyrenees; the lynx, of which the piercing eyes are proverbial, frequents the High Alps; it is now, however, more rarely observed than formerly; the chamois and the wild goat never leave the summits that form the eastern and southern limits of the kingdom. The forests of the Vosges, and the woods on the Moselle, afford shelter to the common squirrel (*Sciurus vulgaris*); another species of a dark brown colour varied with yellowish white (*Sciurus alpinus*), and the Siberian flying squirrel,^f which issues from its retreat in the night, and by means of its dilated sides, springs from one branch to another, are not uncommon in many parts of the High Alps. The yellow marten (*Mustela alpina*) is found in the same mountains; the marlot (*Arctomys marmotta*), a social animal, frequents the cavities near the summits of the French Alps and Pyrenees.^g In the departments contiguous to the Vosges, may be seen the ermine (*Mustela erminea*), of which the fur is imported from the frozen plains of Siberia, and the hamster (*Mus cricetus*), famous for its migrations, and found in the north and south of Russia, and in Poland, the Ukraine, Hungary, Germany and Alsace, where it is called the marmot of Strasburg. The hamster lays waste the crops; each of them, it is said, amasses in its burrow from twelve to a hundred pounds of grain; as intrepid as it is fierce, it never retreats before its enemies, not even before man, who has so much interest in destroying it. All the more extensive forests serve as places of refuge for the wolf, the most destructive of the carnivorous animals in France. In some provinces, the polecat, the weasel and the fox are the terror of the poultry yards. The solitary and distrustful badger digs its den in the remotest woods, and the mole raises its hills in the most fruitful fields. The hedge-hog lurks in the bushes, and the rat, the field mouse, the common mouse and the dormouse frequent the fields and the gardens. The water rat (*Arvicola amphibius*) and the otter seek holes in the banks of such marshes and rivers as are little frequented.

Almost every species of bird, common to Europe, is found

hectolitre contains 6102.8 cubic inches, and the English bushel 2510.42 cubic inches; consequently the hectolitre is equal to 2 bushels, 1 peck 5 quarts, and 2.5 pints, nearly.—P.]

^f "Polatouche"—common European flying squirrel (*Sciurus volans* Linn. *Pteromys volans*, Cuv.)

^g "The marmot, a hibernating animal, lives in society in large burrows, near the summits of the Alps and the Pyrenees." Its burrows are excavated by its own labour.—P.

in France. The flamingos that migrate from the shores of Africa, appear in flocks on the coasts of the Mediterranean. The witwall (*Galgulus garrulus*)^a of which the plumage is varied with tints of blue, green and violet, is by no means rare in the southern departments; among others in the same part of the country, are the midwall (*Merops apiaster*),^b probably indigenous to the island of Candia, the beccafico or fig-pecker, which is sold for high prices in Paris, and the piannet or creeper that frequents steep rocks or the walls of ancient castles. Numerous species visit France every year at the approach of spring, and remain until the end of autumn, passing the winter in a warmer climate. Among these are different species of the lark and the thrush, the quail, the ortolan, and the red-breast, all of which are sought for the table; the hoopoe, the oriole, the titmouse and the kingfisher, all of which have their plumage adorned with the most vivid colours; the turtle dove, which appears to exist only for the indulgence of the tender passion, but which may be considered rather an emblem of inconstancy, than of fidelity; the swallow, which builds its nest on the houses; and the nightingale, which sings in the groves, when fresh with the first colours of spring. Among the other singing birds are the goldfinch, the linnet and the bulfinch; the jay and the starling are noted for the facility with which they learn to imitate the human voice.

Several species of gallinaceous birds abound in different parts of France; the red partridge is often observed in the central and western departments, but in the southern, the grey partridge is more common than any other species. Woodcocks and snipes frequent the woods and marshes; the first are very numerous in Picardy, and the second in Auvergne. Lastly, the coasts of the Channel and the Ocean are frequented by different kinds of wild fowl, such as the plover, the lapwing, the widgeon,^c the sea lark and the wild duck, of which a great many are sent to Paris by the inhabitants of the Lower Charente.

The common viper and the asp are often seen in mountainous, stony and wooded districts, such as the country round Lyons, Grenoble and Poitiers; it has been remarked that these venomous reptiles appear most commonly in the morning, and in places with an eastern exposure; they live on insects, mice and other small animals. The reptiles common to the central departments of France, are the viperous adder,^d and the green and yellow adder,^e which may be easily tamed. A peculiar species called the *Bordelaise*,^f as well as the masked adder, is found in the neighbourhood of Bordeaux; another species,^g which grows to the length of six feet, is confined to the southern provinces; the *Provençale*, which is never longer than seven or eight inches, indicates by its name the country it inhabits. Many of the snakes are not dangerous;^h some indeed, known by the name of hedge

eels in the rural districts, are not considered unwholesome food. The animals belonging to the Saurian order,ⁱ are sufficiently numerous, but the most remarkable is the gecko of Mauritania, which frequents the Mediterranean coasts. A crocodile still preserved at Lyons, was taken from the Rhone about two centuries ago. Could it have been the last descendant of the reptiles, of which the fossil remains are found among the calcareous strata in France, or was it carried by currents from Africa to the mouth of the Rhone? Among the animals of the Batracian order,^k different species of frogs and toads may be mentioned. The *Rana bombina* abounds in the central districts, and during rainy nights annoys the inhabitants with a continued and disagreeable croaking. The *Bufo obstetricans*, which conceals itself under stones, and frees the female of its eggs in order to carry them to some pool, is found in every department. The green toad, which, when struck, diffuses an odour resembling that of ambergris, and the thorny toad,^l a hideous animal, some of them of a monstrous size, are confined to the mountainous districts. The turtle, which the ancients used in making their lyres,^m is sometimes taken on the coasts of the Mediterranean and the Ocean; the fresh water tortoise,ⁿ not uncommon in the southern marshes, is frequently kept in gardens, because it destroys insects and noxious animals. The water eft is most common in the southern departments; the ordinary lizard frequents them all.^o

Many individuals are employed in fishing on the extensive coasts of France, and the products of their labour are distributed in the remotest districts. The Channel and the Ocean supply the inhabitants with turbot, ray, soles, cod, salmon, whiting, mackerel, mullet and sardel. The last kind is so abundant that the sardel fisheries on the coast of Brittany, yield an annual profit of L.83,000. Other kinds are taken by the fishermen in the Mediterranean; the most valuable are the tunny and the anchovy.

Cetaceous animals sometimes appear on the French coasts; a cachalot or *trumpo*^p was taken in the neighbourhood of Bayonne in 1741; thirty-one large cachalots belonging to a distinct species^q (*Physeter macrocephalus*), were stranded by a tempest on the western coast of Audierne in Lower Brittany, in 1784. The whale, the giant of the northern seas, frequented the gulfs of Gascony and Lions in the time of Strabo and Pliny.^r The Basques derived considerable profit from their whale fisheries about the beginning of the twelfth century; since that time the whale has fled for refuge from man into the frozen seas, and its appearance on the French coast is cited as a rare phenomenon. In 1620, a whale more than a hundred feet in length, was stranded on the island of Corsica; in 1726, another at least seventy-two feet long was taken in the bay of the Somme; one about fifty-two feet in length, was thrown on the island

^a The common roller (*Coracias garrula*, Linn.) The witwall is the common European oriole (*Oriolus galbula*, Linn.)—P.

^b The common bee-eater.—P.

^c "Macreuse"—(*Anas nigra*, Linn.) Black duck or Scoter.—P.

^d "Couleuvre vipérine" (*Coluber viperinus*, Latreille.)

^e "Couleuvre verte et jaune" (*Coluber atro-virens*.)

^f Couleuvre Bordelaise, Cuv. (*Coluber Girondiens*, Daudin.)

^g "Couleuvre à quatre raies" (*Coluber Elaphis*, Shaw.) Body fawn-coloured, with four brown or black lines on the back. Cuvier.—P.

^h "The adders or rather snakes (*couleuvres*.) above mentioned, are not dangerous." The term adder is usually applied to the poisonous species.—The genus *Coluber*, Linn. comprehended all serpents, whether venomous or not, with *scute* under the belly and *scutella* under the tail. The genus is now confined to the species not venomous.—P.

ⁱ The word Saurian has been lately introduced into the nomenclature of natural history; it is derived from the Greek word *Σαύρα*, a lizard.

^k From *Βατραχος*, a frog.

^l *Bufo spinosus*, Daudin.

^m *Testudo coriacea*, Linn.—called the *Luth* (lute) by the French.—P.

ⁿ "La tortue bourbeuse"—mud tortoise.

^o "The terrestrial salamanders inhabit the south of France; the aquatic salamanders are found in all the departments." The terrestrial salamander (*Salamandra terrestris*) is the *Laecerta Salamandra*, Linn. There are several species of aquatic salamanders, found in France, viz. the marbled salamander (*S. marmorata*.) the crested salamander (*S. cristata*.) the dotted salamander (*S. punctata*) and the web-footed salamander or water newt (*S. palmata*, Latreille. *Laecerta aquatica*, Linn.)—P.

^p "Cachalot trumpo," (*Physeter Trumpo*, Ed. Encyc.) Blunt-headed cachalot—considered by Cuvier, as a variety of the great spermaceti whale (*P. macrocephalus*.)—P.

^q "Grand Cachalot"—Great Spermaceti whale.

^r Pliny's Natural History, Book IX, ch. 6. Strabo, Book III, ch. 2 § 2.

of Oleron in 1826; lastly, the inhabitants of St. Cyprian near Perpignan, found a whale on the shores of the Mediterranean in 1828, which, according to their measurement, was sixty-three feet in length.

The terrestrial mollusca might be passed over in silence, if several species, valuable as delicacies, or useful as remedies in pectoral affections, were not included among the *helices*^a or snails. Three different species,^b common in the fields of southern France, together with the *Helix pomatia*,^c the most common of them all, since it is found in every vineyard, the shagreen snail that frequents the gardens, and the nemoral snail^d of the meadows and fields, are those that are eaten, or which furnish the materials for broths and cosmetics. Immense numbers of them are consumed in Alsace and Saintonge; from the last province alone, snails are in some years exported to the amount of L.1000;^e they are even sent to the Antilles.

The fishing of marine mollusca forms a much more important branch of industry; the horse-foot oyster (*Ostrea hippopus*), common on the coast near Boulogne sur Mer, is by no means considered the best sort of oyster. The common oyster (*Ostrea edulis*) is so much prized, that the quantity consumed every year in Paris, is equal in value to L.42,000.^f The departments of the Lower Charente, the Channel and Calvados, are those in which the best kinds are taken. The common muscle (*Mytilus edulis*) is a valuable food to the lower orders on some of the French coasts. The crustacea, too, are very useful for the same purpose. The *Portunus velutinus* and the *Cancer pagurus*,^g form partly the nourishment of the people in the seaports and on the coasts. The lobster (*Astacus marinus*), and another species (*Palinurus vulgaris*), remarkable for its great size and its brown and yellow colour, appear on the tables of the wealthy Parisians.

Several noxious insects are found in France, some of which are indigenous to the country. Among these are a particular species of weevil,^h very destructive to grain; the European and red scorpions,ⁱ which are not unknown in the departments on the coasts of the Mediterranean; and the *black bellied lycosa*, a sort of tarantula spider, which is observed in the same part of the kingdom, and which is very similar to the one concerning which so many fables have been related in Italy. The commercial relations between France and India have been the means of transporting others from the latter country; among these are the aphid, which destroys the apple tree, and two species of *termites* or white ants, the *Termes lucifugum* and *T. flavicolle*, which are mostly confined to Provence and the neighbourhood of Bordeaux, where they devour the timber in the houses and naval arsenals. Although not numerous, other insects are very useful; the bee enables the inhabitants of the southern provinces to export a great quantity of honey; the silk-worm, habituated to the climate, since the time that Louis the Eleventh planted the mulberry tree in France, forms by its products part of the riches of Dauphiny. The weight of the raw silk thus obtained by the French manufactories, is estimated at 5,200,000 kilogrammes.^k The winged insect

that forms the gall nut, adds very considerably to the value of the oaks in the southern departments, and the cantharides furnish one of the most powerful agents that are used in medicine.

It now remains for us to give a short account of the most useful domestic animals in France, and thus terminate the few remarks that have been made concerning the animal kingdom in that country. The breeds of horses, to which little attention has hitherto been paid, might be greatly improved, so as to rival the finest that are known in Europe. Government has proposed to encourage the crossing of different breeds, and if the judicious plans which it has formed, be carried into effect, the results that may be reasonably expected, must be attended with great advantage. Good cavalry and post horses are bred in the departments of the Somme, the Straits of Calais, the Ardennes, and the Upper and Lower Rhine; but the horses in the departments of the Seine and Oise, the Aisne, and the Seine and Marne, are better fitted for artillery. The best carriage and saddle horses are from the departments of the Orne and Calvados; they belong to the breed which is said to have been introduced into France by the Danes, who under the name of Normans, settled in the country. The horses in the departments of the Maine and Loire, the Sarthe, the Eure and Loir, the Drome, the Isere, the Higher Alps, the Upper Saone, the Doubs, and Jura, are better adapted for light cavalry. The horses of Morbihan and Corsica are by no means remarkable for their symmetry, but they are said to be almost indefatigable. Other breeds in the departments of the Ain, the Cote d'Or, the Saone and Loire, the Allier and the Nievre, are equally reputed for the same qualities; but the best horses both for strength and swiftness are bred in some parts of southern France. The Limousin breed is confined to the departments of the Correze, the Upper Vienne, Cantal, Puy de Dome, and the Dordogne. The horses, known by the name of *Navarrins*, are most common in the Eastern and Lower Pyrenees, but they are also bred in the departments of the Aveyron, the Lot, the Gers and the Arriege.

The French ass must be considered a degenerate animal, if compared with the asses of Spain and Italy; one breed however, in the department of the Vienne, forms an exception; it is remarkable for its long hair and great size, almost equal to that of a mule.

It is believed that there are not fewer than twelve or fifteen kinds of oxen in France. Those in the departments of the Upper Vienne, the Charente and the Lower Charente, are most probably of the same breed; they are of a pale reddish^l colour; their horns are long, large and tapering, their weight varies from six hundred to eight hundred and fifty pounds.^m The oxen in the departments of the Creuse, the Indre and the Cher, are for the most part of a light colour;ⁿ they weigh from five hundred to seven hundred pounds. In the department of the Gironde, the oxen are of a dirty white colour; they are heavier than the two last kinds. In the departments of Cantal and Puy de Dome, they are mostly of a red colour with short and white horns;

^a *G. Helix*, Linn. The translator calls them *helecites*, a name which has no existence in the nomenclature of natural history, nor in any other language. Fossil snails are called *helicites*.—P.

^b *H. variabilis*, *H. rhodostoma*, and *H. vermiculata*.

^c Common edible snail, the *cochlea* of the ancients.—P.

^d *H. nemoralis*—Girdled snail, Donovan.

^e "More than 20,000 francs."

^f "Nearly 1,000,000 francs."

^g "Tourteau"—common crab. ^h *Curculio granarius*.

ⁱ "Tourteau"—common crab.

^j *Scorpio Europæus* and *S. Occitanus*.

^k The kilogramme is equal to a thousand grammes; the gramme is nearly equal to 19 grains. Tr. [The gramme is equal to 18.827 French grains, or 15.4441 grains Troy.—P.]

^l "blond roux," light red.—The prevalent colour of the cattle in France is a pale reddish, or rather a cream colour. Ed. Encyc.

^m Ninety-one and a half of these pounds are equal to 100 lbs. Avoirdupois. Tr.

ⁿ "blond pale," light yellow.

they weigh from five hundred and fifty to eight hundred and fifty pounds. The oxen in the department of the Saone and Loire, are as heavy as those in the Upper Vienne. The oxen in the departments of the Lower Loire and the Maine and Loire are grey, black, dark brown and chestnut-coloured; many of them are equal in weight to nine hundred pounds. In Morbihan, they are small and spotted; they weigh rarely above five hundred pounds. A breed of low oxen, not uncommon in the department of the Sarthe, has the advantage of being easily fattened. The other kinds differ so little from those which have been already mentioned, that it requires a good judge to distinguish them. They are not all reared in the countries in which they are produced; thus few are bred in Lower Normandy, but very many are fattened in its rich pastures.

Sufficient attention has not been paid in France to the breeding of sheep; at all events, the wool in the country is still inferior to that of Saxony. Sheep are more numerous in the ancient province of Berry than in any other part of the kingdom. Those bred in the country round Beauvais are very large, but the sheep in Burgundy and the Ardennes are better for the table. The best kinds are those on the sandy coasts of the maritime provinces. The sheep of Roussillon are very like the merinos in the fineness of their wool. The advantages that result from crossing the different Spanish and French breeds have been already sufficiently proved; still, however, that branch of rural economy is neglected, such are the effects of ignorance and prejudice.

Three different breeds of pigs are common in different parts of France. The pure breed, as it is called, existed in the country in the time of the Celts, and is still preserved in Normandy; it may be fattened until it attains to a great weight; some of them weigh from three hundred to four hundred pounds; it is distinguished by its small head, narrow ears and white colour. The pigs of the Poitou breed are not so large, neither are they so well made; they are remarkable for large heads, broad pendent ears and long

white hair. A third breed in Perigord differs from the others in the roughness of its coat, and in its black colour. The other kinds are sprung from these three breeds; they resemble more or less one or other of them, and differ principally in their colour, black being prevalent in the south, white in the north, and black and white in Central France. A great many pigs are bred in the departments of the Upper Rhine, the Moselle, the Meuse, the Aube, the Marne and the Lower Pyrenees.

The poultry in some of the departments are not the least valuable of their products; *the cock and hen of Caux* form a distinct variety; to ascertain its superiority, it is necessary to partake of the excellent fowls that are fattened in the neighbourhood of Barbezieux, La Fleche and Mans. The ash-coloured goose (*Anser cinereus*),^a the type of the domestic goose, attains a great size in Lower Languedoc; there are many of them also in the departments of the Lower Rhine and the Upper Garonne and in others in Western France. The best ducks, it is said, are those in Lower Normandy and Languedoc. The manner in which the goose and duck are fed in some departments, renders their livers excessively large, and gives them a delicacy that gourmands are able to appreciate. The geese round Strasbourg, and the ducks round Toulouse, are thus tortured to gratify the corrupt tastes of the Parisians.

That different branches of rural economy require to be improved, must be admitted from the fact that the number of domestic animals is not sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants. France imports every year on an average about 23,000 horses, 900 asses, 800 mules, 40,000 oxen, 167,500 sheep, 4700 goats, 148,800 pigs, 5,800,000 raw hides, 5,900,000 kilogrammes of fine and coarse wool, and a great quantity of feathers. Such imports, amounting in value to nearly L.2,000,000,^{b,c} say very little for rural industry, which instead of being dependent in any way on foreign countries, ought to swell the tide of exportation from France.

^a The common domestic goose is derived from a wild species of a grey colour, with the back brown shaded with grey, (*Anser cinereus*, Mayer.) Cuvier.—P.

^b "—at least 45,000 000 francs."

^c See the memoir by M. Senac, entitled: *Projet de Société d'Amélioration des animaux domestiques*, inserted in the Bulletin Universel des Sciences et de l'Industrie: section des Sciences Agricoles, 1826.

BOOK CXLII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Kingdom of France.—First Section.—Southern region.

SOME account has been given in a preceding book of the people from whom the French are descended; it has been seen that their chiefs have added to their power by conquests, and that in some instances they have wielded the destinies of Europe. The resources which France derives from its climate, soil and natural wealth, were enumerated in the last book. Such at least was the end proposed in describing the country in its connexion with historical and physical geography. It now remains for us to examine France in detail,—a task not without difficulty. It would be desirable to adhere to the accuracy and precision which ought to be the basis of topography, and at the same time to avoid unnecessary repetition in naming the departments, districts^a and chief towns, which, unlike the old governments and provinces, have not the advantage of being connected with historical associations, but which have contributed to render the population more homogeneous. The artificial division by which France is made to consist of five regions, those of the south, the east, the centre, the west and the north, appears on the whole to be the best, or at least the one by which its chorography may be the most conveniently explained. Besides, the same method has been established by custom, it is familiar to a great many persons, and it is also useful in another point of view, for the old and new divisions may thus be made to coincide with tolerable accuracy. The same route that has been followed in the last book, namely, the one from the south to the east and north, may be continued in the present.

Corsica is the largest French department in point of extent, but one of the least in point of population.^b Placed between Italy, Spain and France, civilization and industry may one day render it a very advantageous commercial and maritime station; indeed when European states acknowledge the folly of maintaining colonies, long since proved to be more onerous than profitable, France may find in the

^a "Arrondissements."—The kingdom of France is divided into eighty-six departments, and these again are subdivided into districts, called *arrondissements (arrondissemens communaux)*. For the purposes of civil administration, each department constitutes a prefecture, and each *arrondissement* a subprefecture, (with the exception of the *arrondissements* of Paris;) but the prefect of the department performs the duties of subprefect in the *arrondissement* in which he resides, (viz. that including the chief town of the department.) The *arrondissements* consist of a greater or less number of communes, each of which has a mayor and communal municipality. A commune is sometimes a single town, and sometimes a union of several small towns or villages. The city of Paris constitutes only a single commune, but it is divided into twelve *arrondissements*, each of which has its mayor. It also forms only a single subprefecture, under the immediate control of the prefect of the department. For judicial purposes, the *arrondissements* are divided into districts (*cantons* or *justices de paix*), each of

fruitful soil of Corsica, and in its climate, well adapted for colonial produce, a source of wealth that requires apparently only an enlightened government to be realized.

When the traveller, who quits the coasts of France for the port of Ajaccio, first observes the island, it has the appearance of an enormous pyramid formed by mountains, which, from the effect of distance, seem to be grouped round each other. Ajaccio,^c the chief town or the residence of the prefect, is not the largest of the Corsican cities. Bastia, which was formerly styled the capital of the island, is the most populous; but Ajaccio is considered the most ancient, for it was the seat of a bishopric at so early a period as the sixth century. It is true that the miasms from a neighbouring marsh, made the inhabitants determine to abandon the place in the year 1435, so that the present Ajaccio is distant about a mile^d from the site of the ancient town. The streets are broad and straight, the houses are not without elegance, the palace of the prefect^e is at once a simple and imposing edifice, the barracks are large, the harbour is spacious and convenient, and the entrance into it is guarded by a citadel. The places connected with education, by so much the more necessary as the inhabitants are still bigoted to their prejudices and ancient customs, are a college, a library of 13,000 volumes, a botanical garden, and an agricultural society. A large edifice is at present building to serve as an hospital,^f an asylum for foundlings, and a school for young girls. The commerce of the town consists in the sale of the oil and wine produced in the neighbouring country, and in the coral which is obtained on the southern coasts. Ajaccio is likely to be for ever memorable, for Napoleon Bonaparte was born within its walls in 1769. Urcino, a small anchorage in the gulf of Sagona, at some leagues to the north of Ajaccio, indicates the site of *Urcinium*, a Roman town, once well known on account of its earthen vases, in which the ancients kept their Falemian. Ajaccio is the residence of the bishop and the prefect; but Bastia, situated at the opposite extremity on the coast front-

which has a justice of peace (*juge de paix*.) These districts are in general composed of a greater or less number of communes, but in the commune of Paris, each *arrondissement* constitutes a judicial district.—P.

^b Corsica was at first divided into two departments, that of the Golo, comprehending the north, (Bastia, the capital,) and that of the Liamone, comprehending the south part of the island, (Ajaccio, the capital.) (See Peuchet, *Statistique de la France*, 1805.) It now forms only one department, that of Corsica. This union took place under the imperial government. (*Almanach Impérial*, 1813, p. 388.)—P.

^c Ajazzo.

^d "One third of a league"—nearly a league (Ed. Encyc.—Encyc. Method.)

^e "Hôtel de la préfecture"—government house.

^f "Hospice civil"—alms-house.

ing Italy, is the residence of the commander in chief.^a As a fortified town, it is considered as belonging to the first class; it has a college and a theatre. A society for the purpose of diffusing instruction^b has of late years been instituted. It is not so well built as Ajaccio, but as it is constructed in the form of an amphitheatre, it has a better appearance at a distance; its harbour can only receive small vessels, but commerce and industry place it above its rival; it carries on a trade in soap, paste, wax, liqueurs^c and other articles. The burgh of Mariana at four leagues to the south, near the banks of the Golo, stands on the site of an ancient town, which bore the same name, and which according to tradition was founded by Marius.

The other towns in the island are of less consequence. Calvi on the western coast is defended by a fortress, and its anchorage might contain a large fleet. St. Florent^d is situated at three leagues to the west of Bastia, and Porto Vecchio on the eastern coast is noted for its good wine and granite quarries. These places, as well as Bonifacio, at the southern extremity of the island, which carries on a trade in wine, oil and coral, are provided with convenient and safe harbours. Sartene, situated at the base of the heights, which command the left bank of the Valinco, has been entitled a subprefecture. Corte, almost in the centre of the island, near the confluence of the Orta and the Tavignano, is a poor and ill built town; its isolated situation in a mountainous district at a comparatively great distance from the sea, prevents the increase of its commerce, which consists merely in agricultural products.

The passage boats between the island of Corsica and France were by no means remarkable for their celerity, but since the commencement of the year 1830, steam vessels have sailed regularly, and the communication between the two countries, has in consequence been much facilitated.^e The mouth of the Var may be seen from the vessels as they approach the port of Antibes; the lower part of the same river serves as a boundary between the kingdom of France and the county of Nice, now dependent on the Sardinian crown. The department of the Var forms part of Provence, the earliest conquest of the Romans in Gaul, and by the same people called *Provincia*, an appellation from which the modern name has been derived. Antibes, a place of great antiquity, the *Antipolis* of the ancients, was founded 340 years before the vulgar era by the Greek colonists that built Marseilles. Augustus made it a municipal town, but before his time it must have been a place of some consequence, since it had its theatre and other public buildings, of which the ruins still remain. Trade animated its harbour, and the tunny fisheries furnished employment to many individuals. Although it has now lost its commerce,^f it is still important as a military station. As a strong town it belongs to the third class; such as it is, however, it may oppose a barrier to the invasions which threaten France from the Sardinian frontier. The island of St. Marguerite rises between the gulfs of Juan and Napoule; its strong castle, once a state prison, served as a place of confinement for the mysterious

prisoner with the iron mask. Cannes, where Napoleon landed in 1815, may be mentioned among the maritime towns in the department of the Var; sixteen years before that period, he disembarked at Frejus on his return from Egypt.^g The last town, although small, is larger than Cannes;^h it was the ancient *Forum Julii*, a place embellished by Julius Cæsar and Augustus, but probably founded, like Antibes, by a Greek colony. The name by which it was known before it became the station of the eighth Roman legion, has long been forgotten; still, however, monuments and ruins are not wanting to attest its ancient splendour. The harbour, twice as large as the harbour of Marseilles, was the largest in Gaul. Agricola, the father-in-law of Tacitus, was born in the same place, now an inconsiderable town, whose inhabitants have to contend against an unwholesome atmosphere and a marshy situation. St. Tropez, on the gulf of Grimaud, at the distance of five leagues from Frejus, is remarkable on the other hand for its salubrious climate. Its harbour is defended by a citadel, and in its dockyards are built the fishing-boats that are used on the coast; it stands on the site of *Heraclea Caccabaria*, well known for its temple of Hercules. Hieres,ⁱ like the last place, is famed for a mild and salubrious climate,^k and also for the excellent oranges produced in the vicinity.

Toulon, it has been said, was founded by the Roman general Telo Martius,^l about the middle of the fourth century; it was famous during the reign of Arcadius for different dyes, particularly purple. The harbour, one of the largest in Europe, is divided into two parts, namely, the old, finished by Henry the Fourth, and the new, constructed by Louis the Fourteenth; they communicate with each other by means of a canal. The careening wharf,^m three hundred feet long and one hundred broad, the rope walk, an arched building 1572 feet in length, the arsenal, the ship yards, the foundery and the sail manufactory are the most important places in the town. Toulon stands near the base of a hill, which commands it on the north. The streets are narrow and the squares irregular; one of the last, however, called the Field of Battle, forms an exception; it is spacious and elegant, and adorned with a double range of trees. The principal balcony in the town-house is supported by two grotesque figures of colossal size, the work of the celebrated Puget; it is said that the artist wished to represent two consulsⁿ by whom he was disappointed in a favourite project. The town was partly destroyed by the Arabs about the end of the tenth century; having been rebuilt by the counts of Marseilles, it was twice ruined in the twelfth century by the Mahometans. The duke of Savoy, aided by the English and the Dutch, besieged it in vain about the beginning of the eighteenth century. The Spaniards and the English, availing themselves of the civil dissensions in France, found bribery and intrigue more successful weapons in 1793; but they did not keep it long; at the end of a few months, they were driven to their ships by the young soldier, who afterwards filled Europe with his fame. The chevalier Paul, who was born in the town, rose in the course of the last century from a very

^a "General commanding the division"—Governor of the military division consisting of the island of Corsica, (the seventeenth, 1822).—P.

^b "Société d'instruction publique."

^c These articles are enumerated in the original, among the manufactures of Bastia. The translator has here adopted the same indefinite language, as in a former part of the Geography.—P.

^d San Fiorenzo.

^e The original (Tom. VIII) published in 1829, states that the establishment of steam packets was contemplated in 1830.—P.

^f "At present, only small vessels can enter its harbour."

^g He landed at Frejus, Oct. 9, 1799—at Cannes, March 1, 1815.—P.

^h This is not stated in the original. Population of Cannes (1822) 2804—of Frejus, 1943. (Almanach Royal, 1822).—P.

ⁱ "Hyères," Hières.

^k "Hières is noted for the mildness of its climate." Hières is celebrated for the mild temperature of its winters, but is reckoned unhealthy from May to October. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^l *Telo Martius* was the ancient name of Toulon.—P.

^m "Bassin de carénage"—dry dock.

ⁿ See note ^k p. 905.

humble station, that of a common sailor, to be vice-admiral of France.

The country round Toulon is adorned with groves of lemon, olive and date trees, and villas are scattered in different directions. Beyond them on the road to Marseilles, is situated the pass of *Ollioules*,^a a wild valley enclosed by arid heights; in some places, their precipitous and abrupt sides appear as if they were about to fall; in others they are like the ruins of ancient ramparts. The road across the Moorish mountains, so called from the devastations committed by African pirates, as late as the reign of Louis the Twelfth, leads to Brignolles, a small town, situated in a pleasant country. The purity of the air, its position on the side of a hill near the fruitful valley of Calami, abounding in grain and wine, render it perhaps the most agreeable residence in the department. Although it contains several manufactories, the principal trade consists in dried plums, which are transported into different countries. It is said to have been founded before the Christian era; it was the birth-place of St. Louis, bishop of Toulon,^b and grand nephew to St. Louis the Ninth. A rich plain extends between Brignolles and Draguignan, the capital of the department; in the same plain are produced the large chestnuts that are sold in Paris.^c Draguignan is watered by several fountains, and traversed by the Pis, a small river; the principal curiosities are a botanical garden, a good library and a museum of natural history. At two leagues from it, is situated Grasse, a much more important place both in point of population and industry; it stands on the side of a hill, commanding a view of fields and gardens, where the orange, the jessamine and the rose mingle their perfume. Swarms of bees, a source of wealth in that part of the country, find in these and other flowers abundant nourishment, while the inhabitant extracts from them the juices that are converted into liqueurs or essences, and sold in every quarter of the world.

Castellane, now well known for its dried fruits and prunes, is the first town in the department of the Lower Alps on the road from Grasse to Digne. On account of its salt springs, one of which is large enough to turn a mill, it obtained in ancient times the name of *Salina*. Digne,^d an ancient city that Cæsar calls *Digna*,^{e f} is situated in the midst of mountains, that might afford an ample harvest to the mineralogist and the botanist. It consists of steep and narrow streets, enclosed by old walls, and flanked with square turrets. The palaces belonging to the prefect and the bishop, together with the cathedral, are the only public buildings, and they are nowise remarkable. The thermal springs in the vicinity, to which the ancients repaired,^g are visited during the summer and autumn^h by people from different parts of Italy and France.ⁱ The small village of Champtercier near the town, has been rendered famous as the birthplace of the celebrated Gassendi, a philosopher, an astronomer and the rival of Descartes. Colmars may be mentioned on account of a fountain, the water of which flows and intermits alternately every seven minutes. The rich valley of Barcelonette affords pasturage to numerous flocks of sheep, and to many herds of oxen; it derives its name from a small town built in 1230, on the site of a Roman city, by count Raymond Berenger, and as his ancestors had migrated from Barcelona,

^a "*Gorges d'Ollioules.*"

^b Born A. D. 1274.

^c "—by the name of Lyons chestnuts (*marrons de Lyon.*)"

^d "Dignes."

^e *Digna inter Montes posita.* Cæsar, De Bello Gallico

^f *Dinia*, D'Anv. Encyc. Method.

^g They are mentioned by Ptolemy and Pliny.

the place was called *Barcelonette*. *Segustero*, a Latin name of Celtic origin, announces the antiquity of Sisteron at the confluence of the Buech and the Durance. The river, confined in the town between the two rocks on which the fortress of La Beaume rises, flows rapidly below a lofty arch, to which the same rocks serve as buttments. The principal altar in the cathedral is adorned with a fine painting by Vanloo, and at no great distance from the building, a walk laid out with much taste, leads to one of the gates on the road to Aix.^k Albertet, a Provençal poet who flourished in the thirteenth century, was born in Sisteron; he was still more unfortunate than Petrarch, for he actually died of love; the object of his passion was Laura, the beautiful marchioness of Malespina. It might be difficult to account for the origin of a singular custom that exists in the country between Sisteron and Digne; the peasants wrap their dead in a winding sheet, place them on the roofs of their huts, and cover them with snow, during winter. Claudius Tiberius Nero, sent by Cæsar into Narbonensis, founded there a small town, called *Forum Neronis*, on the site of which stands Forcalquier, the capital of a subprefecture, a dirty and ill built town on a rock, commanded by the ruins of an ancient castle.

Several ancient monuments have been observed in the same department; an inscription on a rock near Sisteron, informs the antiquary that Dardanus and Neva Gallia, his wife, introduced the custom of interring the dead in vaults at *Theopolis*, the present village of Theoux. A bridge attributed to Cæsar, and a building called the tower of *Ænobarbus*, are still seen near the village of Cereste, five leagues distant from Forcalquier. The ruins of several ancient temples are situated near the small town of Riez.

The department of the Mouths of the Rhone^l contains too a thousand objects, which recal ancient recollections. In the neighbourhood of St. Remy, are observed a triumphal arch erected to Marius, and a mausoleum fifty feet in height. Aix, formerly the capital of Provence, was founded a hundred and twenty years before the vulgar era by the consul Caius Sextius Calvinus, near the mineral springs which he himself had discovered, and on account of which he gave the name of *Aque Sextiæ* to the town. It became soon afterwards a place of importance; the emperor Tiberius raised a temple there to the memory of Augustus; it had its senate and a body of decurions.^m Many objects of antiquity have been discovered in the same place, the most of which are collected in the town-house. Several edifices are remarkable for their sculptures and architecture, which are connected with the rise of art in modern times. Such is the cathedral, of which the baptistery, constructed with the remains of a Roman temple, forms one of the most beautiful ornaments. The town-clock near the fountain in the market-place, was erected during the middle ages; it is curious on account of its mechanism; springs put in motion different figures, every time the hammer strikes the bell. The streets are paved, and many of the houses are well built. The Orbitelle, a public walk, is formed by four rows of trees, and adorned with several fountains. The counts of Provence resided at Aix, and made it the seat of a court, where gallantry and politeness reigned, where poetry was

^h "From the first of May to the first of September."

ⁱ For the quality and properties of these waters, the reader may consult the statistical tables.

^k "La porte d'Aix"—the gate of Aix.

^l "Bouches du Rhone."

^m The senators of the Roman colonies were called decurions (*decuriones*.) Adam's Rom. Ant. p. 79.—P.

admired and cultivated, and where the troubadours were respected. It is still a university town, where students may find ample means of instruction; it possesses an academy, schools of law and theology, several scientific collections, and a library of 80,000 volumes. In 1819, the mayor laid the foundation of a monument in honour of king René, whose memory must be forever dear to the people of Provence; but if the inhabitants were to raise monuments to each of their celebrated townsmen, the walks and public places might acquire additional interest from the statues of Tournefort, Vanloo, Adanson, Vauvenargues and Entrecasteaux. The glory which these distinguished men shed over the town, may console it for having given birth to the president D'Oppède, whose sad celebrity is still preserved in the annals of fanaticism. The procession on Corpus-Christi day attracts many idle persons to Aix; it is a strange medley of sacred and profane ceremonies, of saints and devils with long horns; in fine, a ridiculous masquerade, in which the principal characters are sustained by the clergy and municipal authorities. The procession was abolished during the revolution, and afterwards renewed; but it would have been well to have discontinued part of the ceremonies, inconsistent with the ideas of the age, and the respect due to religion.

The country in the neighbourhood of Marseilles announces a populous and commercial town; it consists of cultivated fields, gardens, vineyards, and country houses or villas, of which the number is not less than 5000. Surrounded with manufactories, and built on the declivity of a hill, and in a plain that extends to the sea, its situation cannot be compared with that of any other town in France. The old town on the declivity, may give the stranger an unfavourable idea of the place; the finest part of Marseilles is that nearest the sea. Sailors of every nation are seen on the quay; the streets in the same quarter are broad, straight and well paved; a public walk extends round one of the best harbours in the kingdom, sufficiently large to contain twelve hundred vessels, and the noisy centre of the trade which France carries on with the east. The castle of If, an ancient state prison, is the most striking object in view from the summit of Notre Dame de la Garde, but the spectator may also observe institutions and edifices, of which the inhabitants are justly proud, such as the schools of hydrography, medicine, drawing and music, the seminaries where chemistry, geometry, and the mechanical sciences in their application to the arts, are gratuitously taught, the college, the observatory, the mint, the exchange, and the lazaretto, the largest and the best regulated in the kingdom. At the sight of such institutions, one naturally remembers the celebrated *Massilia*, which Cicero called the Athens of Gaul, and Pliny, the mistress of the sciences (*Magistra studiorum*.) It was the native town of Ptolemy, the satirist, Puget, the sculptor, Dumarsais, the grammarian, and Barbaroux, the conventionalist. The climate of Marseilles would be delightful, if the calmness of the atmosphere were not disturbed by the impetuous *mistral*. To the influence of the same wind have been attributed, probably by a stretch of the imagination, the violent character of the people, and their ferocity and cruelty in the time of the revolution.

^a *Arelate*, D'Anville, (Cæsar, De Bell. Civ. Lib. I. § 34.)

^b "Arrondissement."

^c See the Memoir on the ancient republic of Arles by Anibert.

^d The papal palace, situated near the summit of the Rock of Dons

The island of Camargue may be seen from the road that leads to Arles; it is surrounded by the sea and by two branches of the Rhone; it contains nine villages, a great many country houses and nearly three hundred and fifty farms, on which the proprietors or tenants rear annually 40,000 sheep, 3,000 oxen, and as many horses. The royal sheepfold of Armilliere is situated in the island. Arles, the ancient *Arelas*,^a one of the capitals of Gaul, is now the chief town of a district^b in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone. Although thinly peopled and ill-built, it may be considered one of the most remarkable cities in France, both on account of the historical associations connected with it, and the remains of ancient splendour. It is supposed to have been built by the Celts, fifteen hundred years before the Christian era;^c its name has been derived from two Celtic words, *ar* and *lait*, which signify *near the waters*. The antiquary may still perceive several arches and two columns of a theatre, the remains of an amphitheatre in a good state of preservation, the tower of Constantine's palace, a granite obelisk, the only one of the kind in France, besides tombs, altars, statues and other remains which are almost daily excavated. The only modern edifice, worthy of being cited, is the fine town-house erected by Mansard. The trade of Arles consists in the sale of the wines, corn, fruits and oil, produced in the surrounding country. The small town of Tarascon stands on the left bank of the Rhone, by which it is separated from Beaucaire. It is commanded by an ancient castle, formerly a country seat belonging to the counts of Provence, and afterwards changed into a prison.

The course of the Durance from the place where it joins the Verdon to its confluence with the Rhone, separates the last department from that of Vaucluse. Broad and majestic, and rapid as a torrent, the river covers the country with its inundations, but the fertile ooze it deposits, and the canals it supplies, compensate in some measure the waste it occasions. At a short distance from the Durance, and on the banks of the Rhone, Avignon rises in a fruitful plain, embellished with mulberry trees, orchards and meadows. The streets of the city are narrow and crooked; the palace of Crillon, and the ancient apostolic palace^d are two fine Gothic buildings; the cathedral may be remarked for its portal, which is said to have belonged to an ancient temple of Hercules. The useful and charitable institutions are more numerous than might have been expected from the number of inhabitants. Among others there are an hospital, an infirmary,^e a collection of paintings, a museum of natural history, a botanical garden, different schools, a library of 27,000 volumes, and a literary society, called the academy of Vaucluse. It is unnecessary to mention the gaiety of the inhabitants, or the grace and beauty of the women, rivalling or surpassing the fair in most towns of the south; it may be remarked, however, that the low and ignorant part of the community, the same persons that committed in 1815, crimes only equalled by those of the revolution, are now making advances in different branches of industry. Avignon was the native place of the brave Crillon, Vernet, the Abbé Poulle and several men who have shed a lustre on the society of the Jesuits. The town is the mart of the grain produced in

an eminence rising to the height of several hundred feet in the midst of the city.—P.

^e "Succursale des Invalides"—military hospital subordinate to the *Hôtel des Invalides* at Paris.—P.

several of the southern departments; it has also manufactories of silks, cottons, leather and paper. *Avenio*, the ancient name, is of Celtic origin. Pomponius Mela says that in his time the inhabitants were very wealthy.

Apt, a place not less ancient than the last town, was embellished by Cæsar, and bore the name of *Apta Julia*; the present walls are said to have been founded by the Romans. Many ancient remains are contained in the subterranean chapels of the old cathedral; it is watered by the Calavon.

Carpentras, another ancient city, surrounded with old walls, was the *Carpentoracte* of the *Memini*, a tribe of the *Cavares*; it would be much improved if the streets were straight. It was the metropolis of a bishopric, which continued from the third to the nineteenth century; the columns of the principal church, formerly the cathedral, supported the temple of Diana in the burgh of Venasque. The remains of a triumphal arch are situated in the courts of the episcopal palace; it was erected to commemorate the victory which Domitius Ænobarbus gained over the Allobroges and the Arverni. The hospital, the different markets, the public laver, the gate in the direction of Orange,^a surmounted by a lofty tower, and the modern aqueduct, consisting of forty-eight arches, thirty-six feet in width, and forty-five in height, are ornamental to the town. It possesses different manufactories, and carries on a trade in wines and other products of the department.

The celebrated fountain of Vaucluse, one of the finest springs in Europe, is situated at an equal distance from Avignon, Apt and Carpentras. It issues from a large and deep cave at the base of a high hill, that bounds on the south the narrow and winding valley of Vaucluse (*Vallis Clausa*.) An old fig tree below the roof or arch of the cave, serves to indicate the height of the water in the fountain. When it is at the greatest elevation, occasioned by the melted snows about the vernal equinox, it bathes the roots of the tree; the vault or arch of the cavern is then no longer visible, and the calm waters occupy a large basin, almost circular, about sixty feet in diameter. The waters are lowest in the month of October, when they descend to the depth of forty feet below the edge of the basin. The vault of the cave then appears in all its majesty, and the spectator may observe a lake of which the extent is lost in total darkness. Many have descended the sides of the basin to the surface of the limpid water, that fills an abyss, of which the depth has never been measured. Extensive subterranean canals placed above each other, are the passages for the waters formed by the melted snows. Twenty torrents are precipitated with a tremendous noise below the basin; their united streams are the sources of the Sorgues,^b which becomes suddenly navigable for boats, and turns several mills. A majestic column was erected on the edge of the fountain in 1809, by the academy of Vaucluse; it bears the following simple inscription in golden letters—*A Pëtrarque*.^c The naked rocks that encompass the cascade, the pyramidal masses on the right and left, the green sward that covers the neighbouring heights, the old turreted castle on the left bank of the Sorgues, according to tradition, the residence of Petrarch, the verdant trees that shade the river, and the village of Vaucluse, are

some parts of a landscape not inferior to any other in the kingdom. A thousand echos respond to the names of Petrarch and Laura; the sympathy of the young and the fair may console the shade of the poet for the cruelty of his mistress.

Mount Ventoux, near the northern extremity of the department, remains covered with snow eight months in the year. The small town of Vaison at some leagues westward, stands on the ruins of *Vasio*, the principal city of the *Vocontii*. Orange, seven leagues south-west of the last place, contains several manufactories, spinning looms, print fields and madder mills;^d it also carries on a trade in wine, oil, honey and saffron. Before it was taken by Louis the Fourteenth, it was the capital of a principality belonging to the house of Nassau. Before Cæsar's expedition into Gaul, it was one of the four principal towns in the territory of the *Cavares*. Ptolemy designates it by the name of *Arausio*^e *Cavarum*. A triumphal arch at the distance of four hundred paces from the walls, on the road to Marseilles, may bear a comparison with any in Rome. It was erected to commemorate the victory gained by Marius over the Cimbri.

The Rhone forms a western limit throughout the whole length of the department of the Drome; the road on the banks of the river first traverses Pierre-Latté, a small town of which the name signifying a large stone,^f may recal the ancient worship of the Druids, or it may be attributed to the large rock at the foot of which it is built. The agreeable town of Montelimart at five leagues northwards, is encompassed with walls and ramparts, watered by several canals, which supply different manufactories, and commanded by an ancient citadel. It is surrounded with fine meadows, fruitful plains and hills covered with excellent vineyards. The four gates that lead to the town correspond with the four cardinal points. Faujas de St. Fond, a learned professor, who promoted the study of geology, was a native of Montelimart. Valence is situated on the other side of the rapid Drome. It is the chief town of the department, and the residence of the prefect, and although built without regularity, contains some monuments not unworthy of notice; among others, a fine mausoleum in the cathedral, erected by Canova to the memory of Pius the Sixth, who terminated his days at Valence in 1798. The building called the Government House^g is not inelegant in point of architecture. It might be worth while to visit the citadel, were it for nothing else than to enjoy the view along the Rhone, or on the west, towards the mountains of Vivarais. The same city is mentioned in the writings of Ptolemy; it was the *Valentia* of the *Segalauni*. Championnet, a general, who distinguished himself by his victories during the revolutionary period, was born in the town. Die, the ancient *Dea Vocontiorum*, according to the Table of Peutinger, and the Itinerary of Antonine, and a place famous for muscadine wine, stands on the right bank of the Drome, in an agreeable valley enclosed by two chains of mountains, of which the northern is connected with Mount Embel, and the southern with Mount Volvent. Nyons in the southern part of the department, on the banks of the Aigues, carries on a trade in soap, woollen stuffs and silk. The bridge over the river was built by the Romans.

^a "La porte d'Orange"—Orange gate.

^b Sorgue.

^c To Petrarch.

^d "It possesses manufactories of printed cloths, and also silk mills and madder mills."

^e *Arausio*.—P.

^f "Pierre large."

^g "Gouvernement."

A road across the mountains leads to the small town of Scres, on the banks of the Buech, the first in the department of the Higher Alps. The place called *La Batie Mont-St.-Leon*, within a league from its walls in the direction of Gap, is the ancient Mount Scleucus, where in the year 353 of the vulgar era, Constantius gained a complete victory over Magnentius. At a league from Gap, the capital of the department, the peasants show strangers the *Trembling Meadow*,^a a small floating island in the lake of Pelhotiers, formed like every other of the same description by a congeries of vegetables, the surface of which has been changed into a sort of soil, and covered with grass. Gap stands on the site of *Vappicum* or *Vapincum*. Its name announces its early origin; but laid waste by the Lombards and the Arabians, and overthrown by earthquakes, it rises on the ruins of its ancient buildings. The remains, which indicate how much it has fallen, can only be discovered by digging to a great depth. The plague by which many were destroyed in 1630, the revocation of the edict of Nantes which annihilated its industry, and the almost general conflagration in 1692, when it was taken by the duke of Savoy, have reduced the population to less than half the number it possessed in the sixteenth century, when it contained 16,000 inhabitants. It is ill-paved, ill-built, and without any remarkable edifice; indeed, it can only be commended on account of its agreeable position on the banks of two rivulets, the Bonne^b and the Luye, in a small plain bounded by mountains that form a natural amphitheatre. Embrun,^c called *Eborudono* in the Itinerary of Antonine,^d was the seat of a bishopric.^e The episcopal palace is a fine building, but inferior to the cathedral, which, it is said, was erected by Charlemagne. *Eborudono* was the principal city of the *Caturiges*; Nero and Galba conferred on it important privileges, and Valens rendered it a military station.^f

Passing through Montdauphin, a small stronghold^g of five hundred inhabitants, we may follow the road on the banks of the Durance, leave Mount Genevre on the right, and arrive at Briançon, the highest city in France. It was the *Brigantio* of the Romans, under whom it rose to some importance;^h at present however it is so thinly peopled, and so ill built, that it need only be mentioned on account of its impregnable position. It is defended by seven forts that command all the approaches to the town. The Durance, an impetuous torrent, flows at the foot of a precipice 170 feet in height, and separates the town from the principal fortifications which are partly excavated in the rock above the river; a bridge consisting of a single arch 120 feet in width, thrown over the abyss, forms a communication between the fortress and the town. The trade of Briançon consists in woollen and cotton goods, and also in different articles of cutlery.ⁱ

It has been said that there are four climates in the moun-

^a *Pré qui tremble.*

^b Benne (Vosgien)—Beny (Encyc. Method.)

^c It is situated on the right bank of the Durance.

^d *Eborudunum.* (D'Anv.)

^e Archbishopric. (Encyc. Method.)

^f "Nero granted it the right of the Latins (*Jus Latii* vel *Latinitas*.) Galba that of alliance, and Valens rendered it an important military station."

^g "Place forte"—fortified town.

^h "It was ranked among cities of the second order."

ⁱ "It has manufactories of hosiery, cotton goods and hardware."

^k "The mountainous department of the Isere presents several remarkable peculiarities. Four different climates may be distinguished,

namely, those of the arid and the marshy plains, and those of the vallies and the mountains.^k The first are subject in summer to excessive heat and violent winds—the second are exposed to a humid but less elevated temperature. In the deep vallies the variations of the atmosphere are very rapid, still rains and droughts are often of long continuance; during summer, the heat is extreme, while in winter, the cold is very rigorous. Only two seasons, those of summer and winter, are known on the mountains; the latter lasts longer than the former. Among their inhabitants, are observed the same activity and the same industry for which the mountaineers in other European countries are remarkable. The high part of the country is ill provided with wood, but the abundant pastures compensate in some measure for the want of forests; the peasants are thus enabled to rear numerous flocks. The lofty woods in the eastern districts of the department, furnish fuel, timber for building, and masts for ships.

The road which leads from Briançon to Grenoble, extends across a mountainous country, and follows the windings of the Romanche from La Grave, the last village in the Higher Alps, to Vizille, a burgh of no great size, but important on account of its manufactures.^l The forges and iron works that are scattered on the same road, indicate the metallic wealth of the mountains. Leaving the wild and romantic banks of the Drac on the left, we observe the Isere pursuing its sinuous and rapid course at the foot of a chain of heights, covered with vineyards and mulberry trees at their base, and with forests and pastures towards their summits. The same river waters the valley of Gresivaudan, and passes through Grenoble. The lofty ramparts of the town command a fruitful plain, varied with orchards and meadows. The principal public buildings are situated in the part of the town on the left bank of the Isere.^m Among these are the palace of the prefect, and the court of justice. The library belonging to the universityⁿ contains sixty thousand volumes, besides many valuable manuscripts, among others, the poems of the duke of Orleans, the father of Louis the Twelfth. The statues of Bayard, Vaucanson, Condillac and Mably, all natives of Grenoble, are erected in the college. In the schools of law, medicine and surgery, other men, still living, have been educated, who have given proofs of talent sufficient to merit one day a place near the distinguished persons already mentioned. The town carries on a trade in different articles, particularly in gloves, which are said to be the best in France.^o History attests its antiquity; it was the *Cularo* of the ancients;^p ruined in the wars of the Romans, it was rebuilt by the emperor Gratian, who gave it the name of *Gratianopolis*, which has been corrupted into Grenoble.

The burgh of Sassenage, well known for excellent

namely, those of the arid and the marshy plains, and those of the vallies and the mountains."

^l "Print fields and spinning mills."

^m Nine tenths of the city are on the left bank of the Isere.—Ed. Encyc.

ⁿ "College"—Grenoble possesses a university and a royal college.—P.

^o "Its commerce and manufactures are important; among the latter, that of gloves has few rivals in Europe." The principal manufactures of Grenoble are woollen cloths, muslins, hats, and particularly gloves, the principal towns of France, Spain, Italy, and Britain, being supplied with them. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^p "It was one of the cities of the Allobroges, who gave it the name of *Cularo*."

cheese, is situated at the foot of the mountain that rises on the west of Grenoble. Strangers visit there two grottos, rendered famous in past times by popular superstition; with-in them are two cylindrical excavations, called the Vats of Sassenage,^a in both of which the water rises spontaneously, and according to the height it reaches, the peasants used to presage the scarcity or abundance of the harvest. These grottos, well worthy of being seen, are not so frequently visited at present, probably because imposture works no longer on ignorance and credulity. A rugged and difficult path leads to them; the entrance is about twenty-five feet broad, and as many in height; beyond it, a sort of porch forty feet wide and seventy long,^b terminates in several caverns; the torrent of Germe issues from the largest, and forms a cascade, of which the noise is heard in the subterranean cavities.

Although the direct distance to the frozen summits of Mont Blanc exceeds twenty-five leagues, they may be distinctly seen from the heights above Grenoble. The Great Chartreuse^c lies in the same direction, a monastery formerly considered the capital of the rich and rigid order founded by St. Bruno in the year 1084. It has taken its name not from the founder, but from the village of *Chartreuse*, situated near the valley, where the pious anchorite chose his retreat, and where his disciples built their convent. It is enclosed at the two extremities by mountain-passes extending between rugged and almost vertical cliffs covered with fir trees and brambles; in certain seasons of the year, particularly in spring, those who visit it must be prepared to brave dangers at every step; enormous rocks rising on the right and on the left afford but an insecure support to other rocks that are lost in the clouds. The precipices are in some places, more than four hundred feet in perpendicular height; the voice of the guides and the cries of animals are drowned in the noise of torrents. The stranger must traverse a narrow pass below the cataract of Guiers-Vif, on the slippery declivity of an immense rock, that separates the mass of water from the abyss into which it descends. These difficulties, almost insurmountable while the snow melts, cease generally about the middle of summer. But the journey in every season is very fatiguing; a winding road encumbered with large stones or broken rocks terminates in the obscurity of a forest, in which the traveller ascends constantly until he observes the convent; the road then begins to descend, and the valley becomes broader, and at the same time the forest opens, and the fir gives place to the beech. An edifice of a simple and noble architecture in such a situation, is not likely to be seen for the first time without feelings of devotion. These walls were respected at the revolution, when religious houses were destroyed. The people in these mountains have not forgotten the blessings which the successors of St. Bruno diffused among the poor; they furnished employment to every inhabitant, they encouraged agriculture, and they changed part of a desert into meadows and fruitful fields; under their superintendance, the forests were preserved, the flocks multiplied in the vallies. Now set-

^a "Cuves de Sassenage."

^b "More than 40 feet in height and depth, and 70 feet in width."

^c La Grande Chartreuse. ^d "The venerable."

^e See "Les Merveilles et les Beautés de la Nature en France," by M. Depping, who relates the above anecdote on the authority of M. Ladoucette, formerly prefect of the Isere.

^f In the year 1670.

led again in their ancient residence, if they no longer possess the influence which was acquired partly by their wealth, they still retain an ascendancy that must be attributed to exemplary virtue, benevolence and charity.

It may not perhaps be worth while to describe all the remarkable places in the neighbourhood of Grenoble; a few detached features may suffice to give the stranger some idea of the country. The hamlet of Andrieux in the valley of Godmard is so much concealed by steep rocks, that the inhabitants never see the sun during three months of winter. When the luminary appears for the first time after so long an absence, all the people, according to an ancient custom, follow the oldest person^d to a bridge in the vicinity; every person carries an omelet, and the return of the sun is celebrated by dances. As soon as it appears, the omelets are presented as an offering; the band then returns to the village, and the festival terminates in mirth and drinking.^e The burgh of Echelles to the north of the Great Chartreuse, stands near the limits between France and Savoy, and not far from the excellent road cut through the rocks by Charles Emmanuel,^f and improved by Napoleon. At a greater distance, Pont de Beauvoisin on the banks of the Guiers, is the last town in France. La Tour du Pin is situated on the same road, in a fertile valley. Near the village of *Notre Dame de la Balme*, on the left bank of the Rhone, the entrance to a cave has been changed into a chapel, and dedicated to the Virgin. The interior consists of several halls adorned with beautiful stalactites, and with cascades, canals and a small lake, where strangers may sail in a boat by the light of torches; and if it were not that the place was sanctified, for it belongs to the chapel, the boat might be compared to the one in which the shades of heathens are transported to the infernal regions.

Confined between the left bank of the Rhone and a series of heights arranged in the form of an amphitheatre, and watered by the Gere, which gives motion to machinery, Vienne, consisting formerly of dirty and winding streets, has been lately embellished with many new buildings. The modern front of the town-house adorns the principal square; the portal and nave of the ancient cathedral are works of considerable merit. The town possesses a library of 12,000 volumes, a theatre, a college, a museum of natural history, and a collection of valuable antiquities, discovered within the walls. It was the *Vienna* and *Vindobona*^g of the ancients, and had risen into importance in the time of Cæsar;^h Strabo styles it the capital of the Allobroges;ⁱ Ptolemy considers it their only city,^k and Pliny calls it a colony.^l According to Pomponius Mela, it was one of the most opulent cities in Gaul. Literature was cultivated, and the poet Martial congratulates himself on the success which his writings met with in the town.^m Under the reign of Claudius, the prefect of Gaul, and the commander of the fleet, which the Romans kept on the Rhone, resided at Vienne. The emperors built a palace in the town, and it was there that Valentinian was strangled in the year 392. It became the capital of the Burgundian

^g *Vienna* was the ancient name of Vienne in France, and *Vindobona* of Vienna in Austria.—P.

^h De Bello Gallico, lib. vii. § 9.

ⁱ Lib. iv. cap. i. § 9.

^l Lib. iii. cap. 4.

^m Fertur habere meos, si vera est fama, libellos

Inter delicias pulchra Vienna suas.—Lib. VII. Epigr. 83.

kingdom in 432; but the Franks made themselves masters of it in 534. It was taken in the year 871 by Charles the Bald, after a siege that lasted several months. Pope Clement the Fifth, in presence of Philip the Fair, assembled within the walls a council, memorable in the history of fanaticism, for the unjust condemnation of the Templars. In the time of Eusebius, Lyons and Vienne were the two most important metropolitan cities in France; the archbishop of the latter town was long entitled first primate of Gaul. If the edifices for which the place was remarkable, have been destroyed, it may be attributed to the blind zeal of the early Christians, and the devastations occasioned by war: still, however, there are the remains of a theatre, the ruins of an aqueduct and an amphitheatre, a temple dedicated to Augustus, and a triumphal arch. The church of Notre-Dame de la Vie is an ancient edifice, supposed to have been the *Prætorium*. According to several antiquaries, the bridge which serves as a communication between the town and the suburb was built by the Romans, as well as fort Pipet; but some parts of the latter are evidently of Gothic architecture. The most celebrated persons born in Vienne are the poet Claudian and pope Guy,^a surnamed Clement the Fourth. Now the capital of a prefecture, it holds some rank among the manufacturing towns in France; it has cloth manufactories and iron works, and carries on besides a considerable trade in leather.^b La Côte de St. André, a populous burgh, near the banks of the Frette, derives great profit from the sale of liqueurs and light sparkling white wines. St. Marcellin, well built and agreeably situated, is enriched by the produce of the neighbouring vineyards.

The Ardeche has given its name to the department which it traverses in an easterly direction, and which it also bounds on the south near its confluence with the Rhone; the same department is limited on the east, in the direction of its length, by the Rhone, while on the west, the chain of Mezin,^c and the mountains of Sone and Tanargue, form part of the frontiers. Thus within the same limits was almost wholly contained the ancient province of Vivarais, which long before the invasion of the Romans, was called *Helvia*. In conformity to an etymology, that may be admitted, because it accords with the nature of the country, the ancient name of the province might signify *a road in the mountains*.^d But etymologists have certainly gone too far in deriving the name of the Ardeche from the same root as the Latin word *ardere* (to burn). To suppose that the mountains of Auvergne and Vivarais, almost all of which bear the marks of igneous origin, emitted flames when man inhabited those regions or other neighbouring countries, is to indulge in conjectures wholly at variance with facts. Not the least important of these facts may be considered the discovery of the fossil bones belonging to different animals under the basaltic currents near Issoire in Auvergne,^e—bones in which nothing has been found to announce the existence of man at the period when the basalt covered the place where these remains were deposited. If the ancient names of certain mountains accord with the notion of their ignition, it is because they preserved their heat,

^a Guy Foulquois, Foulquez or Fouquet—elected pope A. D. 1265.—P.

^b "It has cloth manufactories, tanneries, and establishments for working the metals obtained in the department."—It has manufactories of cloth, steel, copper, paper, glass, salt and nitre. (Vosgien).—P.

^c From *mezing*, a word in the old patois, which signifies middle.

^d In the ancient Celtic languages, *hel* and *bel* signify elevation, height, and *ria*, like *weg*, a way or road.

smoke or other signs of incandescence, long after the flames had disappeared, or because the dark colour of volcanic products leads the most ignorant persons to compare them with objects which have undergone the action of fire. Thus basalt,^f an eastern word, signifies burnt stone, from its dark color, although the ancients applied that name to a rock, which they did not consider a lava, and which in reality differs from the basalt of geologists.

The physical geography of the same department is less understood than that of almost any other in France. It owes its peculiar character to the volcanic conflagrations, of which it was once the theatre, and to the decomposition of the rocks in many parts of its granitic and calcareous mountains. The crater of St. Leger, not far from the banks of the Ardeche, exhales like the Grotto del Cane near Pozzuoli, a great quantity of carbonic acid. The Pont de la Beaume,^g a volcanic current, exhibits a mass of basalt, arranged in the form of prisms, inclining in different directions, and resting on a range of larger prisms, placed vertically the one beside the other. But the most curious part of the hill is a natural grotto, formed and surmounted by prisms regularly fashioned into an arch, as if by the hand of man. The mountain of Chenavari rests on a calcareous base, supporting a stratum of rolled pebbles, and is crowned by a volcanic summit, which forms a barrier of grey and reddish lava towards the south, and presents in the opposite direction the singular spectacle of a basaltic colonnade more than six hundred feet in length. At a greater distance northwards, a rock surmounted by prisms heaped horizontally, or grouped in an inclined position, supports the ancient castle of Rochemaure, now in ruins, so called from the black colour of the stone. The burgh of Vals is celebrated for its mineral waters; near it may be seen the famous Giants' causeway (*Chaussée des Géans*) formed by many basaltic prisms that rise above both banks of the Volant. A cataract near the bridge of Bridon falls in foam from similar rocks. It is impossible to behold these objects with indifference; but others not less remarkable, are situated in the same department; such are the majestic collection of prisms near the bridge of Rigodel, the stupendous causeway formed by colossal pillars near the village of Colombier, and lastly, the *Gueule d'Enfer*, a waterfall that rushes from a granite rock more than five hundred feet in height, covered with prismatic lava. These volcanic mountains have been frequently described with more or less exactness and particularity;^h it is, however, unnecessary to enumerate all the objects in the same part of the country, which have been mentioned by different authors, under the enticing head of natural curiosities or wonders of nature. Among those not of volcanic origin, the natural bridge of Arc above the Ardeche has given rise to much speculation. It is formed by a semi-circular arch a hundred and ninety-five feet wide, and ninety or ninety-five in height,ⁱ opening a passage through a calcareous rock, that extends across a fruitful and romantic valley. The geographers who mention it, suppose it to have been formed by a rupture made in the rock by the waters of the river, and finished by the hand of man,

^e See p. 883.

^f In Arabic *bashalt*.

^g Bridge of Beaume.

^h Histoire naturelle des provinces méridionales de France, par l'abbé Girault-Soulavie. Recherches sur les volcans éteints du Vivarais, par Faujas de Saint-Fond. Institutions géologiques, par Breislak.

ⁱ "60 metres in width, and 25 or 30 in height."

because since the time of the Roman conquest, it has been used as a passage from the Cevennes to Vivarais.^a But so large a rock, instead of having been perforated by the river, must have determined its course in a different direction. It is evident also that it never has been perfected by manual labour; for owing to the inequalities of its upper surface, no one can cross it without the greatest difficulty. It is also certain that the Ardeche has not enlarged it, for the arch exhibits no marks of aqueous abrasion; the bridge must therefore be considered a real cavern, like other caverns formed in the same rock on the banks of the river by natural disintegration; indeed its tendency to disintegration serves as a character for that sort of limestone, whence in the language of geology, it is termed *cavernous*.^b The grottos near the burgh of Vallon, may be attributed to the same cause; they are remarkable for the singular and varied forms which their stalactites present; the rocks near Ruoms, on the other hand, are not less remarkable for their regular shapes, either cubical or pyramidal.

The geologist and the painter may find ample scope for their respective pursuits in the same department, but several places well worthy of being visited, are almost unknown. Such is the domain of Ubas, occupying a circumference of nearly seven leagues. It lies in the western extremity of the department, in the district of St. Etienne de Lugdarès, at eight leagues north-west of L'Argentiere, and surrounded on the north, the east and the south by hills, which rise gradually, and form the volcanic mountain of Prasoncoupe, about 3250 feet^c above the level of the Mediterranean; the name of the mountain signifies *the cup or crater of the meadows*,^d so called most probably on account of the fruitful meadows below it. The same volcano, from the abundance of its lava, may be considered the most important in Vivarais. If the geologists, who have examined the neighbouring country, had observed it, the first rank would not have been assigned to the volcano of Loubaresse. The thermal springs that rise in the neighbourhood, account for the wealth in the village of St. Laurent les Bains; if it were not for the reputation in which the waters are held, it might remain deserted in its narrow and sterile valley. The scene changes at the summit of Prasoncoupe, and lands covered with woods, meadows, abundant streams and cultivated fields, form a contrast to the arid and dismal valley. The worthy descendant of the ancient family, to whom the domain belongs,^e has set an example that the landlords in the department would do well to imitate; he has improved agriculture by introducing the methods adopted in different districts in Switzerland and Alsace, and by crossing the oxen with the best herds of Berne. It were to be wished that such improvements were generally adopted in a country, that appears to have made little or no progress in agricultural knowledge since the thirteenth century. The domain, like all the western and northern part of the department, abounds in granite and sandstone; it contains besides rich iron ore, coal, clay well adapted for earthen ware, and the finest kaolin for porcelain.

The summit of the volcano of Loubaresse commands the valley of Valgorge; its numerous peaks and fruitful fields,

and the frequent contrasts between cultivated nature and romantic scenery, render it the most picturesque in Vivarais. It was in the castle of Valgorge, near a small town of the same name, in the most fertile part of the valley, that the Marquis de La Fare composed the poems on which his celebrity depends. Although the mines of argentiferous lead are now exhausted at L'Argentiere, it finds in its silk manufactures more resources than ever it obtained from the works from which the name of the town has been derived. The town of Bourg St. Andeol to the south-east, on the banks of the Rhone, contains twice as many inhabitants as L'Argentiere, although the latter is the chief town of a subprefecture.^f It has been affirmed that the town was called after St. Andeol, who suffered martyrdom in the third century. On a rock in the neighbourhood from which the Tourne, a fountain of cold mineral water, escapes, is situated a religious monument of the Gauls, namely, the ruins of a temple, which appears to have been consecrated to the god Mithra. Most of the *basso-relievos* are nearly effaced, but one of them, perhaps the most important, remains in a good state of preservation.^g It is not difficult to distinguish a bull with a dog biting it on the neck, and a man holding it by a rope; a radiated figure above the same group represents the sun. Two monuments of a similar kind may be seen in the royal museum of antiquities at Paris; they have been illustrated by French antiquaries. Aps, the *Alba Helviorum* of the Romans, and the ancient capital of Helvia, was ruined by the Goths; it is now a mere village. The inhabitants of Villeneuve de Berg in the vicinity, rear an immense number of silk worms. The same town was the birthplace of Court de Gebelin, one of the greatest philologists of the last century, and whose researches on the languages and monuments of antiquity are among the most valuable. Viviers on the banks of the Rhone contains two thousand souls; it was formerly the capital of Vivarais.

The granite and gneiss that bound the department on the north-west, the sandstone and schistus that rest on these rocks, the limestone that reposes upon the two latter, and the volcanic belt that terminates suddenly on the banks of the Rhone in the basalt of Rochemaure, as if the river had been a barrier to the torrents of lava, meet near Aubenas, where alluvial deposits occasioned by the erosion of the vallies which intersect the other formations, form a very fruitful soil. It might be said, judging not only from the walnut, chestnut and mulberry trees, but also from the vineyards and crops, that few parts of France are so productive; thus Aubenas, a town of 3500 inhabitants, is the mart for the chestnuts and wines of the Ardeche, and a fair to which many persons resort, is held twice a year in the same place for the sale of silk. Privas, the capital of the department, is not remarkable for its edifices; indeed, with the exception of a prison, it possesses none of any consequence; the importance of the town depends on the commerce and industry of the inhabitants. The village of Cornas and the burgh of St. Peray, at no great distance from the Rhone, are encompassed with fruitful and valuable vineyards. The course of the river leads to Tournon, which communicates with Tain on the opposite bank by means of a suspension

^a Itinéraire complet du royaume de France, 5e édition, 1828. Dictionnaire de géographie physique de la France, par Girault de Saint-Fargeau, 1827. Les Merveilles et les Beautés de la Nature en France, par Depping, 1822.

^b For further particulars in relation to the bridge of Arc, the reader may consult the memoir by M. Rozet, inserted in "Mémoires de la Société d'histoire naturelle de Paris, tom ii." entitled: Notice géog-

nostique sur la langue de terre comprise entre le Rhonc, l'Ardeche, &c.

^c "1000 metres."

^d "Coupe ou cratère des prés."

^e The family of Agrain des Ubas has possessed it since the eleventh century. ^f Bourg St. Andeol is in the sub-prefecture of Privas.—P.

^g "Among several bas-reliefs, nearly effaced, the most important is that which indicates the purpose for which the temple was erected."

bridge, that is neither so light nor so elegant as others in the neighbourhood of Vienne. An old castle that rises above the town, was built in the time of Charles Martel; it is at present only remarkable for the extensive view it commands along both banks of the Rhone; on the right and in the department of the Drome are seen the famous hill of Hermitage, and the vineyards of *Côte-rôtie brune* and *Côte-rôtie blonde*; the trade in these wines is principally carried on at Tournon. The ruins of an old bridge are situated on the Doubs in the neighbourhood; according to different writers, it was built in the time of Cæsar. The first iron wire bridge made in France, was erected at the small town of Andance. Annonay, well known for its fine paper, is the most industrious town in the Ardeche, a pre-eminence, owing partly to its position at the confluence of the Cance and the Deume. It possesses in addition to the paper mills, cloth, silk and cotton manufactories, bleach-fields, wax and leather works.^a The population amounts to 8000 individuals. It was the birth-place of the virtuous Boissy d'Anglas and of Mongolfier, the inventor of the balloon and the hydraulic ram. Two monuments raised to the memory of these distinguished men, attest the gratitude of their fellow citizens, but reflect little honour on the artists by whom they were executed.

The department has produced several great men, but it cannot be remarked without pain that the mass of the people both in the country and in the towns are as uncultivated as their mountains, and as superstitious as the ancient Helvians from whom they are sprung. The climate of the same department is very different in different places. A fructifying heat is felt on the banks of the Rhone; the vallies round St. Julien and Annonay are temperate, but in the Cevennes on the west, winter lasts nearly eight months, and the ground is often covered with deep snow.

Conterminous to the department of the Ardeche, and traversed by the same chains of mountains, the department of the Upper Loire exhibits the same volcanic phenomena, as wild scenery, and as romantic beauties. The Mezin,^b a mountain of igneous origin, is adorned with majestic columns of basalt; it rises to the height of 2600 feet^c above its granite base. The volcanoes called the *Tartas*,^d the *Infernals* and the *Mouns Caou* or *Mont Chaud*^e are the most remarkable among those which are situated on the same line as the Mezin.^f Basaltic currents appear to have obstructed the course of the Loire at Goudet and at Solignac, and of the Allier at Monistrol, Prades and Chascz. The volcanic rocks take at Pradelles a north-west direction, and they may be discovered near Lonjac, Poulaquet, La Voute, Brioude and Blesle; the currents of lava that flowed from them, appear to have been broken or cut by rivers. Conical masses of scoriæ rise in several places above the basalt; the Bard^g near Allegre, one of the most remarkable of these masses,

^a "It also possesses manufactories of cloth, establishments for spinning silk and cotton, and for bleaching wax, and tanneries."

^b "Mont Mezin."

^c "800 metres."

^d This name has some analogy to the Tartarus of the ancients. M. B.

^e The Hot Mountain.

^f A very apposite remark, which has been already made by different writers, may be here repeated; it is that the names of the volcanoes in Vivarais and Velay are not of Roman origin. Cæsar observed that there was a great analogy between the dialect spoken in these countries and the Latin, as if the latter was derived from it. In this manner it is easy to account for the resemblance which the names mentioned in the text, bear to words of the purest Latinity. Thus *Tartas* or *Tartarou*, and *Infernals* or *Infernès*, may serve to recal the Latin words *Tartarus* and *Infernus*, whilst *Coueron* is not unlike *coquere* (to boil), and *Tanargue* resembles *Tonitru ager* (the field of thunder).

^g "Le Bois de Bard"—the wood of Bard

^h "1150 metres."

reaches to the height of 3737 feet;^h the traces of a lake long since dried up, are still apparent on its truncated summit.ⁱ The site which the lake of Bouchet occupies, is considered an extinct crater; it is about ninety feet in depth, and nine hundred in diameter,^k and is surrounded by four hills of scoriæ. But the most singular volcanic rocks in the department, are the rock of Corneille, rising like an enormous cube in the neighbourhood of Puy, that of Polignac covered with the ruins of an ancient castle, that of St. Michael, exhibiting the appearance of a round tower, and the *Roche Rouge*^l at a league and a half from Brives, a volcanic pyramid more than a hundred feet high, encompassed with a belt of reddish granite seven feet in breadth, and mixed with granite blocks which stud its surface from the base to the summit—a curious example of the action of subterranean fire by which its products have been forced upward through the superincumbent rocks. If it were certain that the hand of man had not contributed to its regularity, the *natural temple*, as it is called, might merit a particular notice; a current of lava near the village of Goudet on the banks of the Loire, has assumed the most capricious forms, such as a round tower terminated by a conical roof, and the peristyle of an edifice supported by columns, thirty feet in breadth and a hundred and eighty in height.

Different mineral substances are found in the primitive and secondary districts; granite, serpentine and marble are rendered useful, and excellent mill-stones are extracted from the beds of sandstone near Marsanges, Navogne and Returnac; coals of the best quality are worked at Frugerès, but the department possesses enough of that mineral to furnish an annual supply of 11000 chaldrons for a period of 600 years.^m Sulphuret of antimony is found in beds or in veins in the districtⁿ of Brioude, and several places abound apparently in sulphuret of lead.^o One or two remarks on the principal towns may enable the reader to estimate the commerce and industry of a department from which more than three thousand individuals emigrate every year, and find employment as tradespeople or workmen in the different French towns.

Puy,^p the ancient capital of Velay, is finely situated in a picturesque valley, watered by the Loire and by two small rivers, the Borne and the Dolaison; it stands at the base of Mount Anis, which terminates in the volcanic rock of Corneille. The streets are so steep that the noise of carriages or waggons is never heard; the lava with which they are paved, and with which the houses are built, gives it a gloomy and dismal appearance. There is no town in France where religious ceremonies are more strictly observed, or where more time is lost in unnecessary and tiresome forms.^q The rock of St. Michael, in the lower part of Puy, is commanded by a church to which the people ascend by a stair of 260

ⁱ On its summit is situated the Crater of Bar, which is almost perfect, 1660 feet in diameter, and 130 feet in depth. It appears that a lake once existed there, but it is now nearly dried up. Daubeny's *Descript. of Volcanoes*, p. 40.—P.

^k "30 metres in depth, and 900 in diameter"—98.5 and 2953 feet nearly.—P.

^l Red Rock.

^m "3000 hectolitres for more than 600 years."

ⁿ "Arrondissement."

^o Description statistique du département de la Haute-Loire, par M. Deribier de Cheissac. Description géognostique des environs du Puy-en-Velay, par M. Bertrand Roux.

^p Le Puy.

^q "There is no town in France where religious ceremonies are more fatiguing to those who diligently observe them"—i. e. the processions of the Romish church are more fatiguing than in any other town, from the steepness of the streets.—P.

steps cut in the solid rock. The cathedral stands in the highest part of the town, and a lofty flight of 118 steps leads to its portico. The situation of the building, its architecture and the height of its pyramidal steeple, render it one of the most majestic Gothic monuments in Europe. The front is adorned with a sort of mosaic, and the interior appears like a large chapel, in which the vault is formed by the junction of several cupolas. The most valuable relic is a miraculous image of the Virgin—a small cedar wood statue, according to tradition, carved by the Christians of Mount Lebanon, and brought to France in the eighth century, but more probably a figure of Isis, which the pious crusaders mistook for the mother of Christ; at all events, it is begirt with fillets after the manner of Egyptian statues. But as it has long been an object of veneration, it may be considered a Christian relic; several popes and eight or ten kings of France have prostrated themselves before it. The tomb of Duguesclin, which adorns the former church of the Dominicans, the theatre, supposed to have been an ancient temple of Diana, and the museum of natural history are not unworthy of notice. Cardinal Polignac, the author of the poem of Anti-Lucretius, and Julien the sculptor were born in the town; it is now the capital of the department, and it possesses several manufactures, particularly different sorts of lace, and for more than a century has furnished horse-bells to the waggoners and muleteers in the south of France. The neighbouring village of Expailly is known to mineralogists from a stream, in which sapphires, garnets and hyacinths are found. Among the ruins of the ancient castle at Polignac raised on the site of a temple, consecrated to the Celtic Apollo, may be seen the head of the god, carved on a disc of white marble that serves as a cover to the aperture of the cave from which the Gallic divinity used to deliver his prophecies. The small town of Craponne in the same district^a carries on a trade in cloth and lace. Yssengeaux is the seat of an agricultural society; it has also a valuable lead mine in its vicinity. Brioude, at no great distance from the Allier, is situated in a fruitful district.^b

A chain of mountains extends from east to west, and the highest part of it, or the Lozere,^c gives its name to a department. The mountains of Margeride traverse it from south-east to north-west, and the heights of Aubrac are divided into two principal branches. Three rivers, the Allier, the Lot and the Tarn rise in the same country; they are embellished with waterfalls, whilst rugged rocks and wild scenery attest the desolation occasioned by subterranean fires. The Pas de Souci on the Tarn, is formed by two hills almost touching each other at their summits; it would seem as if they waited for the hand of man to unite them, and thus erect a bridge 1800 feet in height: in one place the waters are engulfed between two immense rocks, the Aiguille and the Roc-Sourde; repelled by these barriers, they resume their course, and make the air re-echo with their noise. The abundance of water renders the department humid, and the mountains lengthen the duration of winter. Spring and autumn are generally rainy seasons; storms are not uncommon in summer, but the heat is rarely oppressive. The soil does not produce enough of corn or wine for the con-

^a " Arrondissement."

^b It has an elegant church. M. B. There are two towns of this name, about half a league distant from each other, viz. *Vieille-Brioude* or *Brioude la Vieille* (Old Brioude,) on the Allier, with a lofty bridge of a single arch, and *Brioude-l'Église*, so called from a chapter of canons, all of whom are of noble descent. Encyc. Method. The latter is the one mentioned in the text.—P. ^c Mount Lozere, p. 878.

^d " The town is surrounded with a boulevard."

sumption of the inhabitants. The wealth of the country consists in its mines, which yield silver, antimony and lead. Cattle and woollen stuffs form the two principal branches of its commerce.

Mende, the capital, is situated in the centre of the department; the valley in which it stands, is intersected by a great many streams that water the villas and country seats in the vicinity. The town is encompassed with ramparts;^d the streets are crooked, but adorned with several fountains; the cathedral is remarkable for the boldness of its steeples. The serge manufactured at Mende is exported to the north and south of Europe. Pope Urban the Fifth was born in the neighbourhood of the town, which, it has been affirmed, was the *Anderitum* of the Romans.^e Chateaufort de Randon, a burgh in the mountains to the north-east of Mende, contains hardly 2500 inhabitants; it was formerly a strong place, and a town of some celebrity from the siege which the English maintained against Duguesclin in 1380. The Frenchman died beneath its walls, and the English general, who promised to surrender if he did not receive assistance within a certain time, laid his sword and the keys of the town on the coffin of his adversary. The same year in which that event took place, an act of heroism was achieved near the village of Luc on the eastern frontier of the department, by the ancestors of some families now existing. The English had invaded Gevaudan and Vivarais with a considerable force; murder and desolation indicated their march, until it was suddenly impeded at the fort of Luc, which commanded the road into Upper Auvergne. Two thousand men attempted to besiege it, but three brave knights,^f to whom the fief belonged in common, defended themselves so valiantly that they at last repelled the enemy. The English, however, were ashamed of their defeat, and returned to the contest, when the three knights must have perished, had they not been unexpectedly reinforced by ten of the most intrepid proprietors in the neighbourhood,^g by whose assistance they gained a decisive victory. The castle of Luc is still remarkable for its antiquity; according to ancient chronicles and popular traditions, it was founded before the country was conquered by the Romans. Langogne, a small place of 2500 souls, possesses different cloth manufactories. The village of Bagnols les Bains is much frequented on account of its mineral waters.^h Marvejols, destroyed by the duke De Joyeuse, and rebuilt by Henry the Fourth, is a neat town with broad and straight streets. Florac in a narrow valley on the left of the Tarnon, is surrounded with meadows and fruitful fields, but derives little advantage from its situation.

Three streams, known by the name of Gardon, rise on the eastern declivity of the Cévennes, namely, the Gardon d'Anduse, the Gardon de Mialet and the Gardon d'Alais, so named from the principal places they water. Their junction forms the Gard, also called the Gardon, which gives name to a department;ⁱ its waters sometimes disappear under beds of gravel, but its destructive inundations make the labourer pay very dear for the pieces of gold it brings along with it. Alais, watered by one of the branches already mentioned, is considered a very ancient town; it

^e *Anderitum* occupied the site of Javols or Javault, an inconsiderable town, five leagues N. W. of Mende. D'Anv. Vosgien.—P.

^f M. M. De Polignac, Bourbal de Choisinet, and D'Again des Ubas.

^g Malet de Borne, D'Apcier, Morangiès, Malmont de Soulage, Modène, Durour, Balazuc, Vernon de Joyeuse, Longueville and Regletton.

^h The waters are sulphureous. See statistical tables.

ⁱ The department of the Gard

suffered much during the persecutions^a in the reign of Louis the Fourteenth, but these injuries have been repaired; it is well built, has several manufactories, and carries on a considerable trade in raw silk and ribbons. Near the burgh of Remoulins, the impetuous waves of the Gard rush through a narrow pass, traversed by the Pont du Gard,^b a majestic Roman aqueduct, which conducted the waters from the fountain of Aure to the *naumachia*^c in the ancient *Nemausus*.^d Formed by three rows of arches, it extends to the distance of 600 feet, and rises to the height of 160. The same monument is in excellent preservation; it is difficult to observe it without admiring the ancient Romans, who, wiser than the moderns, employed their soldiers during peace in useful labours. Uzès, the ancient *Ucetia*, is surrounded with high hills; it was formerly the seat of a bishopric, but that did not prevent the inhabitants from embracing the reformation in the sixteenth century. At present it is a place of some trade; its manufactures consist of hosiery, silks, pasteboard and paper.^e It was the native town of the learned Abauzit. Bagnols lies in a fruitful country on the banks of the Ceze; it may be considered on the whole an ill-built town, although a square encompassed with arcades forms an exception; it was the birthplace of Rivarol. A citadel built by Louis the Thirteenth may still be seen at Pont St. Esprit, a town which is also remarkable for a fine bridge, almost half a mile in length,^f begun by St. Louis, and finished in the reign of Philip the Fair. It may be also observed that the same bridge rises at a place where the course of the Rhone is so rapid, that a spectator in a boat below it,^g has hardly time to observe the arches, before they recede from the view. Roquemaure on the right bank of the river, although small, is an industrious town; the inhabitants possess silk manufactories, brandy distilleries and hydraulic saws;^h they make more than 20,000 casks every year for the produce of the vineyards in the vicinity.

Nîmes,ⁱ situated in a fruitful plain, encompassed with hills, is important as the capital of a prefecture,^k and as the seat of a bishopric and a court of justice.^l Learned societies and numerous schools have been established in the town. The few streets that are straight or well built, are confined to the suburbs. Confined within a narrow enclosure, the air is only pure on the ramparts and glacis;^m these fine public walks are shaded with trees; the court of justice,ⁿ a very elegant building, is the greatest ornament of the one; the other is embellished with modern houses, the hospital and the theatre.^o The cathedral contains the tombs of Cardinal Bernis and the celebrated Flechier. But these edifices, creditable to any modern town, shrink into insignif-

icance when compared with the monuments of the Romans. The *Maison Carrée*^p, a rectangular building, as high as it is broad, stands near the theatre; the front is equal to thirty-six feet, and the length to seventy. It is an ancient temple with Corinthian pillars, built by Adrian, and since repaired by two kings of France, namely, Louis the Fourteenth and Louis the Eighteenth.^q The amphitheatre, which has been recently cleared from the buildings and rubbish that encumbered it, forms an elliptical enclosure of 1080 feet; it is surrounded with a hundred and twenty arcades, divided into two rows, the one above the other. It holds about 17,000 persons; bull-fights are sometimes exhibited in the arena. A triumphal arch, called the gate of Cæsar, is one of the ancient monuments most recently discovered;^r the northern gate is also of Roman construction. Many sculptures, basso-relievos and ancient tombs are seen in the town. The *Tour Magne*,^s a seven-sided pyramid,^t rises beyond the walls; the base is about 245 feet in circumference.^u The fountain of Diana and its Roman baths retain only their names to verify their antiquity. The remains of the temple consecrated to the same divinity,^v consists of several capitals, cornices and inscriptions. The foundation of the town is attributed to the Phocæans of Ionia. From the time when it bore the name of *Nemausus* to the present day, Nîmes has produced many distinguished men; among others, the emperor Antonine, Domitius Afer, the master of Quintilian, John Nicot, who first introduced tobacco into France, Bourguet the naturalist, Samuel Petit, the erudite Seguiet,^w Saurin, Villars, John Fabre the protestant, who suffered punishment in place of his father, who had been condemned to the galleys on account of his religion, and lastly, the learned but unfortunate Rabaud-Saint-Etienne.^x Nîmes contains at present a great number of manufactories, and carries on a considerable trade in the products of the department. The medicinal plants and others used in dying, collected by the peasants, form a lucrative branch of exportation; they may be seen in the markets of Amsterdam, Hamburg and Lubeck.

Beaucaire, probably the ancient *Ugernum*, is situated at the distance of five leagues to the east of Nîmes, on the banks of the Rhone, which separates it from Tarascon. The streets are narrow, but in other respects it is a well-built town. The commercial importance of Beaucaire depends principally on a fair, which lasts from the 22d to the 28th of July at midnight; during these six days, there is as much activity and confusion as at Leipsic, when merchants repair to it from every part of the world. As the season of the fair approaches, the Rhone is covered with boats con-

^a "Dragonnades"—After the revocation of the edict of Nantes in 1685, Louis XIV. attempted to compel the Protestants by force to renounce their faith and embrace the Catholic religion. For that purpose he built a citadel at Alais in 1689, and that he might combine spiritual persuasion with temporal power, founded there a bishopric in 1692.—P.

^b Bridge of the Gard.

^c Place where mock sea fights were exhibited.

^d Nîmes.

^e "Silk stockings, twisted silk, and pasteboard."

^f "2520 feet in length."

^g "Bateau de poste"—passage boat on the Rhone.

^h "Silk mills, brandy distilleries and saw mills (*scieries hydrauliques*.)"

ⁱ "Nîmes," Nismes.

^k It is the capital of the department, and consequently of the prefecture.—P.

^l "Cour royale," Royal Court—corresponding to our Circuit Courts. There are twenty-seven Royal Courts in France, including that of Paris. (Almanach Royal, 1822.)—P.

^m "The boulevards and the esplanade."—The town is surrounded by a circle of Boulevards, scarcely inferior to those of Paris. (Carter's Letters)—P.

ⁿ "Palais de justice"—hall of justice.

^o "The air is pure only in the shade of the trees that adorn the boulevards and the esplanade; the palace of justice is the principal ornament of this fine promenade, whilst another boulevard is embellished by many elegant modern buildings, the most important of which are the hospital and the theatre."

^p The Square House. (*Maison Carrée*, in older authors.)—P.

^q In 1689 and in 1820.

^r It was first discovered in the year 1791.

^s The Great Tower.

^t "A pyramid with seven sides at the base and eight at the summit."

^u It is about 120 feet high, and was formerly surrounded with a circle of open columns. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^v Called also the Temple of the Fountain.

^w J. F. Seguiet (born 1703,) distinguished as an antiquary and botanist.—P.

^x J. P. Rabaut de St. Etienne, a distinguished member of the Constituent Assembly and the National Convention—opposed the condemnation of the king, and was consequently denounced by the revolutionary tribunal, and executed Dec. 5, 1793. Beauvais.—P.

veying the manufactures of Lyons, Germany and Switzerland; at the same period, vessels arrive at Toulon and Marseilles, laden with the merchandize of Italy, Spain and the Levant. A hundred thousand merchants repair from different points of Europe and the East to the fair, where they are crowded in a town of ten thousand inhabitants. The houses can contain only a small part of the extra population, but the extensive meadows on the banks of the Rhone are covered with tents.

Aigues-Mortes, a small town of 3000 inhabitants, situated in a marshy country, is no longer a port, although St. Louis embarked there on his unfortunate expedition to Palestine. It derives its wealth from the immense salt works of Peccais, situated in an arid and sandy district. Vigan,^a a small place at the western extremity of the department, is the capital of a subprefecture; it is watered by the Arre, and only worthy of notice as the birthplace of the chevalier D'Assas.^b The bronze statue that serves to perpetuate the memory of the same person, was exhibited in the Louvre in 1828; it now adorns his native town.

The department of the Gard does not abound in metals or minerals; it contains, however, antimony, coal and lignite, the last of which yields sulphate of iron and alum. The grain harvests are insufficient to supply the consumption, but the vineyards yield three times the quantity of wine that is used in the country. The excess, either in the form of wine or distilled into brandy, together with silk, olive oil, wool, and other articles already mentioned, make up the exports of the department.

The department of the Herault is still poorer than the last in mineral substances. The people work coal, marble, salt and lignite, the last of which, under the name of fossil ashes, is used as a manure. It produces more grain than it consumes, and the great excess of wine, dried fruits, liqueurs, perfumes and oil, form exports of considerable value. The river which gives its name to the department, rises in the Cevennes, at the foot of the high mountains of Egoual and Esperon; it is only navigable for the distance of three leagues, from the burgh of Bessan to its mouth. The course of the same river, from its origin to its junction with the Ergue, may guide us in the description of the country.

Ganges, on the left bank, a town of four thousand inhabitants, is surrounded with country houses, and commanded by an ancient castle. The grotto of the fairies (*la Baouma de las Doumaiselas*), in which the sombre windings are covered with magnificent stalactites, is situated in the neighbourhood. At Aniane,^c a place of less importance than the last, may be seen the ruins of the first convent, built by St. Benedict. Ascending the Ergue, and leaving on the left Clermont de Lodeve^d or Clermont l'Herault, peopled by six thousand inhabitants, who export cloth to the Levant, and carry on a

trade in leather and verdigrise,^e we arrive at Lodeve, the ancient *Luteva*, and the metropolis of a subprefecture, an ill-built town, encompassed with walls, and situated in a fruitful valley. The manufacture of coarse cloths is the principal employment of the inhabitants.^f

A very bad road through a wild country leads from Lodeve to Montpellier.^g The last town stands on a hill from which a magnificent view stretches to the Mediterranean and the Pyrenees. Squares adorned with fountains, no broad streets, but well-built houses, a spacious glacis,^h the Peyrou,ⁱ a fine walk which terminates at an aqueduct, formed by two rows of arches, placed one above the other, the church of St. Peter, the residence of the prefect,^k and the exchange, a very elegant edifice, render it one of the finest towns in the south of France. In the same town, the sciences are taught with zeal, and cultivated with success; it possesses an university, a library containing many valuable manuscripts, an excellent botanical garden, an observatory, several scientific societies, schools of music and painting,^l an anatomical theatre,^m and a celebrated school of medicine, founded in the twelfth century by Arabian physicians expelled from Spain, but received and protected by the counts of Montpellier. It is indebted to M. Fabre, the worthy pupil of David, for a very valuable collection of paintings, both as to their number and selection. It has produced many celebrated men in different branches of knowledge, such as Barthez, Broussonet,ⁿ Fizes, Fouquet and Baumes^o in medicine, Peyronie the founder of the academy of surgery at Paris, Rondelet the naturalist, Magnol, who may be considered the inventor of natural methods in botany, Cambon, who distinguished himself in the troublous times of the revolution by restoring order to the finances,^p Cambaceres, whose talents have never been disputed, and who rose to the first offices of the empire, Roucher, the author of the poem of the Months,^q the celebrated painter Bourdon, and Vien the master of David.^r It is unnecessary to describe in detail the curiosities of Montpellier; one or two remarks may suffice. The marble chair on which the professor^s sits in the amphitheatre of the medical school, is an ancient monument, that was found in the amphitheatre at Nimes. Although the names of the ancient and modern buildings are the same, it might have been as well that the chair had remained in the ancient;^t but the same remark is not applicable to an old bronze bust of Hippocrates, now placed in the hall of the celebrated school. The walk of Peyrou terminates in a six-sided pavilion; within it is a basin supplied by the aqueduct already mentioned, and from which the water falls in cascades over artificial rocks, till it terminates in a lower basin.^u The botanical garden, at no great distance from these places, cannot be observed without interest; it was the first of the kind in France, that was formed for the

^a Le Vigan.

^b Distinguished for the heroic devotion with which he sacrificed his life to his country, at Clostercamp near Gelders, 1760.—P.

^c Seven leagues below Ganges, and on the same bank of the river. M. B.

^d Clermont-Lodeve.

^e "It possesses important tanneries, and manufactories of verdigrise."

^f Lodeve furnishes cloths for military clothing. Ed. Encyc.

^g Montpellier—Lat. *Mons Pessulanus*.

^h "Esplanade." The Esplanade occupies the ground between the citadel and the ancient city. Ed. Encyc.

ⁱ Porte Peyrou, Place du Peyrou.

^k "Hôtel de la préfecture"—the Palace of the Prefecture, formerly the bishop's palace. Ed. Encyc.

^l "A school of music and one of design"—An academy of arts was founded in 1781. Ed. Encyc.

^m "Amphitheatre"—built during the administration of M. Chaptal,

on the model of that at the Museum of Natural History at Paris. Ed. Encyc.

ⁿ Broussonet is best known as a natural historian.—P.

^o J. B. T. Beaumes, author of a system of chemistry, and several medical works, died 1815. Beauvais.—P.

^p He organized and directed the confiscation of the estates of the emigrants, and may be considered as minister of finance to the national convention. Beauvais.—P.

^q *Les Mois*—a descriptive poem, in the manner of Thomson's Seasons, each month forming the subject of a separate canto.—P.

^r He is considered by the French as the restorer of painting in France. M. B. Beauvais.—P.

^s The professor of anatomy. Ed. Encyc.

^t "It had better have been deposited in the *Maison Carrée*"—now converted into a museum of antiquities.—P.

^u This lower basin is much larger than the one in the pavilion, and forms a small lake overshadowed by the trees in front of the esplanade.—P.

purpose of naturalizing plants remarkable for their rarity, beauty or utility. It contains not less than eight thousand plants, and the manner in which it is laid out, renders it an agreeable walk. The admirers of Young's Night Thoughts may repair to a thick shade, below which is an obscure vault, that contains the tomb of his daughter Narcissa. Commerce and the useful arts are cultivated in Montpellier as successfully as the sciences; the manufactures of the town consist in cottons, muslins and cloths, and also in verdigrise and other chemical products. The hospitals and other charitable establishments are well regulated; the mount of piety cannot be too much commended; such institutions, notwithstanding their name, are in most places usurious and fatal to the poorer classes, but in this town at least, their philanthropic purpose has been preserved, and money is advanced on pledges to the poor without interest.

Lunel, a town of 5,500 inhabitants, near the eastern limits of the department, is situated in a country famous for muscadine wines. A cavern in the neighbourhood has been frequently visited by geologists;^a in an alluvial deposit, the fossil bones of different gaminivorous animals, such as wild boars, stags, horses, oxen, and others no longer found in our climates, as hippopotami and camels, are mingled with the remains of lions, tigers, bears and hyenas; it is proved too by the marks of teeth on the bones of the former, that they have been devoured by the latter. The wines in the district of Frontignan,^b about six leagues to the west of Montpellier, rival those of Lunel. Cette, which ought to be written Sette, because it stands upon Mount Setius,^c a height mentioned by Pomponius Mela,^d guards with its fortifications the entrance into the canal of Languedoc.^e Built in the form of an amphitheatre between the sea and the lagoon of Thau, the last of which yields a great quantity of salt, and possessing a fine harbour, accessible to large ships, it contains ten thousand inhabitants, and carries on an extensive trade. Invalids repair to it every year on account of the sea and sand baths. The vertical fissures in the heights near it, are filled with alluvial deposits,^f in which are contained the fossil bones of birds, quadrupeds and reptiles.^g

Beziers rises on a hill that commands a view of a rich valley, where the sad foliage of the olive is united with the verdant leaves of the mulberry, and where gardens, orchards, vineyards and country houses extend along both banks of the Orb.^h In a different direction, may be seen the country watered by the canal of Languedoc.ⁱ The town was the birthplace of Mairan the astronomer. It is a place of great antiquity; it was the *Baterra* of the Romans; although it had been repeatedly ruined by the Visigoths, the Saracens and Charlemagne, it had reached the height of its splendour

^a See the Memoirs by M. Marcel de Serres.

^b The wine is called Frontignac.—P.

^c *Mons Setius*. ^d Lib. II. cap. 5.

^e "Canal du Midi"—Canal of the South.

^f "Depot de transport agglutiné—" properly, a diluvial conglomerate.—P.

^g "—birds, small *rodentia*, ruminant quadrupeds, and reptiles."—P.

^h Orbe.

ⁱ "In another direction, the canal of Languedoc may be seen descending by nine locks, placed one above the other." The canal of Languedoc descends from the long level of 17 miles, by a chain of 8 locks at Fonscranne, within sight of Beziers, and then by a single one, after which it passes the river Orb, on the south side of the town last mentioned. Ed. Encyc. art. Inland Navigation.—P.

^k Abbot of the Cistercians. (Roscoe.) The Cistercians were so called from the abbey of Cîteaux in Burgundy.—P.

^l "Tuez tous; Dieu saura bien reconnaître les siens." Kill them all; God will know who belongs to him. (Roscoe.)

when it was sacked in the thirteenth century by Arnold, abbot of Cîteaux,^k during the crusade against the Albigenses. When the monk was about to storm the town, his followers asked him by what signs they might know the catholics,—*Kill all*, said the bigot, *let God discover his own*.^l Agde, formerly *Agatha*, stands near the sea at the base of a volcanic height; it was founded by a Greek colony; the harbour is advantageously situated for the coasting trade; it possesses a hundred and twenty small vessels, and it is peopled by eight thousand inhabitants. Pezenas, which Pliny calls *Piscnæ*, rises to the north-east of Beziers, on the banks of the Herault; the inhabitants carry on a trade in woollen stuffs and in the excellent wines for which the district is celebrated.

The Tarn waters on the western side of the Espinouse and the Black Mountains, a poorer department^m than the one that has been described. The people employed themselves formerly in cultivating woad, but now that the superiority of indigo is acknowledged, the profits arising from the culture of the plant are much reduced. The country is in many places covered with forests, and the timber is exported and used in building; the pastures are abundant, and the produce in grain and wine is more than sufficient for the wants of the people. Coal is the only mineral substance of any importance, and the manufacturing industry is principally confined to cotton and woollen stuffs.ⁿ

Alby^o on the banks of the Tarn, perhaps the worst built archiepiscopal city in France,^p is the native town of the unfortunate Lapeyrouse^q and the brave general D'Hautpoul.^r The walls in the inside of the cathedral are adorned with old paintings. The building itself is remarkable for boldness and elegance. The Lice, a public walk, is formed by a fine terrace commanding a view of an extensive and fruitful plain. *Albiga*, the Latin name of the town, proves it to have been the principal city of the *Albigi*; it was afterwards the capital of Albigeois, a province devastated in the twelfth century by the fanatical Simon de Montfort, and at a later period, during the persecutions in the reign of Louis the Fourteenth. Castres, founded in 647 on the site of a Roman camp, may be considered the most important town in the department, both on account of its manufactures and the number of inhabitants. The residence of the subprefect is the ancient episcopal palace, a very elegant edifice built after the plans of Mansard. The Agout divides the town into two parts, which communicate with each other by means of two stone bridges. It has produced several distinguished men, among others, Rapin Thoyras the author of a history of England, Andrew Dacier the academician, and the learned Sabatier.^s La Roquette, a place in the vicinity, so called from the broken masses of rock which cover

^m The department of the Tarn.

ⁿ "The manufactures consist of cotton and woollen stuffs and many articles of hardware."—P.

^o Albi.

^p Alby was the seat of an archbishopric before the revolution, but it has now neither archbishop nor bishop.—P.

^q La Peyrouse, La Peirouse, and La Perouse, are different orthographies of the name.—P.

^r J. J. D'Hautpoul-Salette, (born 1754,) general of cavalry under Napoleon, distinguished himself in the battles of Austerlitz and Eylau. He died of the wounds he received in the last engagement, five days after the battle. Beauvais.—P.

^s "Le littérateur Sabatier"—the professional author. Anthony Sabatier, the critic and controversialist, born at Castres, 1742. His principal work is a literary history of France from the time of Francis I to 1772 (*Les trois siècles de la littérature française, ou Tableau de l'esprit de nos écrivains, depuis François Ier jusqu'en 1772*, 3 v. 8vo.) Beauvais.—P.

it, is visited by strangers on account of the *Trembling Stone*,^a and the *grotto of St. Dominic*. The trembling stone, a mass consisting of 360 cubic feet, has been supposed to weigh not less than thirty tons;^b it resembles an egg flattened at one end, and placed on its smaller extremity; it rests near the edge of a large rock on the declivity of a hill; any one may easily make it vibrate, and when once put in motion, the vibrations are distinctly repeated seven or eight times. The grotto that has been called after the founder of the Dominicans, to whom it served as a retreat, is situated at the base of the hill, below the trembling stone; it consists of subterranean galleries about 4200 feet in length, by sixty or seventy in breadth.^c The walls of the cavern are formed by rounded rocks, heaped upon each other in many places with so much regularity that they might be supposed to have been the work of art, not of nature.^d Alby and Castres are the two most important towns in the department; the others are comparatively insignificant. Gaillac rises on the right bank of the Tarn, at the place where it begins to be navigable; the inhabitants find employment in building boats or in making casks, and they carry on a considerable trade in the brandy and wines of the neighbourhood. The village of Lombers is mentioned in history, as the place where a council assembled in 1176, whose decision was the signal for the crusade against the Albigenes, and for the murders committed in Languedoc. The small town of Lavaur possesses cotton and silk manufactories. Bruguiere,^e the capital of a district, contains four thousand inhabitants; it is situated near the Thauré, a small river which loses itself in subterranean cavities, and leaves a part of its bed, equal in length to more than eight hundred yards, always dry.^f The small town of Soreze, peopled by 2500 souls, enjoyed some celebrity in past times on account of a college.^g

The canal of Languedoc passes through the department of the Upper Garonne, a department bounded on the south by the lofty summits of the Pyrenees, and watered by the Tarn, the Arriege and the Garonne, and by not less than fourteen smaller streams. The soil is rich and fruitful; the forests supply the inhabitants with timber proper for ship-building, and the abundant pastures account for the number of the herds. From the mildness of the climate, and the favourable exposure of many hills, the vine has been planted in a great part of the country. The wines, it is true, are not of the best quality, but the quantity is so great that two-thirds of it are exported from the department. The mineral products are various, but not very useful; two salt springs, and the mineral and thermal waters of Encausse, Barthe, and Bag-

neres de Luchon form an exception. It possesses manufactories of iron, steel and different kinds of stuffs.

The Tarn which traverses the northern part of the department, leads to Villemur, the capital of a district, a small, ill-built town peopled by 6000 individuals, and situated near the confluence of the Save and the Garonne. Grenade, a neat and clean town, although consisting of brick houses, was the birthplace of Cazalès.^h

Toulouse, five leagues above the last place, on the banks of the Garonne, was the ancient city of the *Tolosates*, the dominant tribe of the *Tectosages*, a nation that had no inconsiderable share in the distant expeditions conducted by Belovesus, Sigovesus and Brennus. The capital of the kingdom of the Visigoths during several centuries, it became afterwards the capital of the country governed by the counts of Toulouse, and continued so until Languedoc was united to France. The numerous monuments that adorned it, when it was classed among the most important Roman colonies, are now almost wholly destroyed; none can be mentioned except the remains of a small amphitheatre, and a single ancient tomb in the cloister of the old church of the Augustines. Some of the edifices are admired, several modern houses are not inelegantly built; but although a large town, it contains nothing which indicates its ancient splendour.ⁱ Brick buildings are too numerous, and the squares, with the exception of St. Cyprian's, are deficient in regularity. The broad quays give the town an imposing aspect; the Garonne divides it into two equal parts, and is crossed by a magnificent bridge terminating in a triumphal arch, constructed after the plans of Mansard. It is encompassed with walls flanked by two round towers, and nine gates lead to different parts of the city. The townhouse, called the *Capitole*,^k is an old building with a fine modern front; the busts of different persons born in Toulouse are placed in the interior. We may mention those of Cujas the lawyer, Fermat the mathematician, Campistron the tragic poet, Duranti the magistrate, and Clemence Isaure, who founded in 1323 the college of the Gay Science.^{l,m} A fountain adorned with basso-relievos rises in front of the cathedral, of which the choir is the only part finished. The principal institutions in the town are a university, a school of medicine and surgery, a royal college, a botanical garden, a school of artillery and one of horsemanship, an academy of the fine arts with a collection of paintings, a mint, and a royal cannon foundery. Most of the buildings were more or less injured on the sixteenth of April 1816, by the explosion of a powder magazine.ⁿ

^a *Rocher tremblant*—a rocking stone.

^b "600 quintals" Fr.

^c "800 toises in length by 10 or 12 in breadth."

^d *Encyclopédie Méthodique*, Tom. III.

^e La Bruguiere.

^f "—and leaves its bed dry, to the distance of 800 metres."

^g Founded in 1766. *Encyc. Method.*

^h J. A. M. de Cazalès, one of the most distinguished speakers in the Constituent Assembly; born at Grenade sur la Garonne, 1752.—P.

ⁱ "Although this large and celebrated city contains many fine residences of the old nobility (*hôtels*), and many modern houses of elegant architecture, it exhibits no traces of its ancient splendour."

^k The Capitol.—The consuls of Toulouse were from this circumstance called *capitouls*. (Vosgien.)—Consuls were certain municipal magistrates in some of the French cities and towns (see Toulon note ⁿ p. 892), corresponding to the *jurats* and *echevins* in others, and to the sheriffs and aldermen in England.—P.

^l "*Guy Savoir*"—*El Gai Saber*, the Provençal term for poetry.—P.

^m This college was erected into the Academy of Floral Games in 1694; the society assembled in one of the halls of the Capitol. M. B.—Clemence Isaure, a lady of Toulouse, who founded the Floral Games in the 15th century. The precise period of her birth and death are

not known; it is only ascertained that she was living in 1478, and that she died not long before 1513. The academy of Floral Games was dissolved in 1790, but restored in 1806. A history of the academy has been recently published by the perpetual secretary, M. Poitevin-Peittavi, entitled: *Mémoire pour servir à l'Histoire des Jeux Floraux*, Toulouse, 1815, 2 v. 8vo. (Beauvais, Dict. Hist.) The academy of the Gay Science (*del Gai Saber*) was founded in 1323, by a number of versifiers who had assumed the name of Troubadours, and who associated themselves under the title of *La Sobregaya Companhia dels sept Trobadors de Tolosa*, "the very gay society of the seven Troubadours of Toulouse." In 1324, the *capitouls* or magistrates of Toulouse, and the company of Troubadours, addressed a circular to all the cities of Languedoc, offering a prize of a golden violet to the author of the best poem in the Provençal language. This was the origin of the Floral Games. The existence of Clemence Isaure is considered doubtful. She is not mentioned in the circulars of the academy, nor in the registers of the magistrates. Sismondi's *Literature of the South of Europe*, vol. I. p. 126, Roscoe's *Trans.*—P.

ⁿ The country in the neighbourhood of Toulouse, is very agreeable; the Canal of Languedoc passes at the foot of the ramparts, and not far from the town is the plain where Marshal Soult signalized himself in 1814, by defeating the Anglo-Spanish army, although three times

The road to Carcassonne crosses a fruitful plain, and passes through the small town of Ville Franche,^a the capital of a district.^b Muret in a valley at the confluence of the Louge and the Garonne, is a place of considerable industry; the people are employed in making fine pottery, or in manufacturing coarse cloth. It is celebrated in French history on account of the siege, which Simon de Montfort maintained against the king of Arragon, who was killed in a sally. St. Martory, the capital of a district,^c is situated in a pleasant valley on the Garonne, which is traversed by a bridge terminated by two triumphal arches. The same town was the birthplace of the priest Vigilantius,^d who flourished during the fourth century, and attempted in vain to reform the abuses that had crept into the church. St. Gaudens on the left bank of the river, is the mart for an extensive trade with Spain. St. Bertrand de Comminges stands on the ruins of *Lugdunum Convenarum*;^e it was formerly an important town, but contains at present hardly 800 inhabitants; they export marble vases, statues and bas-reliefs to different parts of Europe. The mausoleum of the holy bishop whose name it bears, serves as an ornament to the church. At the distance of a league beyond St. Beat, which a strong dike protects against the inundations of the Garonne, the traveller leaves the valley watered by the river, and enters another in which Bagneres de Luchon is situated; at present indeed Bagneres hardly deserves the name of a town, but it may soon do so, if the population continue to increase as it has done of late years. It resembles a triangle, and from the three angles extend as many public walks; one is planted with planes, another with sycamores, and a third with lime trees; the last or the most northern leads to the baths, and is consequently the most frequented. The public baths may be compared to the finest of the kind in Europe; the structure itself has the appearance of a castle. The establishment does not appear to be of very ancient origin, although it is certain that the baths were known to the Romans;^f altars and votive inscriptions have been discovered at different periods. The valley of Luchon is broad in the neighbourhood of Bagneres, and laid out in rich meadows and cultivated fields, which yield often two harvests in the same year; numerous herds and flocks^g are reared in the same part of the country. Mountain passes, fragrant with aromatic flowers, torrents broken by cataracts, and the peak of Maladetta, covered with eternal snow, and situated on the crest of the Spanish Pyrenees, give a lively interest to the excursions round Bagneres. But the stranger is often saddened in the midst of such magnificent scenery by the sight of beings as hideous from the goitres with which they are affected, as from their invariable attendant, moral degradation; they are the true *Parias* of the French Pyrenees; whether men, women or children, all the other inhabitants look on them with disgust, and condemn them to the lowest occupations. Wealth and cleanliness, the companions of industry, tend happily by their progress to diminish the number of these unfortunate persons.

Although the mountains are arid, that extend from the

stronger than his own, and commanded by the Duke of Wellington. M. B. This pleasant specimen of French national vanity has been omitted by the English translator for very obvious reasons. English writers inform us that the Duke of Wellington was completely successful. The battle was fought April 10th, and at the close of the day the French were hemmed in on three sides, the road to Carcassonne being the only one left open. Marshal Soult however succeeded in effecting his retreat by that road on the night of the 11th.—P.

^a Villefranche.

^b "Arrondissement."

^c "Canton"—jurisdiction of a justice of peace.—P.

^d Vigilantius was born at Calaguri, a small town in the country of Comminges. Beauvais. Moreri.—P.

summits of the Pyrenees to the canal of Languedoc, and although the Black Mountains, which rise on the north, and which belong to the chain of the Cevennes, are unfruitful, the agricultural products in the department of the Aude, are more than sufficient for the wants of the people. The principal river which waters it, the canal which crosses it from west to east, and the Mediterranean which washes the coast, have contributed to its commerce, or at least to the activity and industry of the inhabitants. The mines yield comparatively little, but the iron works in the department are not without importance; the people are economical and frugal, and consequently rich; indeed it has been ascertained that the average quantity of wealth belonging to each individual, is greater than in most other departments; the country, however, might be still much improved.

Sostomagus, one of the most ancient towns in southern Gaul, was ruined at the time the Goths invaded France; at a later period it was rebuilt and fortified by the same people, and as they were Arians, it took the name of *Castrum Novum Arianorum*, which has been since changed into Castelnaudary.^h Traversed by the canal of Languedoc, a fine basin enclosed with broad embankments, and shaded with trees, serves as a harbour, and forms a public walk. Charitable institutions and places of industry are not wanting in the town, and the historical recollections connected with it are not without interest. It is known that the count of Toulouse was obliged to demolish the fortifications, when he made peace with St. Louis in the year 1229. The English burnt it in 1355; it was rebuilt and enlarged about ten years afterwards, and it was below the ramparts that Marshal Schomberg at the head of the troops of Louis the Thirteenth, defeated the forces of Gaston d'Orleans, commanded by the duke of Montmorency, who was decapitated at Toulouse. Among the great men to whom it has given birth, we need only mention the learned and brave general Andreossy. It carries on at present no inconsiderable trade in woollen stuffs; the use of modern machinery has been introduced into the manufactories.ⁱ The Aude divides Carcassonne into two parts; the upper town is a wretched and almost deserted place, encompassed with walls, and built on a rock, but the lower town consists of broad and straight streets, and is adorned with several public walks; it possesses a fine harbour on the canal, and among the public buildings may be mentioned the cathedral, the town-house, the palace of the prefect and the barracks. It has been long famous for its cloths;^k it still possesses about forty manufactories, and the cloths are mostly destined for the Levant. Cæsar mentions the town, and calls it *Carcaso*;^l it was the birthplace of Fabre d'Eglantine. On the banks of the Fresquel in the neighbourhood, may be seen a triumphal arch, erected to Numerian.

Limoux on the Aude contains within its walls about twenty cloth and ratteen manufactories. The same river waters the small town of Alet,^m peopled with 1100 souls, and visited by strangers on account of the thermal springs. Narbonne, celebrated under the name of *Narbo*, 300 years

^e It is situated on the Garonne, above St. Gaudens, and was formerly capital of the country of Comminges, originally an independent county, but surrendered to the king of France by the countess Margaret, who died in 1443, when it became a province of the kingdom.—P.

^f They were first called *Aque Convenarum*, and afterwards *Aque Balarie Luxonienses*.

^g "Cattle and goats."

^h Castelnaudary.

ⁱ "Its hydraulic machinery for spinning wool is remarkable for its importance."

^k Since the twelfth century. M. B.

^l De Bello Gallico Liber III.

^m Aleth.

before the vulgar era, and surnamed *Marcius*^a by the Roman consul, who founded a colony there a hundred and fifty years afterwards, is situated on the canal of Robine, which communicates with the Mediterranean by the lagoon of Sigean. The Gothic cathedral is a very fine edifice, and the stranger may observe within its walls, and within the court of the former archiepiscopal palace,^b several Roman monuments in a good state of preservation. It was the native town of Varro, a poet and a warrior,^c of the emperor Marcus Aurelius,^d of Fronto the orator, and of Montfaucon the antiquary. The honey in the district^e forms a branch of exportation.

The eastern extremity of the Pyrenees gives its name to a department,^f watered by the Agly, the Tet and the Tech, which flow for the most part in an eastern direction. The climate is warm; indeed the temperature of winter might be mistaken for that of spring. A favourable exposure unfolds the vegetation of eastern countries; pomegranate trees grow in the hedges, and the fields are shaded with mulberry, olive and orange trees; juniper bushes, thyme, rosemary and lavender grow in the open fields or on the sides of the mountains, and gentle breezes diffuse their fragrance. The vines warmed by the summer's heat yield a great quantity of grapes, and two-fifths of the wine are exported from the department; the best kinds are raised on the hills of Collioure, Salces and Rivesaltes. But the department is not exempt from disadvantages; during the summer season, droughts are not unfrequent, and the rivers, from the inclination of their channels, are left dry; on the contrary, during the rainy season, and the melting of the snows, they inundate their banks, and deluge the plains. It may be also mentioned that the lands near the sea, formed by alluvial deposits, are little better than marshes; the exhalations that rise from them, render several districts very unhealthy, and their effect might be still more deleterious, if the air was not occasionally purified by a north-west wind, which the people call the *Tramontane*, because it crosses the mountains of Corbieres, which extend into the department of the Aude.

Perpignan, the seat of a prefecture and a bishopric,^g rises on the right bank of the Tet, and on the small river Basse. It is situated about two leagues from the sea, at the foot of a hill, and on the site of *Flavium Ebusum*, an ancient municipal city. The old fortifications and the works constructed according to the principles of Vauban were almost entirely rebuilt in the year 1823. The view from the ramparts extends over a magnificent plain, bounded by mountains, and commanded on the west by the snow covered peak of Canigou; in a different direction, several openings in the midst of fruitful hills unfold the expanse of the Medi-

terranean. An inexhaustible spring flows at the base of a lofty citadel. The buildings worthy of notice are the barracks erected by Louis the Fourteenth, which may contain about five thousand men, the church of St. John, the town-house, the court of justice and the exchange. The college, the library, the museum of natural history, and different seminaries are certainly creditable to the town. The royal sheep-folds in the neighbourhood are perhaps the finest in France; it may be regretted that the improvements introduced into so important a branch of rural economy, have not been imitated in other parts of the country.^h

Elne on the left bank of the Tech, a small town of 1200 inhabitants, stands on the site of the ancient *Helena*, or the still more ancient *Illiberis*, a place of some celebrity, for Hannibal encamped under its walls. Ceret, thinly peopled and encompassed with lofty walls, may be mentioned on account of a bridge more remarkable for boldness than any other in France; it rises to an extraordinary height, and consists of a single arch, of which the abutments are built on two rocks; the opening exceeds 150 feet.ⁱ Port Vendre near the frontier, a short distance to the south-east of Collioure, was a small seaport about the end of the eighteenth century, hardly equal in point of population to Collioure; it owes its present importance to Marshal De Mailly, who was then governor of Roussillon.^k He foresaw the advantages it might derive from its position; the harbour was cleared and reconstructed, a basin was dug, which may contain five hundred vessels, and at present Port Vendre is a flourishing and well-built town, in which the market place^l is adorned with fountains and a marble obelisk a hundred feet in height.

It is only necessary to traverse some ravines near the sources of the Tet, to arrive at the vallies where the Arriege^m rises. The department watered by the last river,ⁿ is covered with mountains, forests and pastures; two distinct climates are perceptible within its limits. The southern part, from the elevation of the soil, is exposed to great cold and excessive heat, while the vallies on the north are mild and temperate. Numerous herds are reared in the same vallies, and the soil, although ill adapted for the vine, is very fruitful in corn. The number of iron works, and the quality of the steel made in the department, prove that the industrious inhabitants have availed themselves of the mineral riches in their territory.

The small town of Foix rises in the valley watered by the Arriege, near an ancient castle surmounted by three Gothic towers. The counts that bore the name of the town, appear in the brightest pages of French history, but the monuments of those times are passing away. The

^a *Narbo Martius*, D'Anv. Founded by the consul Marcius, A. U. C. 636. Lempriere.—P.

^b "On its walls, in its churches, and within the court &c."—A great number of inscriptions and other remains of antiquity are inserted in the walls of the court of the archiepiscopal palace. There is also a very fine ancient tomb in the gardens of the same palace. Narbonne formerly contained a great many ancient buildings, such as a capitol, a circus, and an amphitheatre; but these have been entirely destroyed, and their materials employed in erecting the fortifications of the city. It however contains a greater number of inscriptions than any other town of ancient Gaul. Encyc. Method.—P.

^c P. Terentius Varro Attacinus, author of a translation into Latin verse of the Argonautics of Apollonius Rhodius, of an epic poem *de Bello Sequanico*, and of various other poems, of all which only a few fragments are extant. Born B. C. 82. Beauvais, Dict. Hist.—P.

^d M. Aurelius Carus; not M. Aurelius Antoninus, who was born at Rome.—P.

^e "Arrondissement."

^f The department of the Eastern Pyrenees.

^g Suppressed and united with that of Carcassonne. (1822).—P.

^h "The citadel, which contains a never failing well within its enclosure, stands on an eminence that commands the town. The latter is divided into two parts, called the old and the new town. A range of barracks built by Louis XIV., to contain 5000 men, occupies one side of a large square, called the parade (*place d'armes*). Among the other public buildings, are the church of St. John, the finest edifice, the town-house, the hall of justice and the mint. The college, the library, the collection of philosophical apparatus, the museum of natural history, and the public nursery of the department, are very useful establishments; but they are not to be compared with the royal sheep-folds* in the vicinity, which are remarkable for the care with which they are superintended."—M. B.

* An establishment founded before the revolution, for introducing merinos into France.—P.

ⁱ "— is equal to 140 feet" Fr.

^k 1780—1788.

^l "Public square" (*place publique*).

^m "Ariège."

ⁿ The department of the Arriege.

streets are narrow, and the ancient castle is wholly deserted and falling into ruins;^a trade and industry correspond with the insignificance of the population. Tarascon stands in a very picturesque situation at the confluence of the Arriège and a torrent which descends from the valley of Vic d'Es-sos. Ax is famous for fifty-three mineral and thermal springs, of which the temperature varies from 72° to 167° of Fahrenheit.^b Pamiers in the north of the department is surrounded with canals fed by the Arriège, which serve to move many machines; the streets are broad and straight, and the houses well built. Foix is the capital of the department, but Pamiers surpasses it in every respect; it has lately been made the seat of a bishopric.^c The mountain called the Puy du Till stands at no great distance from the small and neat town of Mirepoix; the mountain is remarkable for the cavities contained in it, from which cold and sometimes very violent currents of air escape in every season of the year; the people call the phenomenon, the *Vent de Pas*. St. Girons is the only other town worthy of notice in the department; it stands on the Salat, a small but rapid river, which sets in motion paper mills and different manufactories.^d St. Lizier in the vicinity, formerly the seat of a bishopric, claims vainly the rank of a town; it does not contain 1100 inhabitants, and, as if to afford an example of the vicissitudes in this lower world, the episcopal palace has been changed into an asylum for mendicants.

The ancient county of Bigorre forms almost the whole of the department, which derives its name from the highest part of the Pyrenees.^e The plains are confined to the northern districts; the others are made up of thick forests and verdant vallies, mountains difficult of access, naked peaks, summits covered with glaciers, and lakes fed by melted snows. The torrents or *gaves*,^f which fall in cataracts from the mountains, are the sources of the Adour, the Garonne and other rivers which water the department. He who travels from the confines of the department of the Gers to Mont Perdu, the Mont Blanc of the Pyrenees, passes through almost every climate in Europe; he may observe the vegetation changing gradually from the plants of temperate countries to those of hyperborean regions. No great quantity of corn is raised on the most fruitful soils, but they yield plenty of wine. An active race of men inhabit the mountains; their manner of life may recal the customs of pastoral tribes. The shepherds have their winter and summer residence; they choose the first in the lower, and the other in the higher vallies. Skilful in directing the course of the waters, they are thus enabled to enrich the meadows, which in the latter part of the year, afford nourishment to their cattle. "The same small stream," says Ramond,^g "waters contiguous possessions, the one above the other. A few slates are the simple sluices by which the course of the water may be changed, and made to communicate with neighbouring canals, where, by the same means, it is directed from meadow to meadow, until it reaches the lowest declivities which it is intended to fructify." While the different members of the family are

engaged in cultivating the ground, one man conducts the flocks to the highest mountains, where natural pastures await them; if he cannot find any cave or shelter, he raises a rude cottage with stones and the branches of trees; in autumn, the sheep and cattle are brought down to the summer residence, which the family has left for the village. The shepherd passes the winter in solitude, and his flocks consume the food that has been prepared for them. He braves the rigours of the season, the snows, the hurricanes and the overwhelming avalanche. His food consists principally of milk, but the cows are much inferior both in form and in size to those on the Alps.

We shall commence with the towns in the northern part of the country. Vic en Bigorre,^h a small town on the right bank of the Lechez, is peopled by 3500 inhabitants; it carries on a trade in brandy and leather. Rabastens near the banks of a canal,ⁱ is the small town whose inhabitants were massacred without distinction of age or sex by the troops of Charles the Ninth, after the battle of Montcontour.

Tarbes is situated above these places, on the banks of the Adour; the streets are broad and regular, and the houses are built of brick and marble. A pure air and a cloudless sky, together with fresh and limpid streams, contribute to the salubrity for which it is famed. It is the chief town and the mart of all the commerce in the department; many Spaniards repair to it for the purpose of purchasing cattle. The prefect resides in the ancient episcopal palace; the cathedral rises on the ruins of the castle of Bigorra; the square of Maubourguet, situated in the centre of the town, is adorned with trees, and encircled with coffee-houses and places of amusement, but it cannot be compared with the Prado beyond the walls. Tarbes stands probably on the site of the ancient city of the *Tarbelli*.^k

Bagnères de Bigorre is situated five leagues to the south, and on the banks of the same river; it is the capital of a district,^l and many strangers visit it every year on account of its mineral waters. It stands at the foot of a hill covered with trees and verdure; pleasant walks extend from it through the fine valley of Campan and along the banks of the Adour. Campan, a flourishing burgh, contains about 4500 inhabitants; it is a place of trade; the manufactures are paper and woollen stuffs. Extensive marble quarries and a grotto four hundred feet in depth, adorned with beautiful stalactites, are situated in the vicinity.^m Argelès,ⁿ the chief town of a district,^o is only remarkable for its romantic position in a valley, watered by the Gave d'Azun, which unites with the Gave de Pau. On the banks of the last river, and at the distance of five leagues below Argelès, Lourdes rises on a rock, commanded by a fortress, which was ceded to the English by the treaty of Bretigny, and afterwards changed into a state prison. It is a small town, with manufactories of linen and woollen stuffs, and appears to be of very ancient origin, from the remains of walls and towers of Roman construction. Caunterets, towards the summits of the Pyrenees, is situated near roaring cataracts and foaming streams; it is mentioned in history as the resi-

^a "The castle now serves as a prison, which, like most of those in France, stands in great need of improvement."

^b "18° to 60°."

^c Founded 1206. Suppressed and united with the see of Toulouse. (1822).—P.

^d "iron works, paper mills and woollen manufactories."

^e Department of the Upper Pyrenees.

^f The name given by the Basques and the Bearnese to streams and rivers, as the Gave de Pau, the Gave d'Oloron.—P.

^g Voyages et observations faites dans les Pyrenees.

^h Vic Bigorre.

ⁱ Dug by Alaric.—M. B.

^k Tarbes was the ancient *Tarba*, the capital of the *Bigerrones*. The capital of the *Tarbelli* was *Aque Augusta Tarbellica*, now Dax D'Anv. Encyc. Method.—P.

^l Arrondissement. Alman. Royal.

^m "Campan, a pleasant town (*bourg*) of 4500 inhabitants, derives its importance from its manufactories of woollen stuffs, its paper mill, its marble, and the stalactites in a grotto four hundred feet in depth."

ⁿ Argellez. (Vosgien.)

dence of Margaret of Valois, but its celebrity depends chiefly at present on its mineral waters. The village of St. Sauveur is visited on account of the sulphureous springs in the neighbourhood. The church in the small town of Luz, was originally a convent of the Templars. The thermal springs of Baresges, to which more than 600 strangers repair, vary in temperature from 106° to 122° of Fahrenheit.^a The village is formed by a single street, consisting of eighty houses, and has a chapel, an hospital built by Louis the Fifteenth for disabled soldiers, and extensive baths. Although a pleasant summer residence, it is hardly habitable in winter; most of the inhabitants then repair to Luz, where they remain until the beginning of spring. The famous cataract of Gavarnie, more remarkable than any other in Europe, may be observed in the neighbourhood; it falls from the height of 1270 feet.

The ancient principality of Bearn,^b and Lower Navarre,^c the only remains of the kingdom, which Rome took from the grandfather^d of Henry the Fourth, and granted to Ferdinand king of Arragon, are included in the department of the Lower Pyrenees. A new title, that of king of Navarre, was assumed by the French sovereigns, when a descendant of the house of Bearn mounted the throne of France. The territories of Soule and Labourd^{e f} are also situated in the same department.^g The Pyrenees do not occupy one half of the country; they have no longer the appearance of lofty mountains covered with eternal glaciers, but of heights crowned with forests, and intersected with fruitful and well peopled vallies. Hills planted with vineyards extend at their base, plains rich in corn line both the banks of the Gave de Pau, and the sandy lands on the north, partly uncultivated, but susceptible of much improvement, add to the varied products of the department. The Bidassoa bounds it on the west, and determines the line which separates the kingdoms of France and Spain. In the same river is situated the isle of Pheasants, called also the isle of Conference, from the interview between Mazarin and Lewis de Haro,^h an interview that brought about the treaty by which Artois and Roussillon were ceded to France.ⁱ Although the coasts bathed by the Gulf of Gascony are not extensive, the harbours situated on them, afford great advantages to the commerce of the department; the inhabitants are not solely occupied with agricultural labours; many of them are employed in different manufactories, and in working iron and other mines.

At the period when the Arabs, then masters of the greater

^a "32° to 40°."

^b A territory extending along the foot of the Pyrenees, between Lower Navarre and Soule on the west, and Bigorre on the east. Pau the capital.—P.

^c A small territory, 8 leagues long and 5 broad, separated from Spanish Navarre by the Pyrenees. It occupies the S. W. extremity of France. St. Jean Pied de Port the capital.—P.

^d Jean d'Albret, great grandfather of Henry IV.—P.

^e Labourd signifies coast, in the Gascon dialect.

^f "Pays de Soule" (the country of Soule, situated between Bearn and Navarre. Mauleon the capital.)—"Terre de Labourd" (country of Labour, situated on the sea coast. Bayonne, the capital.)—P.

^g Soule, Labour and Lower Navarre are called the Basque provinces. The Basques form the principal part of the population, both in the towns and the country, and they still retain their very peculiar language and costume.—P.

^h Don Luis de Haro, prime minister of Philip IV. of Spain.—P.

ⁱ In the river Bidassoa nearly at the crossing place from Fontarabia to Andaya on the French side, is a small barren and uninhabited island, formerly named the Isle of Pheasants, but being the place where the conference was held between France and Spain, which produced the peace of the Pyrenees, it thence received the name of Isle de la Conference. Tuckey's Mar. Geog. II. p. 74.—P.

part of Spain, extended their devastations beyond the Pyrenees, a prince of Bearn marked with three stakes, the site of a castle, which was afterwards raised to impede their progress. The same edifice, built in the ninth century, was occupied both as a palace and a fortress. The people of Bearn called it *Paou*, which signifies a stake, and from the protection it afforded, houses were grouped round it, and a town was thus formed in the tenth century, which continued to increase and prosper under the government of good and enlightened princes. Such was the origin of Pau, a city built with some sort of elegance, near the extremity of a table-land that commands the fruitful valley watered by the Gave,^k which derives its name from the ancient capital of Bearn. The principal ornaments of the town are a lofty bridge that rises above the river with the majesty of an aqueduct, together with the castle, the court of justice, and a public walk adorned with a fine fountain. Pau is renowned as the birthplace of Henry the Fourth, but it has also produced Gaston de Foix, the celebrated duke of Nemours, Jane d'Albret, who, although queen of a petty state, acted an important part in French history, and the viscount D'Orthès, who in Bayonne, on St. Bartholomew's day, spared the victims devoted by Charles the Ninth;^l it was also the native town of Peter Marca,^m one of the most learned prelates in the Gallican church, of Pardies the astronomer, and lastly, of the general,ⁿ who accepted the Swedish throne, and renounced his country. It may be repeated that Henry the Fourth was born in the castle of Pau, which, during the revolution, was changed into a barrack, and after the restoration, into a royal palace. A large tortoise-shell, once the cradle of the monarch, is preserved with almost religious veneration; other relics of the great and good king are kept with the same care. But Pau has more titles to celebrity than those arising from historical associations; it holds no mean place among the industrious towns in France; the manufactures consist of cloth, carpets and woollen stuffs.^o Nay, situated above it, on the left bank of the Gave de Pau, is a place of some trade;^p it was the native town of Abbadie, a famous protestant theologian.

Oloron or Oleron on the right bank of the Gave d'Ossau,^q carries on a trade with Spain; it sends among other articles into that country, a great many boxwood combs made by machinery; it exports timber for the royal navy, and the wool it receives from Spanish Navarre into different parts of France.^r Mauleon stands in a fruitful valley; it is the smallest capital of a district^s in the department. Orthez,^t

^k Gave de Pau.

^l This act is attributed to the viscount La Brauc, a native of Orthez. Encyc. Method.—P.

^m Pierre de Marca, president of parliament, and afterwards archbishop of Toulouse, under Louis XIII.—P.

ⁿ Bernadotte.

^o "Pau holds an important rank among the manufacturing towns of France, from its manufactories of linens and carpets; it is also noted for the excellence of its dried geese and hams, the last of which take their name from Bayonne." M. B. It has manufactories of cloth, linen, handkerchiefs and hats; also paper mills, tanneries, and dyeing houses, and a trade in hams, geese, chestnuts and lime. (Vosgien.) The principal manufactures are linens, table linen and towels; its hams, which are celebrated, are shipped at Bayonne. Ed Encyc.—P.

^p "It has manufactories of woollen stuffs."

^q Gave d'Oloron. (Vosgien.)

^r "It carries on with Spain, a considerable trade in hams, and in boxwood combs made by machinery. It sends to other parts of France, the wool received from Spanish Navarre and collected in the department, and also timber for the royal navy."

^s "Subprefecture" or arrondissement.—P.

^t Ortez, Ourtes (Vosgien).

another chief town of a district,^a and a place of greater importance, is well built and commanded by the ruins of an old castle. Jane d'Albret granted it an university,^b and founded a school, in which a trial was made of what has been since called the system of mutual instruction, a system renewed at the present day, and generally believed to be of English invention.^c A destructive battle was fought at the gates of the town in 1814; Marshal Soult, at the head of 20,000 men, sustained the shock of 70,000 English, Spaniards and Portuguese under the command of the Duke of Wellington, who purchased a victory with the loss of 10,000 men. The salt springs near Salies, a small town in the same district,^d abound in salt of a pure whiteness, to which has been attributed the superiority of the hams cured at Pau and Bayonne.^e It was in the last town that the bayonet was invented in the eighteenth century,^f—a formidable weapon by which many victories have been since decided.

Bayonne is the only trading town in France, that possesses the advantage of two rivers, in which the tide rises. The Nive and the Adour divide it into three nearly equal parts, called Great Bayonne, Little Bayonne and the suburb of St. Esprit. The streets are broad and straight; the squares and market places are adorned with different edifices, the finest of which are the cathedral and the exchange.^g As a strong place, it may be ranked in the first class; it is the seat of a bishopric, and the capital of a district.^d Great Bayonne is commanded by an old castle, Little Bayonne by a modern castle, and the suburb of St. Esprit by a citadel, the work of Vauban, which has been since enlarged and improved. The harbour, although difficult of access for large ships, is safe and much frequented by small vessels. Many persons are engaged in the coasting trade and in the cod fisheries. Bayonne rivals Andaye in preparing the liqueur that bears the name of that village;^h it sends chocolate into most parts of France,ⁱ and wines of the first quality are produced in the neighbourhood.

The people in the department of the Landes see the summits of the Pyrenees only at a distance; the Adour and the Lay which descend from those mountains, water fields fruitful in maize and wheat, and the hills on the left are covered with vineyards. But on leaving the Adour, vast plains of sand fatigue the eye by an uniformity which is only broken by ponds, marshes or heaths, and at distant intervals, by meadows and cultivated fields. A long green belt near the sea shore is formed by a forest of maritime pines; the same part of the country is thinly peopled. These monotonous and dismal plains (*landes*) give their name to the department. The peasants live in isolated cottages; the father of the family employs himself in cultivating the ground, or in other rural labours, while the young people often travel ten leagues round the country for the purpose of making char-

^a "Subprefecture" or arrondissement.—P.

^b Established for the protestants; suppressed by Louis XIV.—P.

^c Histoire de Jeanne d'Albret, par Mlle. Vauvilliers.

^d "Arrondissement."

^e "The hams of Pau or Bayonne"—cured at Pau, and shipped at Bayonne.—P.

^f The bayonet appears to have been first manufactured in the town of Bayonne, from which it derives its name. It was first introduced by the French about the end of the 17th century, and was employed with great success in the war of 1689. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^g "Mint."

^h Andaye, on the right bank of the Bidassoa, is the last town in France. Tuckey's Mar. Geog. V. II. p. 24. Andaye is noted for its brandy. (Vosgien.)—P.

ⁱ "It is noted for its chocolate"—Its wines, raisins and chocolate are exported in considerable quantities to the north of Europe. Ed. Encyc.—P.

coal in the forests, or of leading their flocks to pastures. It might be supposed that the people were wanderers, and not unwilling to quit an ungrateful soil; certainly their great sobriety, their comparatively few wants, and the velocity with which they move along their deserts by means of long stilts, might afford them great facility in removing; but the love of country prevails. The land, however, is not wholly unproductive; the peasant cultivates hemp, makes sail cloth, and derives considerable profit from the resin of his pine trees. The soil abounds in iron ore, and there are not fewer than seventeen places in the department in which it may be smelted.^k

Dax,^l situated on the left bank of the Adour, above its junction with the Lay, may be considered an important town, not from its population, but as being the capital of a district.^m It is well built and encompassed by old walls flanked with towers. The hospital may be mentioned for the excellent way in which it is managed, and on account of the attention bestowed on the inmates.ⁿ It possesses a museum of natural history, containing a fine collection of fossil shells mostly found in the vicinity; some species which are still inhabitants of the neighbouring sea, prove that the sandy plains in the department were covered by the ocean at a later period than the marine deposits round Paris. The thermal springs are much frequented; their mean temperature is about 165° of Fahrenheit.^o The waters are collected in a pentagonal reservoir nearly 25 feet in depth, surrounded with porticos and iron rails. The vapours that rise from them in the morning when the air is cold, form a dense fog, which covers sometimes the whole town. The Romans were not ignorant of the thermal springs in this ancient city of the *Tarbelli*; it was styled by them *Aqua Tarbellica*;^p it is still not unfrequently called *Aqs*, which, as well as its more common appellation, is evidently derived from the same name. It passed from the Roman domination under that of the Goths; the latter were succeeded by the Franks, who were in their turn expelled by the *Vascones* or Gascons. The Arabs took it in the year 910, and the English in the twelfth century; it was freed from the yoke of the latter about the middle of the fifteenth by Charles the Seventh; it carries on at present a considerable trade in the products of the department. It was the native town of Borda, the inventor of the reflecting circle. The small village of Poy in the vicinity claims the honour of having given birth to Vincent de Paul,^q whom the church adores as a saint, and humanity reveres as a benefactor.

St. Sever rises on the left bank of the Adour, at the distance of ten leagues above Dax. It owes its origin to William Sancho,^r duke of Gascony, who, in the year 982, founded there a celebrated abbey of Benedictines. Aire,

^k "17 furnaces."

^l Dacs, Acqs. Encyc. Method.

^m "Subprefecture" or arrondissement.—P.

ⁿ "On y voit un hospice civil fort bien tenu"—There is in Dax a well managed alms-house. M. B.—The establishments in France for the reception of those who are obliged to have recourse to public charity are of two kinds, viz. hospitals (*hospitaux*) for the sick, and *hospices* for the infirm and indigent. Peuchet, Statistique de la France, p. 261. In the large towns in France there are generally two hospitals, one for the indigent sick, the other for the aged poor. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^o "60° of Reaumur."

^p *Aqua Augusta Tarbellica*, D'Anv.

^q Born 1576 at Ranquines, a small hamlet in the parish of Pouy, diocese of Acqs; died 1660—canonized by Benedict XIII, 1729 Beauvais.—P.

^r "Guillaume Sanche."

at the foot of a hill, is the ancient *Vicus Julii*, which was called *Atures* before the reign of Augustus, from the *Atur*,^a the name given by the *Tarusates* to the Adour, that flows below the town. Tartas rises like an amphitheatre on the declivity of a hill; it is watered by the Midouze, a feeder of the Adour; the country in the neighbourhood abounds in tortoises, red partridges and different sorts of game. Lastly, Mont de Marsan, situated near the confluence of the Douze and the Midou, formerly a very insignificant town, has increased in population, since it became the capital of the department. It bears the name of its founder, Peter, viscount of Marsan, by whom it was built in the year 1140. Although not a manufacturing town, its position at the entrance into a vast plain, renders it the principal mart for the trade of the department.

The Leyre, a small river, which rises on the north of Mont de Marsan, and throws itself into the bay of Arcachon,^b serves as a boundary to the department of the Gironde. The sandy plains or *landes* extend nearly to the banks of the Garonne, from which they are separated by the rich vineyards of Medoc, Haut Brion, St. Emilion and Grave; they terminate on the west in sandy downs that stretch along the sea-shore; the particles of sand carried by the wind, covered formerly every year a space seventy-two feet in breadth by fifty leagues in length. The steeple of a church was long seen near the canal of Furnes, while the other parts of the building were buried in the sand. Several houses on the coast of Medoc, have been destroyed in the same manner, and the tops of the highest trees are only observed in an ancient forest near the bay of Arcachon. It was the opinion of Bremontier the engineer, that plants well adapted for such kinds of soil, might be raised on these downs; his advice was followed, and they have since become fruitful.^c The marble monument, which records the memory of the event, and the gratitude of the inhabitants, is now surrounded by cultivated fields. In the country between the Garonne and the Dordogne, the most varied and picturesque sites succeed the uniformity of the heaths. The soil between the last river and the Dronne, which forms the northern limit of the department, consists of calcareous heights, covered with coppice or vineyards, and separated from each other by fruitful vallies. Enriched by agriculture and trade, the people are industrious and enlightened; iron and other mineral substances are worked with profit; flocks of merinos are by no means uncommon on the estates of the wealthy proprietors, and of late years, the best breeds from England have been introduced into the country.^d

The towns situated in the *landes* are poor and thinly peopled; such is Bazas, the capital of a district.^e Although it possesses no other antiquities than medals and mosaics, it

is known to have been an important place in the time of the Romans, who called it *Cossium Vasatum*,^f because it was situated in the territory of the *Vasates*. The diocese, of which it was formerly the seat, must have been very ancient, since one of the bishops was present at the council of Agde in the year 506. The cathedral is a fine Gothic edifice of the fourteenth century. The ruins of the church of Ozeste, another Gothic building, erected by pope Clement the Fifth, may be seen at a short distance from the walls.^g Langon, surrounded by the vineyards of Grave, is better built; it rises on the left bank of the Garonne, where the tide, still perceptible, favours the trade of the town, and the conveyance of its wines. Of late years, steam boats have sailed regularly to Bordeaux, and the communication between the two towns, has in consequence been much increased.

Many islands are scattered in different parts of the river, and the banks are bordered by fruitful hills. On the right bank are situated the old towers and embattled walls of Cadillac, as well as the fine castle of Epéron. Rioux at a greater distance to the north, on the same bank of the river, contains 1500 inhabitants. Castres, on the left bank, near the confluence of the Gué-Mort, is not so important a place as the last, but better built, and is agreeably situated on the road from Toulouse to Bordeaux. The last city rises majestically on the banks of the Garonne, at the place where the river forms a large curve, and renders the harbour very imposing. It describes an arc, of which the two extremities are not less than a league distant from each other, and the space it encloses may contain a thousand ships. Bordeaux^h may be ranked from its commerce and importance among the first towns in the kingdom. A line of fine buildings extends along the whole length of the city,ⁱ and vessels of every size and from every nation repair to the harbour. The mean breadth of the river may be more than a mile;^k it flows with rapidity, and a magnificent bridge, consisting of seventeen arches, erected over the narrowest part of the Garonne, occupies a space equal to 648 yards^l in length. The difficulties against which the architect had to contend in building such a bridge in such a situation, were apparently insurmountable. It was necessary to overcome the obstacles arising from the sandy and shifting bed of the river, from the depth of twenty-five to forty feet,^m from the force of the tide, which twice a-day rises to the height of four or five yards,ⁿ and from the currents occasioned by the same cause, the velocity of which sometimes exceeds three yards in a second. Old Bordeaux extends on the right of the bridge; the streets are narrow and crooked, and the squares and market places are irregular. The quarter of Chartrons is the most commercial part of the town,^o but the finest and best

century. The Gothic church of Ozeste,[†] founded by Pope Clement V. is situated at a short distance from the walls now in ruins (*ses murailles en ruines*.)

† Oreste? Orestes was bishop of Bazas in 585. Moreri.—P.

^h Bourdeaux.

ⁱ The river forms a semicircular basin, 700 fathoms broad, and is lined by a superb quay, with magnificent buildings. Tuckey's Mar. Geog. V. II. p. 23.—P.

^k "The breadth of the river is equal to three fourths of a league"—The river opposite Bordeaux is between 300 and 400 toises in breadth. Ed. Encyc.

^l "486 metres."

^m "7 to 10 metres."

ⁿ "4 to 6 metres."—The tide rises to the height of 12 feet. Ed. Encyc.

^o The suburb of Chartrons, in which the principal merchants reside. (Ed. Encyc.)—Bordeaux consists of the city (old town.) and the three suburbs of the Chapeau Rouge, St. Surin and the Chartrons. (Encyc. Method.)—P.

^a *Aturus*, D'Anv.

^b Arcachon.

^c "Since the engineer Bremontier suggested the idea that these downs might be fixed by sowing them with plants suited to the soil, they have been rendered productive." France is indebted to Bremontier for fixing the sands and planting the downs along the Gulf of Gascony, and for restoring those sandy soils to cultivation. (Beauvais.) Since 1788, the government has attempted checking the progress of the downs, by raising pines from seeds on their internal declivities, and as far as the experiment has been tried, it is said to have succeeded. Tuckey's Mar. Geog. V. II. p. 5.—P.

^d "Enriched by its agriculture and a very extensive commerce, the department of the Gironde also contains many manufacturing establishments. Iron is extensively manufactured; there are four high furnaces* and seven fineries† in the department. Many of the wealthy proprietors keep flocks of merinos, and are also engaged in introducing the English long woolled sheep."—P.

* Smelting furnaces. † Refining furnaces—used in making bar iron.

^e "Arrondissement."

^f *Cossio*, D'Anv.

^g "The cathedral is one of the finest monuments of the fourteenth

built is the quarter of the Chapeau Rouge. Louis the Fourteenth destroyed the remains of an ancient temple dedicated to the tutelary gods, in order to enlarge the esplanade of the Chateau Trompette; but the castle itself has been destroyed since the revolution, and modern buildings not unworthy of so wealthy a city are now raised on the site.^a All that remains of the old fortifications, now useless, are the ruins of the fort of St. Croix at the extremity of the quarter of Chartrons; the dockyards extend at their base.

The old dungeons^b in the castle of Ha are still entire; they are used as a prison. The Burgundian gate,^c a fine triumphal arch, rises on the quay, opposite the bridge; it was built to commemorate the birth of the grandson of Louis the Fourteenth.^d Another gate near the old trenches of Salinieres, may be remarked on account of the Gothic edifice which rises above it; it is the ancient town-house. The Royal square^e is more worthy of the name from the buildings which adorn it, than from its size. The *Place Dauphine*, more regular than the last, is situated at the extremity of a much frequented walk, called the alleys of Tourny; the other squares worthy of notice, are the *Place d'Armes*, and those of *St. Germain* and *Grands-hommes*. The cathedral, the largest church in the town, is a Gothic edifice; the interior, imposing from its size, is adorned with a magnificent altar. The large theatre, a circular building,^f surpasses most places of the same kind in elegance of architecture, and in the commodious arrangement of the boxes. A light and graceful dome towers above the exchange, the rendezvous for merchants from every part of the world. The ancient archiepiscopal palace, an edifice remarkable for its regularity, was changed into a royal palace at the restoration. Bordeaux, like Paris, has a pompous cemetery, where the wealthy accumulate marbles and inscriptions; it is situated at the extremity of the town, in the enclosure of the new Chartreuse, near a handsome modern church embellished with fresco paintings. Within the same rich city are situated several hospitals, an asylum for the deaf and dumb, different academical societies, and a public library, consisting of 110,000 volumes, among which is a copy of Montaigne's *Essays* with marginal corrections written by the author; it possesses besides, a botanical garden, one of the four established by government for the purpose of naturalizing exotic plants, a collection of natural history, schools of theology, medicine, surgery, drawing and painting, and lastly a

museum of antiquities, in which are tombs and basso-relievos collected in the town or neighbourhood.^g We have had occasion to mention an ancient temple, now wholly destroyed; some arcades of an amphitheatre, called the palace of Gallienus,^h are the only remains that serve to recal the Roman domination. It is supposed that Bordeaux was a town before the conquest of Caesar, and that its ancient name came from two words of Celtic origin, *Bur* and *Wal*, signifying a Gallic fortress, which the Romans corrupted into *Burdigala*. It is by that name that Ausonius mentions it in his verses; it became the capital of the second Aquitania during the reign of Hadrian. It was ravaged by the Visigoths about the end of the fourth century, and four hundred years afterwards, by the Saracens and the Normans; it passed with the whole of Aquitaine into the power of the English in the year 1152.ⁱ It was enlarged under Henry the Second and Edward the Third, but it did not become very flourishing until Charles the Seventh freed it from a foreign yoke. Although it may be doubted that it was the native town of Ausonius and Sidonius Apollinaris, it claims at least the merit of having given birth to Montesquieu, to Berquin, to Ducos and Gensonné, two distinguished members of the national convention, and lastly to the celebrated defender of Louis the Sixteenth,^k whose devotedness was rewarded with the most honourable dignities.

Bordeaux has its distilleries, vinegar, nitric acid and sugar works; it possesses paper, cotton, silk and woollen manufactories: the porcelain, glass, hats, carpets and stockings made in the same place are sold in different parts of France.^l It equips every year nearly two hundred vessels, and of these several are sent to the cod and whale fisheries.

The small town of Blaye, supposed to have been the ancient *Blavia*, is situated below the narrow tongue of land, called the *Bec d'Ambès*,^m on the right bank of the Gironde, opposite Medoc. It is divided into two parts, one of which rises on the acclivity of a hill, and the other on the summit, where four large bastions serve with the fort of Medoc to guard the entrance into the river. According to tradition, Caribert, who died in the year 574, and the brave Roland, who fell at Roncevaux in 778, were buried within the walls of the town. Libourne, the capital of a district,ⁿ is situated at the confluence of the Dordogne and the Dronne; it is encompassed with walls and

^a The Chateau Trompette was purchased from the late king (Louis XVI.) by a company of speculators, for the purpose of being taken down, in order to build with the materials a fine square, and several splendid streets, to the number of 1800 houses. (Ed. Encyc. 1813.)—P.

^b "The Donjon"—principal tower or keep.

^c "Porte de Bourgogne"—Gate of Burgundy.

^d Louis, duke of Burgundy, father of Louis XV.—P.

^e "Place Royale."

^f In the shape of the segment of an oval, occupying a space of 306 by 165 feet, with the principal front at one end, where there is a portico of twelve very large Corinthian columns. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^g "—a cabinet of natural history, a university, a faculty of theology, schools of medicine, drawing and painting, a gallery of pictures, and a museum of antiquities, in the last of which are collected the different tombs and basso-relievos, that have been found within the town or in its neighbourhood."

* "Académie Universitaire."—The general superintendence of education in France is intrusted to the Council of Public Instruction, subordinate to which are the Academies, equal to the royal courts in number. The Academies have the immediate superintendence of all the schools within their jurisdiction. The schools are arranged in the following order: viz. 1st, Faculties; 2d, Royal and Communal Colleges; 3d, Seminaries (*Institutions*), and Boarding Schools (*Pensions*); 4th, Primary Schools. The academies with their faculties correspond to the former universities, whence the term "académie universitaire," in the original.—P.

^h The amphitheatre and the palace of Gallienus were two distinct edifices. The former was of an oval figure, 227 feet in length and 140 in breadth. A few walls and two of the gates are the only remains of the latter. Encyc. Method.—P.

ⁱ By the marriage of Eleanor, only daughter of William the tenth and last duke of Guienne, who had been divorced from Louis VII. of France in 1152, with Henry of Normandy, afterwards Henry II. of England, Bordeaux became subject to the princes of that country, by whom it was greatly enlarged and beautified. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^k Count Deseze, the youngest of the council of Louis XVI., selected as their associate by the two elder council, Malesherbes and Tronehet, after the refusal of Target to officiate. He lived in retirement till the restoration, when he was made president of the Court of Cassation, and afterwards ennobled, by Louis XVIII.—P.

^l "Bordeaux possesses manufactories of vinegar and nitric acid, distilleries and sugar refineries; it also manufactures paper, cottons, hats, stockings, pottery (*delft-ware*), glass, carpets and oil cloth."

^m The point between the two rivers, at the confluence of the Garonne and the Dordogne.—P.

ⁿ "Subprefecture" or *arrondissement*.

^o Libourne is situated at the confluence of the Dordogne and the Ille. (Vosgien. Encyc. Method. Rees' Cyc.) The Dronne is a branch of the Ille.—P.

agreeable walks, and was founded by Edward the First, king of England. La Reole, the last town worthy of notice, rises near the eastern extremity of the department, on a hill which commands the right bank of the Garonne. It was the birthplace of the two Fauchers, both victims of the same political revolution. Twin brothers, and united to each other by the most devoted attachment, their patriotism called them both to the field of battle, where they served in the same ranks, distinguished themselves in the same engagements, and were made generals at the same time. Enthusiastically attached to liberty, they disdained to promote the ambition of a single man; as soon, therefore, as Bonaparte assumed the title of consul, and thereby announced his ambitious designs, they resigned their commissions. Their retirement was ennobled with the laurels of twenty campaigns. But the presence of foreign troops on the French territory after the battle of Waterloo, and the continuance of hostilities after the departure of Napoleon, and the return of the King, announcing the dangers which threatened France, the two brothers accepted from general Clausel, the honourable office of defending their native town, an office which they fulfilled with much zeal and ability until, informed of the state of events, they laid down their arms. Their patriotism was imputed to them as a crime; summoned before a special commission, no advocate was bold enough to defend them. The two brothers were in consequence doomed to death, and as they had been inseparable during life, so they died in embracing each other.

If a traveller were to form an opinion of the soil in the department of the Lot and Garonne from the wide and fertile vallies that these two rivers water, he might suppose it one of the most fruitful in France. But the dismal landes that have been already mentioned, extend on the west, and cover an eighth part of the surface. The hills situated on the east between the Garonne and the Lot, particularly near the banks of the Lot, are by no means fruitful. On the north, the labourer attempts to derive some profit from a ferruginous clay, which covers several districts; it may be truly said, however, that the soil is ungrateful.^a But in the more fertile parts of the country, the corn crops suffice amply for the wants of the inhabitants. Trees of different kinds are loaded with fruit, and it is believed that the best prunes in France are exported from the department.^b The vines, often cultivated with the plough, and suffered to grow without props, yield double the quantity of wine that the inhabitants consume. Most of the wines are red, thick and strong; they may be kept a long time, and are not impaired by distant voyages. Hemp grows to a great height, and judges consider it superior to any in the north; tobacco is cultivated on a great scale,

^a "It may be truly said that in one half of the department, the soil is unproductive."

^b "Plum trees are the most common, particularly those that furnish the excellent prunes called *cates*,* which form an extensive article of exportation."

* Fr. *ente*, a graft.

^c "Iron is the most important of its mineral productions; it supplies three high furnaces, three Catalan forges,† and five fineries."

† Furnaces in which tough or bar iron is made directly from the ore.—P.

^d Fr. *brouillard*, fog mist. ^e "Arrondissement."

^f Brandy, cordage and pins. (Vosgien.)

^g Clerac.

^h "The tobacco manufactory (*manufacture de tabac*), which formerly enjoyed a high reputation, is situated at a short distance from its walls. Clairac on the Lot formerly rivalled it in that article; its tobacco (*tu-*

and it is considered of a better quality than any other sort in France. Iron, the most abundant mineral substance in the department, adds considerably to the wealth of the inhabitants.^c The climate is temperate, the sky is seldom clouded, and the air is salubrious; an exception, however, must be made of the country near the marshes, which cover part of the landes. Long alternations of rains and droughts often interrupt the course of the seasons; sometimes an atmospheric phenomenon, called the *brouillard*^d in the country, changes the joyful days of spring into days of mourning. If the burning rays of the sun are suddenly felt after the light mist which accompanies the same phenomenon, the hopes of the husbandman are blasted.

Marmande was almost destroyed by the Arabs in the eighth century; although many of the buildings are antiquated, it is on the whole, a well built town; it is the chief place in a district^e of the same name; it rises on the right bank of the Garonne, and carries on a considerable trade with Bordeaux. Tonneins consists mostly of a long and broad street, embellished with several fine houses; the inhabitants are industrious, and the town is a place of trade both in the products of the department, and in different manufactures.^f The tobacco works, which were at one time in greater repute than any others in France, are situated at a short distance from the walls. Although its snuff is still much prized, connoisseurs of the present day seem to give the preference to that of Clairac,^g a town situated on the Lot, peopled by about 5000 inhabitants, and one of the first places in the south that embraced the reformation.^h Villeneuve d'Agen, which was built in the thirteenth century according to a regular plan, is traversed by the Lot; the principal arch of a bridge erected at the same period over the river, is 108 feet in width and 55 in height. The old fortifications are now changed into agreeable walks, but some remains of the former may be seen near the castle of Duke Alphonso, the brother of St. Louis, and the founder of the town. No other place of any consequence can be mentioned in the same district.^k Agen, although thinly peopled, is the largest town in the department; its antiquity is attested by the name of *Aginum*,^m given it by Ptolemy, who informs us that it was the capital of the *Nitiobriges*. It obtained the rank and privileges of a city under Theodosius; it is at present the seat of a bishopric and a court of justice.ⁿ The streets are narrow and crooked, and the houses clumsy and inconvenient, but the bridge over the Garonne is a fine structure. The walks are laid out with much taste, and the neighbouring country cannot be too much commended. Agen was the native town of Joseph Scaliger and Lacepede. The inhabitants manufacture hard-ware, sail-cloth and printed cottons. The small but neat town of Nerac on the Bayse,^o

bac) was esteemed the best in France."—For a memoir on the cultivation and preparation of tobacco in the district of Tonneins, see Savary, Dict. Comm. 1741, Vol. III. p. 272, or Encyc. Meth. Commerce, art. *Tabac*. The modes of preparing it were spinning and rolling. The manufacture of snuff is not mentioned.—P.

ⁱ "The first place in the south which embraced the reformation." Gerard Le Roux, abbot of Clerac, about the year 1530, having embraced the doctrines of the reformation, not only brought over the town to his persuasion, but also Margaret, queen of Navarre, who declared herself his protectress. Moreri.—P.

^k Arrondissement of Villeneuve d'Agen.

^l It is the capital of the department and the residence of the prefect.—P.

^m *Aginum*, Ptolem. ed. Mercator. 1584.—P.

ⁿ "Cour royale."

^o Baise.

is situated in a picturesque country, and commanded by an ancient Gothic castle, the residence of the kings of Navarre.^a

The department of the Gers, bounded on the north by the one that has been last mentioned, may be considered an agricultural country; although mountainous on the south, large plains extend towards the north; the air is pure and the climate temperate. A seventh part of the surface is covered with vineyards; the rest is laid out in meadows and corn fields. The greater part of the soil yields moderate harvests, and the department furnishes very little good wine, but a great quantity of bad, which the inhabitants convert into brandy, better than any other sort in France, with the exception of that of Cognac. The brandy still bears the name of Armagnac, an ancient province, of which the greater part forms the present department.^b

Condom stands on the Bayse, a river which serves to turn many flour mills in the vicinity;^c it carries on a considerable trade in leather and quills; it was formerly the seat of a bishopric. Several distilleries have been built in the small towns of Cazaubon and Eauze; the name of the last was probably derived from *Elusa*, a city belonging to the *Elusates*, and the metropolis of *Novempopulania*, of which some vestiges are to be found in Ciutat, an adjoining hamlet. The village of Castera-Vivent, situated on the road to Auch, is much frequented on account of the sulphureous springs near it. Auch, the ancient *Climberis*, the capital of the *Ausci*, a people who were subdued by Crassus, is at present the chief town of the department, and the residence of an archbishop, who was formerly entitled primate of Aquitaine.^d Rising like an amphitheatre on the declivity of a hill, and divided by the Gers into the upper and lower town, Auch consists of narrow and winding streets, but the squares and public places are built with greater regularity. The foundation of the cathedral has been attributed to Clovis; it may be admired for the elevation of the vaulted roof, the beauty of the painted windows, which Mary de Medicis wished to remove to Paris, and the elegance of the modern portal, in which the Corinthian order is united with the Composite. A well built square in the upper part of the town, leads to a pleasant walk, from which the view extends to the Pyrenees; for these as well as many other embellishments, the inhabitants are indebted to M. Deigny,^e an individual to whom they have shown their gratitude by erecting a statue. Auch is the native town of the witty Roquelaure, of admiral Villaret de Joyeuse and of general Dessolles. Mirande, the small capital of a poor and sterile district,^f is well built and encompassed with walls. Lombès,^g still more insignificant, but situated in a very fruitful part of the country, has been often injured by the inundations of the Save, which waters it. Fleurance, although it contains only 3000 inhabitants, is adorned with a fine public square.

We traverse a fruitful country, and follow the windings of the Gers, before we arrive at the height which crowns Lectoure, the birthplace of Marshal Lannes. It is not far removed from the site which has been attributed to *Lactora*, a city of the *Lactorates*. It is chiefly worthy of no-

tice on account of the magnificent view from the public walk called the Bastion. The walls that surround it, are erected on the space occupied by the triple enclosure, which defended it in the time of the counts of Armagnac, but which proved no security to the last descendant of that illustrious family, against the vengeance of Louis the Eleventh. John the Fifth, count of Armagnac, was one of those persons who seem to be impelled in the career of wickedness by an irresistible power, and whom impetuous passions render as culpable as unfortunate. The crimes of his father, who revolted against his liege lord, might have deprived him of his dominions, had it not been for the clemency of Charles the Seventh, but the misfortunes of his family, and the proscription denounced against him in early life, were all unavailing lessons. A passion at which nature shudders, was the origin of his misfortunes. Madly attached to his sister Isabella, a lady renowned for her beauty, the publicity of their guilt brought upon him the wrath of the church; but the indignation of Rome was appeased by his feigned repentance. He had hardly been absolved from excommunication and restored to Christian privileges, when he ventured to solicit from the pope, dispensations for marrying his sister, which were peremptorily refused, but two persons suborned by the count, forged them, and the monstrous marriage was celebrated with pomp and solemnity. The chief of the church published a second and a terrible anathema against the incestuous pair. Charles employed persuasion and counsel to restore the count to reason, who repaid his kindness by joining the enemies of France. Lectoure was shortly afterwards besieged by a formidable army; Isabella fled, John could not remain without her, and both hastened for protection to the King of Arragon, their relative. Love, not fear, had induced the count to fly, but singularly inconsistent in his character, he returned and appeared before the parliament that summoned him. Thrown into prison, he made his escape; proscribed, deprived of his dominions, and unable to see her, whom a late but not insincere repentance rendered the most wretched of mothers, he travelled on foot as a mendicant to Rome, and implored for himself, now that his power had vanished as a dream, and for her who was bewailing her crimes in a cloister, the mercy of the holy father; an absolution was granted, but not without the most rigid conditions. Louis the Eleventh put him again in possession of his estates, and he married the daughter of the count of Foix; but equally ungrateful to his new benefactor, as he had formerly been to Charles the Seventh, he conspired against the throne of France. Punished a second time, and driven from his dominions, he was enabled to return in consequence of new political intrigues, which he had formed with the duke of Guienne. He became a third time an exile after the tragical death of the duke, but by new intrigues he made himself a third time master of his capital, and cast Peter of Bourbon into prison, who commanded the town in the name of the king. Louis the Eleventh had now determined to reduce the power of the great vassals of the crown, and the treason of John was not to be passed over with impunity. Tristan

^a It has manufactories of sea biscuit, and is noted for its pastry.—M. B.

^b Rather is situated in or forms part of.— The department of the Gers is formed by the old province of Condomois, and part of those of Comminges and Armagnac. Armagnac is included in the departments of the Gers and the Upper Pyrenees, the greater part in the former.—P.

^c "Condom is traversed by the Bayse, which turns a great number of flour mills."

^d The archbishopric of Auch was suppressed during the revolution.—P.

^e Intendant of Auch. M. B.

^f "Arrondissement."

^g Lombez.

the hermit, and Cardinal D'Alby, marched with their sanguinary troops against Lectoure; the count defended himself bravely, and his son, the fruit of incestuous love, was slain in a sally. Despairing of success, and no match against the king in the number of his men, he offered to surrender on certain conditions. The conditions were accepted; the cardinal and the count partook the sacrament together, and both parties swore on the altar to observe them. However, the troops of the king had hardly entered the town before all the inhabitants were put to the sword; the count fell in the midst of the slaughter,^a and the countess, far advanced in pregnancy, was compelled to swallow poison;^b Charles his only brother, and James d'Armagnac his cousin expiated on the scaffold the crimes of their relative.^c

A new department, that of the Tarn and Garonne, was added to the others, conformably to a decree passed on the second of November 1808; it consists of different districts, which were taken from the adjoining departments.^d It is watered by the Aveyron, which throws itself into the Tarn below Montauban, and by the Tarn which joins the Garonne below Moissac. The Gimonne, the Rats and other streams of less consequence, which traverse it in different directions, serve to enlarge a river often liable to inundations. Fruitful and well cultivated fields are enclosed with hedges, or varied with groves of quince trees.^e The land produces much more wheat than the inhabitants can consume; more than half the wine is converted into brandy, and sent out of the department; the white mulberry tree affords plentiful nourishment to the silk worm; different sorts of poultry are reared in great numbers; and mules prized by the Spaniards, are exported to their country. It is pleasing to observe the reciprocal influence of agricultural and manufacturing industry; thus the consequences of the one are numerous distilleries, silk manufactories and other works of different kinds.^f

Moissac, founded about the end of the fourth century, rises on the right bank of the Tarn, and the navigation of the river facilitates the trade with Bordeaux. Lauzerte, a small town of 5000 inhabitants, stands on a rock in a picturesque situation, at the confluence of the Landou and the Barguelonne. The ancient walls and ramparts that encompassed Castel-Sarrasin^g are now changed into agreeable walks.

Montauban, the most central town in the department, was founded in the twelfth century. It has been affirmed that it received the name of *Mons Albanus* from the great quantity of willows in the vicinity, which the country people call *albas*. It is a large and well built town; the Tarn, which divides it into three quarters, affords an easy communication with Bordeaux, and adds to the importance of its trade.^h The gates, the town-house and most of the public buildings are not inelegant; the cathedral is much

older than the town; indeed it is well known that long before the foundation of the latter, the convent of *Mons Aureolus* stood in the highest part of the present Montauban. It is the native town of Lefranc de Pompignanⁱ and other distinguished men.

It is said that queen Brunehaut had a castle at Bruniquel on the left bank of the Verre, where the lower orders find at present employment in working iron.^k Negrepelisse was a flourishing town, before it was burnt by the troops of Louis the Thirteenth.^l Cossade,^m St. Antonin and Caylus are small towns of four or five thousand inhabitants, who manufacture serge and coarse cloth, dress leather,ⁿ and carry on a considerable trade in the corn and wines of the department.

Mounts Espinouse, Garriguen and Aubrac, and some branches of the Cantal extend over almost all the surface in the department of the Aveyron;^o vast forests cover their declivities, and the snow remains on their summits six months in the year. Thus, although a southern department, the climate is cold in some places, particularly in the northern districts; in others where the temperature is milder, wheat is in general not the most common sort of grain. Not less than a third part of the land remains uncultivated, but the harvests are sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants. The vineyards, confined to the eastern part of the country, produce as much wine as the people can consume; if, however, the wines of Agnac, Laucedat and Marcillac be excepted, all the others are of an ordinary quality. But the wealth of the department consists in fruitful meadows and pastures, which afford the means of rearing horses, mules, oxen, goats, and nearly 600,000 sheep. The cheese of Roquefort, which the inhabitants export to most countries in Europe, is made of the milk of the ewes, mixed with a small proportion of the milk of the she-goats. The different metals in the same department are still unworked, but it contains besides extensive coal mines and quarries of aluminous schistus; the produce of the last in sulphate of alumine, which now forms a considerable article of commerce, might be easily increased in a tenfold ratio. The mineral riches of the department, the existence of which was hardly imagined thirty years ago, are found in the chain that separates the Lot from the Aveyron. The mountains containing coal were known only by their spontaneous combustion, the true source of which was not even suspected; the cause of their ignition is probably attributable to the decomposition of sulphuret of iron, although similar fires are often occasioned by accidental causes. A remarkable example of this kind may be seen on the heights of Fontagne, at the distance of four hundred feet above the Aveyron. One may there observe a crevice of an elliptical form, surrounded with plants, of which the pale verdure indicates their languid and unhealthy state. The combustion is not visi-

^a A. D. 1473.—P.

^b “—to procure abortion.” She afterwards married John count of Astier. Moreri.—P.

^c Charles was confined 14 years in the Bastille by Louis XIII.; he was finally liberated by Charles VIII. He succeeded his brother as count of Armagnac, and died 1496. James d'Armagnac, duke of Nemours, was beheaded at Paris Aug. 4, 1477. Moreri. Beauvais.—P.

^d From the departments of the Aveyron, the Upper Garonne, the Gers, the Lot, and the Lot and Garonne.—P.

^e “—enclosed with hedges and wild quince trees (*cognassiers*.)”

^f “The influence of manufactures in encouraging agriculture is not less remarkable in this department than in other countries; examples of this may be observed in the favorable effects of the distilleries, and of the manufactories of silk stockings and quilts”

^g Castel-Sarrasin.

^h “—of its manufactures.”—The principal manufactures of the place are silk stuffs and stockings, linens, serge, and other woollen stuffs. Ed. Encyc.—P.

ⁱ J. J. Le Franc, marquis de Pompignan, a lyric and dramatic poet of the last century.—P.

^k “Bruniquel possesses fineries (*affineries*) and high furnaces”——The translator, by a characteristic blunder, mistook fineries (furnaces for making bar iron) for sugar refineries, and consequently found employment for his lower orders in refining sugar, as well as in working iron!—P.

^l A. D. 1622.

^m Caussade.

ⁿ “They possess tanneries and manufactories of linens and serges.”

^o Aveyron.

ble during the day, but favored by the obscurity of the night, flames are seen to rise from the cavity, which resembles a small crater; to the persons who venture to approach, notwithstanding the heat and smoke exhaled from it, it appears filled with a mass of burning coals. The combustion has continued for several centuries, but it is believed that a perceptible diminution has taken place in its intensity. The mountains in the department form the boundaries of six long vallies, watered by the Trueyre, the Lot, the Aveyron, the Viaur, the Tarn and the Sorgues, almost all of which flow in the direction from east to west. The same vallies are filled with fruitful alluvial deposits; the rivers, particularly the Lot and the Tarn, serve to move different works, such as silk, woollen and paper manufactories,^a and facilitate commercial intercourse with the neighbouring departments.

The towns are mostly insignificant, and they may therefore be briefly described. Ville Franche, the chief town in the westernmost district,^b is agreeably situated at the confluence of the Alzon and the Aveyron; it was the birth-place of Marshal Belle-Isle; the neighbouring country abounds in rich pastures.

Rhodesz or Rodez,^c the capital of the department, the smallest and also the ugliest provincial capital^d in France, is built on the declivity of a hill, at the base of which the Aveyron flows with great rapidity. It must not be inferred that the neighbouring country is destitute of beauty; on the contrary, the views from many places are romantic;^e but the dark, dirty, narrow and crooked streets, all built on an inclined plane, are steep and difficult of access. A great many wooden houses, and others of stone, but ill built, project on the streets,^f and the numerous inequalities in the pavement are filled with rough and sharp stones; on the whole, in point of convenience and comfort, it may be said to be several centuries behind the other towns in France. The inhabitants are indebted to the liberality of Francis d'Estaing, one of their bishops, for their cathedral, the only edifice of consequence in Rhodesz. The extent of the nave, the boldness of the vaulted roof, the finely formed windows, the steeple not less than 250 feet in height, and the principal tower terminating in a cupola, and crowned by a colossal statue of the Virgin, render it one of the finest monuments of Gothic architecture in southern France. It has long been considered one of the wonders in the department, and according to a ridiculous Latin inscription on one of the walls, it is said to be equal in height to the pyramids of Egypt. It is affirmed that the Vandals of the revolution would have destroyed the building, had it not been for the address of a single citizen, who preserved it by proposing in an assembly that it should be dedicated to Marat, a motion which was carried by acclamation.^g Rhodesz has given birth to some distinguished men, among others to Hugh Brunet, a troubadour of the twelfth century, and to John de Serres, a protestant theologian. The same town bore before the Roman conquest, the Celtic

name of *Segodunum*, which the Romans changed into *Rutena*,^h because it was the capital of the *Ruteni*. If any opinion may be formed from the resemblance between different words which appear to have passed from the Celtic into the Latin, and other known words of the former language, the people who at a remote period inhabited the province of Rouergue, might with greater accuracy have been called the *Rutheni*, from the Celtic word *Ruth*,ⁱ the same as the German *Roth*, both of which signify *red*; the origin of the name is still indicated by the red colour of the soil and the sandstone near Rhodéz.

St. Afrique, almost encompassed with fine walks, is watered by the Sorgues, which flows in the middle of a valley intersected with orchards, meadows and vineyards. Its crooked streets are lined with Gothic houses; an hospital and the reformed church are the only buildings worthy of notice. The village of Roquefort at two leagues from the town, was famous for its cheese more than eight hundred years ago.

Millhau,^k the Roman *Æmilianum*, is built on the Tarn, in an advantageous situation for trade and manufacturing industry. Severac le Chateau, a town of two thousand inhabitants, rises on a conical hill, commanded by an old Gothic fortress, in which a drawbridge leads to the massive ramparts. St. Geniez d'Olt^l stands on the Lot; *Oltis* was the ancient name of the same river, a name which was probably corrupted into *Olt*.^m It is a neat and small town of 4000 inhabitants, and has given birth to Raynal. Espalion, although not so large, is the capital of a district;ⁿ it is traversed throughout its whole length by a broad and well-built street.

The department which bears the name of the Lot,^o is crossed from east to west by the same river; the Dordogne and the Cere water its northern extremity, and the Sellé, less important than the rest, winds from north-east to south-west, and falls into the Lot. Although the mountains are not lofty, they cover a great extent of surface; different metals are contained in them, and iron is found in sufficient abundance to supply several large founderies.^p The vallies are fruitful in grain, hemp and tobacco; the low hills are covered with vineyards. The excess of the grain harvest above the consumption is considerable; that of the wines amounts to three-fifths.

The inhabitants of Figeac, a town situated on the right bank of the Sellé, are engaged in the manufacture of cotton stuffs, and carry on a great trade in wines and cattle. It owes its origin to a Benedictine abbey founded by Pepin in the year 755. When the abbot made his first entrance into the town, a baron, the lord of Montrun, appeared in the costume of a harlequin, with one leg bare and the other covered with an embroidered stocking; he led a horse from the stable, on which the pious man mounted, and, holding the bridle, conducted him to the church gate, where he waited until the abbot had gone through his devotions, held the stirrup for him on his return, and

^a "The rivers ——— supply iron and copper works, tanneries, silk and paper mills, and manufactories of different stuffs."

^b "Arrendissement." ^c Rhodès, Rodès.

^d "Capital of prefecture" or department.

^e "From its peculiar position, it is surrounded by walks which rise in terraces and furnish magnificent views."

^f "The lower story projects into the street."

^g Promenade de Paris à Bagnères de Luchon, par le comte P. de V.

^h *Ruteni*, D'Anv. *Urbs Rutena*, Enc. Meth.

ⁱ Irish, *ruadh*.—P.

^k Milhau, Millau.

^l St. Geniez de Rivedolt. (Vosgien.) [St. Geniez on the banks of the Olt.—P.]

^m "St. Geniez d'Olt, on the Lot, proves that the name of the river, the ancient *Oltis*, ought rather to be written *L'Olt* (the Olt.)"—It needs but little acquaintance with the progress of the French language to know that *Lot* is formed from *L'Olt* by changes of the most common occurrence, viz. blending the article with the proper name, and suppressing the *l* before *t*.—P.

ⁿ "Arrondissement."

^o Department of the Lot.

^p "Two Catalan forges, two high furnaces, and one finery."

led him back to his house. The ceremony was performed for the last time in the year 1766.^a

Cahors was a town before Cæsar invaded Gaul; it was then called *Divona*, and according to tradition it excited the admiration of the Roman general. It is certain that it was embellished by the Romans, who gave it the name of *Cadurci* from the people who inhabited the country. Some vestiges of those ancient times still exist, among others, the remains of a theatre and an aqueduct, and of a monument near the prefect's palace, erected during the reign of Augustus, by the *Cadurci*, to commemorate the courageous resistance which their countrymen made against Cæsar at *Uxellodunum*, the present Capdenac. The cathedral, it has been thought, is partly formed by the remains of an ancient temple, but the portal is of modern construction. The ramparts are used as a public walk; they rise above the Lot, which encompasses nearly the whole town, and the rock on which it stands. The streets are steep and crooked; the royal college, the seminary, the library, the museum of natural history,^c the theatre and the episcopal palace, are nowise remarkable. But the bishopric was one of some importance before the revolution; the prelate, who possessed it, was entitled the count of Cahors, and he had the privilege of having his gloves and sword placed beside the altar whenever he officiated. His installation was accompanied with a ceremony similar in some respects to the one that was performed at Figeac. The viscount of Cessac, the vassal of the bishop, waited for him at the city gate, having his head uncovered, without a mantle, the right leg bare, and a slipper on the right foot. In this dress, he held the bridle of the bishop's mule, and led it to the episcopal palace, where he appeared in the capacity of an attendant, and served his liege lord during dinner. As a recompense for his trouble, he received the mule and the buffct, which had been used at the repast; the value of the latter was fixed at L.130.^d Cahors was the birthplace of pope John XXII, who in the year 1321, founded an university in his native town, of the poet Clement Marot, of La Calprenede the writer of romances, of Joachim Murat, king of Naples, and of general Ramel, who was assassinated at Toulouse in 1815. The manufactures of the town are paper, cloth, and leather.

Gourdon,^e the capital of a subprefecture,^f rises on the small river Bloue; it carries on some trade in sail cloth and woollen stuffs. Souillac is about seven leagues from Gourdon; it contains a royal manufactory of fire arms; it is watered by the Dordogne, over which a fine bridge con-

sisting of seven arches has been erected. Two intermitting fountains, called the *Gourg* and the *Bouley*, are situated in the neighbourhood; the first rises in the valley of Blagour, and the other issues from the heights of Puy Martin. They never flow at the same time; as soon as the one ceases the other begins, and changes in a few minutes the valley which serves as its basin into a sheet of water. The eruption of the Bouley is almost always accompanied with a slight shock and a tremendous noise.

We may pass from the department of the Lot into that of the Dordogne by descending the last river, which traverses it on the south from east to west. It is also watered by the Ille, the Dronne, the Vezere, and by more than fourteen hundred smaller streams. Chains of hills extend through the country in every direction, but with the exception of the two vallies watered by the Ille and the Dordogne, they bound only narrow ravines, almost all of which are desolated by torrents. The soil is by no means productive; the calcareous rocks are in many places bare, and vast districts are covered with heath, broom and chestnut trees; the uniformity thus occasioned is in a few places broken by marshes. Some parts are rich and fruitful, but they are so insignificant in point of extent, that they may be said to form an exception to the general character of the department. The grain harvests are not sufficient for the maintenance of the inhabitants, but the deficiency is supplied by using chestnuts as a substitute. As to the vintage, more than half the wines are either consumed in different parts of France, or they are converted into brandy for exportation.^g Mineral substances abound in the country; the most valuable are coal, manganese and iron. The working of the last metal, and the art of converting it into steel, furnish employment to many of the inhabitants.^h The same country supplies the gourmands in Paris with different delicacies, among which the white wine of Bergerac is not the least important; pork, red partridges, pike, truffles, liqueurs and sweetmeats are also sent to the capital.ⁱ

Sarlat exports a great quantity of paper;^k it is the chief town in a district^l that abounds in iron and copper ore, mill-stones and coal. The people in Belvès^m and Le Bugueⁿ find employment in making walnut oil. The Doux has its source in the same district;^o it rises in a narrow valley, and fills a circular basin, of which the circumference exceeds 176 yards,^o but the depth has not been ascertained. The labyrinths in a cave about three leagues distant from Sarlat, are more than 4200 yards in length; they ex-

ist into the translation, form an amusing illustration of the progress of historical truth.—P.

^b Journal Encyclopédique. March, 1766.

^c "Physical cabinet (*cabinet de physique*)."

^d "3000 livres."

^e Gordon. (Vosgien.)

^f Arrondissement.

^g "More than half the vintage is exported from the department, either in the form of wine or distilled into brandy."

^h "It contains 37 high furnaces, 86 fineries, 2 Catalan forges, and several establishments for manufacturing steel."

ⁱ "The department is noted among gourmands for the white wine of Bergerac, the delicacy of its pork,^o the abundance of its red partridges, the excellent pike taken in its ponds, the fine sugar plums (*dragées*) of Perigueux, its liqueurs, and particularly its truffles."

* The pork in Limousin is fed on chestnuts. Ed. Encyc.

^k "—contains a great number of paper mills.

^l "Arrondissement."

^m Belvez.

ⁿ Bugo de St. Cirq. (Vosgien.)

^o "83 toises in circumference."

^a "When the abbot made his first entrance into the town, a baron, the lord of Montbrun, was obliged to receive him in the costume of a harlequin, with one leg bare, to lead to him a horse, on which he mounted, and to hold his bridle to the gate of the church; then to wait for his return, when he held his stirrup, and conducted him to the abbey. The ceremony was performed as late as 1766."—This is apparently taken from the *Encyclopédie Methodique* (Part. Géog. Mod. art. Figeac,) where the same authority is quoted, and almost the same words are employed. The *Encyclopédie* does not say the ceremony was performed in 1766, but quotes the *Journal Encyc.* of that year (March,) and uses the present time in the relation. The latter circumstance might induce one to believe that the ceremony existed at a later period—that part of the *Encyc.* was published in 1782. There is one point in the relation in which the *Encyc.* and the original M. B. differ—the former does not say the baron was obliged to lead him a horse, much less to lead one from the stable, as the translator hath it, but simply that he was obliged to go and receive the abbot, and then lead his horse to the church. It however states in the words of the writer quoted, that the baron, like the viscount of Cessac at Cahors, received the abbot's horse for his pains. The changes the story has undergone in passing from the *Encyclopedia* into the original, and from the orig-

tend between the burgh of Miremont and the village of Privaset.^a The small and neat town of Bergerac rises on the right bank of the Dordogne; its position enables the inhabitants to carry on an advantageous trade with Libourne and Bordeaux. Many persons are employed in the founderies, forges and paper mills in the vicinity. Michel de Montaigne, a village about eight leagues to the west of Bergerac, is situated near the castle which belonged to the celebrated philosopher of that name; the chamber in which most of his essays were composed, may still be seen in one of the turrets.

A road crossing an arid ridge leads to the fruitful valley watered by the Ille, and to Perigueux, the capital of the department, and the seat of a bishopric. It stands on the site of the ancient *Vesunna*.^b The streets are dark, narrow and crooked; the old quarter or the city^c is almost deserted. Were it necessary to indicate its importance in the time of the Romans, it might be sufficient to mention the public baths and aqueducts now in ruins, the remains of the amphitheatre, the tower of *Vesunne*,^d as the inhabitants call it, a circular edifice^e without doors or windows, but communicating with the town by subterranean pas-

^a "At the distance of three leagues from Sarlat, between the small town (*bourg*) of Miremont and the village of Privaset, there is a cavern, the ramifications of which form a total length of more than 2000 toises." The cavern is called the *Cluseau*. (Vosgien.)—P.

^b *Vesuna*; afterwards *Petrocorii*, whence the modern name. D'Anv.—P.

^c "The old quarter, called the city (*Cité*)." ^d Vesune or Visone. (Encyc. Method.)—The primitive name of the ancient city (*Vesuna*) is still retained in the quarter called La Visone. D'Anv.—P.

^e 100 feet in height. M. B.

^f By two subterranean passages. Enc. Meth. ^g Nine ancient inscriptions are inserted in the walls of the barracks, the most remarkable of which is that of a miliary column, the only one containing the name of the emperor Florian. Encyc. Meth.—P.

^h "Its turkeys, its truffle pies,* its liqueurs, its paper, and different manufactures,† render the trade of Perigueux of some importance."

* *Pâtés de Perigord*, Perigord pies, (made of partridges and truffles. Vosgien.)
† It has manufactories of arms, handkerchiefs, &c. (Vosgien.) The principal manufactures of the department are iron, hosiery, paper and earthen ware. Ed. E. ye.

sages,^f different inscriptions,^g and many other objects collected in a museum of antiquities. Several monuments of the middle ages, such as the cathedral, and the church of St. Front, in the last of which the Gothic architecture recalls the period of the lower empire, prove how much it has fallen since the time that Pepin defeated the duke of Aquitaine under its walls. The inhabitants of the present day carry on a trade with the capital in turkeys, truffles, pastry, liqueurs and other articles.^h

Brantome, a small town on the left bank of the Dronne, peopled by 2700 inhabitants, was formerly the seat of a Benedictine convent, which might have been long since forgotten, had it not been for Peter de Bourdeilles, better known by the name of Brantome, a writer of some celebrity,ⁱ and although a layman, abbot of the convent. Nontron^k on the right bank of the Bandiat carries on a trade in leather, hardware goods and iron obtained from the mines in the neighbourhood.^l Ribérac, the chief town of a contiguous district,^m rises in a fruitful plain at no great distance from the Dronne, but still nearer an old castle that belonged to the viscounts of Turenne.ⁿ

ⁱ "Author of memoirs of a licentious character."—The memoirs of Brantome were printed in 10 vols. 12mo., and a supplement in five volumes afterwards published. Of the former, four contained accounts of French captains, two of foreign captains, two of gallant women, one of illustrious women, and one of duels. The writings of Brantome are not always perfectly decent, a circumstance attributable to the nature of his undertaking, as historian of a very licentious age. Born 1527; died 1614. Gorton's Biog. Dict.—P.

^k Capital of an arrondissement. M. B. ^l "—manufactures leather, and common knives with boxwood handles, and carries on a trade in the iron furnished by the mines and forges in its neighbourhood."

^m "Arrondissement"—contiguous to that of Nontron. ⁿ "Ribérac—is situated in a fruitful plain watered by the Dronne. It still preserves the remains of an old castle that belonged to the viscounts of Turenne."

BOOK CXLIII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—France.—Second Section.—Western Region.

WE have had occasion to observe the mild climate, the romantic sites and the remains of Roman power in the twenty-eight departments^a that form the Southern region of France. The inhabitants, it has been seen, are favoured by nature; different productions are admirably adapted for their country, and with the exception of the mountains, the soil is almost everywhere fruitful. But if the population be compared with the surface, it will be found that the result accords ill with the natural advantages of the same vast region, which makes up more than a third part of the kingdom. The extent is equal to 9,000 square leagues, and the population to 8,404,000 individuals; thus the number of inhabitants to every square league does not amount to nine hundred and thirty-four, a result below the mean number in the other divisions of the same country. Such facts are not without their value; if the best and most fruitful part of France is comparatively poor and ill-peopled, it proves how much the munificence of nature may be surpassed by the industry and resources of man. Government too may derive an important lesson from the same fact; it may thus be taught to appreciate the elements of its wealth and power. Thirteen departments make up the Western region; the population relatively to the surface is greater than in the last, for 5,438,000 inhabitants occupy a surface of 4200 square leagues, and consequently the average number to every square league exceeds 1294; still the advantages of education are little known in the Western region; in that point of view it is almost on a level with the preceding. How much then might the population and wealth be increased, if ignorance no longer formed a barrier to the expansion of industry?

Continuing in the direction from south to north, the department of the Charente may be first described. Contiguous, but much inferior in size to the department of the Dordogne, it is intersected on the north by high hills, and on the south by low ridges and heights. Nine rivers, exclusively of the one from which the department takes its name, water it in different directions. The waters of the Tardouere are absorbed by numerous subterranean cavities, and they never reach the Bandiat until they have been swollen by rains. The last river exhibits the same phenomenon;

^a Including Corsica.

^b It is navigable for boats to its source. M. B.

^c "Plateaus"—table-lands.

^d "Barriques."—The *barrique* of Bordeaux is nearly equal to the English wine hogshead, or in the proportion of 12000 to 12034. Encyc. Method.—P.

^e "The iron ore worked in the department, is converted into cast iron in six high furnaces, and into bar iron in fifteen fineries."

the hills which border it are undermined by immense cavities, adorned with the finest stalactites. The Taponnat after a course of some leagues, is lost in similar cavities, and never afterwards appears. The Touvre, almost as large as the Sorgues at Vaucluse, issues from the cavities of a steep rock; although its channel is obstructed by several islands, it might be rendered navigable without much difficulty.^b These rivers, as well as the Peruse, the Ne, the Tude, the Nizonne and the Vienne water vallies abounding in rich pastures. The calcareous ridges^c and sandy plains that cover several districts, account for the aridity of the soil in the greater portion of the department. The arable land is equal to a third part of the whole surface, and the grain harvests are sufficient for the maintenance of the inhabitants; another third is laid out in vineyards, yielding wines of an ordinary quality, but for the most part converted into brandy, of which the quantity exported to other parts of France and to different foreign countries amounts to more than thirty-five thousand barrels.^d The rest of the department is covered with woods of chestnut trees, uncultivated plains, and natural and artificial meadows, the last of which afford pasture to more than thirty thousand oxen, which the inhabitants import every year, and export again after they are fattened. Mines are worked in the department, and iron ore is converted into cast iron and bars.^e

Angouleme rises on a hill, which may be seen from a great distance; the air is pure and salubrious; many of the inhabitants attain to a great age, and the women are distinguished by their beauty. The *Quartier-Neuf*^f is the only part of the town worthy of notice; ill-built houses, and crooked and narrow streets, make up the remainder. The suburb of Ousmeau stands on a declivity above the Charente; the inhabitants have erected several paper mills, distilleries and sugar works; they manufacture woollen stuffs, porcelain and earthen ware.^g It is the capital of the department, and also the seat of a bishopric. It was once fortified, but the ramparts have been changed into public walks, that rise in the form of terraces, and command an extensive horizon bounded by heights; the most remarkable objects in view are the small river of Anguienne, that winds among rich meadows and fruitful hills, the fine bridge over the Charente, and the obelisk raised by government to the present duchess of Angouleme.^h Within the same town are

^f New Quarter.

^g "The suburb of Ousmeau—contains several large paper mills, which with the distilleries, sugar refineries, and manufactories of woollen stuffs and pottery (delft ware,) render the commerce of the town very active."—The trade of the town is chiefly carried on by the Charente.—P.

^h "The obelisk raised, in the middle of the new road (*chemin neuf*), in honour of the duchess of Angouleme."

contained a royal naval school, a college, a library and a museum of natural history; it was the birthplace of Balzac, of Montalembert the engineer, and of the assassin of Henry the Fourth.^a It is a place of great antiquity; the Romans called it *Iculisma*;^b it is more than once mentioned by Ausonius, but it did not rise into importance before the period of the middle ages. La Rochefoucault, a small town on the Tardouere, consists of a single street; it contains 3000 inhabitants. The old Gothic castle which commands it, was the birthplace of the duke, whose fame has been perpetuated by his book of maxims.

Confolans,^c surrounded by a comparatively sterile country, and the capital of a subprefecture, derives its name from the confluence of the Goire and the Vienne; it is not, however, unpleasantly situated, and the banks of both the rivers are fruitful in pastures. A single square tower is all that remains of its ancient strong castle. It is necessary to cross the Charente at two places on the road that leads from Confolans to the small and neat town of Ruffec, that rises on the right bank of the same river. Beyond a small chain of hills, terminating on the south in the neighbourhood of the Charente, which describes many windings through large meadows, the town of Jarnac rises on both banks of the same river, on which it possesses a port of some importance. A modern monument erected in the neighbouring plain, serves to mark the field of battle, where the duke of Anjou defeated the prince of Condé in the year 1569. As it has been thought consistent with good taste to commemorate the fatal engagement in which Frenchmen fought against each other, the place near the walls of the town, where the unfortunate prince was assassinated by the marquis of Montesquiou^d after the victory, ought also to have been indicated. Cognac, the capital of the same district,^e rises on an eminence, of which the base is watered by the Charente. Francis the First was born in the old castle that defended formerly this small commercial city, the mart of the excellent brandy and liqueurs that are distilled in the adjoining districts.^f

Barbezieux in the midst of the fruitful country through which the Ne flows, is neither so populous nor so well built as Cognac;^g it rises on the declivity of a hill, on the high road from Paris to Bordeaux; the ancient fortress has been changed into a prison. The trade it carries on with the metropolis, consists chiefly in capons and truffles.^h Aubeterre on the Dronne, at the southern extremity of the department, is finely situated at the base of a hill, commanded by an ancient castle. The church is cut in the rock which supports part of the town.

The lower part of the Charente waters a countryⁱ fruitful in corn and pasturage, and abounding in vineyards of which the produce is converted into brandy. The great extent of coast washed by the mouth of the Gironde and the ocean tends to enrich a laborious population. There are not many inequalities in the department; the surface is

chiefly occupied by low hills and extensive plains, and the climate is generally salubrious. But the salt marshes near the sea, which furnish the salt known in England by the name of Rochelle salt,^k diffuse pestilential exhalations, and occasion different diseases in their neighbourhood. Many anchorages and ports facilitate navigation, promote the coasting trade, and induce companies or individuals to equip vessels for the cod fisheries and the French colonies. Lastly, the islands of Re, Olcron and Aix add to the maritime importance of the department.

Jonzac^l is situated in a part of the country contiguous to the last department; it is the chief town in an ill-peopled district,^m but is inferior in population to the burgh of Mirambeau, which contains 3200 inhabitants. Saintesⁿ the capital of Saintonge, is an old and probably on that account, a dirty town. Ammianus Marcellinus considered it one of the most flourishing cities in Aquitaine. It was originally called *Mediolanum*, which the Romans changed afterwards into *Santonnes*, after the name of the people in that part of Gaul. It possesses still the remains of a triumphal arch, and the ruins of an amphitheatre. It was the seat of a bishopric, and several councils have been held in the town. The last met in the year 1096, and enjoined the faithful to fast during the vigils of the apostles. The residence of the subprefect, the theatre, the college and the ancient cathedral cannot be commended on account of their architecture; the public library contains 24,000 volumes. Bernard de Palissy was born at Saintes,^o a man of genius, who from the condition of a potter became one of the most eminent natural philosophers of the sixteenth century. The Boutonne, a small river, begins to be navigable at St. Jean d'Angely,^p and enables the industrious inhabitants to carry on a trade in brandy and timber. Religious wars were long fatal to the town; indeed they may be said to have been so from the period of the memorable siege by which it fell into the hands of Henry the Third, to the time it supported another siege against Louis the Thirteenth, who razed the fortifications. Henry the Second of Bourbon Condé, and Regnaud,^q a statesman under the imperial government, were born in St. Jean d'Angely. It possesses a royal powder manufactory. The horses in the neighbourhood are much valued in different parts of France.^r Marennes, about half a league distant from the sea, is exposed to the pernicious exhalations from the salt marshes. Although a well built and a commercial town, it might have been much more flourishing than at present, had it not been for its unhealthy situation. Tonny-Charente^s possesses a safe and commodious harbour for vessels of a hundred tons.

Rochefort rises on the Charente, about a league's distance from the last place; the harbour, one of the three largest in France, is about 2500 yards in length;^t it has a sufficient depth of water to float ships of the line^u at low tide.^x Ships of 600 tons with their cargoes, enter a smaller harbour

^a Francis Ravaillac.

^b *Iculisna*, D'Anv.

^c Confolens, Confoulens; Lat. *Confluens*.

^d Baron of Montesquiou. Moreri, Beauvais.

^e "Arrondissement"—the same in which Jarnac is situated.—P.

^f "Communes." ^g "Less wealthy, but better built than Cognac."

^h "Elle fait des grandes expéditions de chapons truffés"—It exports great quantities of capons with truffles.

ⁱ The department of the Lower Charente.

^k "Which is largely exported to England."—The original does not say that it is called Rochelle salt by the English. Rochelle salt is the tartrate of potash and soda or salt of seignette. The sea salt prepared in the neighbourhood of Rochelle, and on other parts of the southwestern coasts of France, is called Bay salt by the English.—P.

Jonzac.

^m "It is the smallest capital of subprefecture in the department."

ⁿ Formerly written Xaintes.—P.

^o He was born at Agen, but carried on the potter's trade at Saintes Nouv. Dict. Hist. Caen, 1804. Beauvais.—P.

^p St. Jean d'Angely.

^q Count Regnaud de St. Jean d'Angely.

^r "It possesses an important powder manufactory,* and a royal stud for stallions and one for cavalry horses (*depôts d'étalons et de remonte*.)"

* It contains two of the best powder mills in France. (Vosgien.)

^s Situated in the arrondissement of Rochefort. Tonny-Boutonne a smaller town, is in the arrondissement of St. Jean d'Angely.—P.

^t "2200 metres in length."

^u "Large vessels (*vaisseaux de haut-bords*.)"

^x Line of battle ships are obliged to take out their lower deck guns to enter the river. Tuckey. vol. II. p. 22.—P.

adapted for merchant vessels. Rochefort is about four leagues distant from the ocean, but the advantages of an admirable position are increased by large dockyards, careening wharfs, naval storehouses, cordage and sail manufactories.^a The town is regularly built, the streets are straight, many of them terminate in a large piece of ground planted with trees.^b The hospital, the prison^c in which 2400 galley-slaves may be confined, the cannon foundery and the arsenal are the finest buildings. A reservoir enables the inhabitants to water the streets daily, a precaution by so much the more necessary as from the month of August to that of October, the air of Rochefort is any thing but salubrious. The works that defend it are the ramparts by which it is surrounded, and the forts constructed at the mouth of the Charente. An excellent road leads to Rochelle,^d the capital of the department.

The latter town was founded in the tenth century. Philip Augustus conferred several privileges on the inhabitants; it was ceded to the English by the treaty of Bretigny. Charles the Fifth contrived to add it to his dominions; the political divisions to which the reformation gave so much importance, rendered it the centre of protestant opposition; it was finally besieged by Louis the Thirteenth, and taken after a resistance of thirteen months, a resistance which cost the king more than L.2,000,000.^e Situated at the bottom of a small gulf, the harbour is safe and commodious; whatever be the height of the waters in the ocean, vessels may be careened in the basin, in which they receive their cargoes. The fortifications were constructed by Vauban. Straight streets, many houses adorned with porticos that form arcades, the elegant court of the castle,^f the exchange and the townhouse give the place an imposing aspect. It was the native town of Reaumur, of Seignette the druggist, who discovered the purgative salt that bears his name, and of several other distinguished men. It is not remarkable, therefore, to find it the seat of learned and scientific societies; it also possesses a valuable library, a museum of natural history, a botanical garden, a college, and a school of navigation. The *Mall*,^g a public walk, commands a view of the ocean; from it may be seen the isle of Re,^h on the right, peopled by fishermen, and encompassed with breakers, the isle of Aix in front, where vessels wait for favourable winds, and the important Oleron on the left, an island abounding in wine and salt. Marans, a small but neat town at the northern extremity of the department, carries on a trade in salt, and contains four thousand inhabitants; it has a safe harbour on the Sevre Niortaise at the distance of four milesⁱ from the sea, to which vessels of a hundred tons are borne by the tides.

The Vendée, the largest feeder of the Sevre Niortaise, is only navigable in a small part of its course, not more than six leagues in length. At the time France was divided according to the new divisions, the same river was chosen rather than the Lay, although the last is somewhat larger, and the name of La Vendée was given to one of the most fruitful maritime departments^k—a department which by its

devotedness to the royal cause, became at the commencement of the revolution, the focus of a civil war, that lasted not less than seven years, and desolated almost all the western part of France. Its surface may be divided into three parts. The *Marais*^l comprehends all the country on the coast; it is covered with sands which have been rendered productive by canals and the labour of man, and it abounds also in marshes, which from their extent and the quantity of salt collected from them, seem to indicate that the ocean covered these coasts at a comparatively recent period. The *Bocage*,^m consisting in some places of sterile heaths, and in others of woods, is intersected by numerous streams that serve to water and fructify it. The Plain formed by all the country between the Bocage and the southern limit of the department, may be considered the most fertile division, and the best adapted for every sort of cultivation. The mephitic vapours that rise from the Marais, are fatal to the health of the inhabitants; drained by many canals, which intersect it in different directions, destitute of springs, and only affording water more or less brackish to quench the thirst, it is with all these disadvantages one of the best cultivated countries in France. It produces excellent hemp, abundant grain harvests, leguminous plantsⁿ remarkable for their size, and pastures in which large breeds of horses, oxen and sheep are reared. The Bocage yields good wine, and the fields are intersected by hedges and orchards. The Plain is fruitful in every sort of grain, but white wines of an ordinary quality are only produced in the vineyards. The manufacture of earthen-ware, cordage, linens and coarse woollens, the extracting of soda from sea-weed, the fisheries, and the preparation of salt in the marshes on the coast, form the principal branches of industry.

The name of Fontenay le Comte excited the indignation of the republican government; ridiculously jealous of whatever might be associated with the ancient system, it did not suffer the town to be called by its usual name, but changed it by a decree into that of Fontenay le Peuple. It stands in a fruitful valley on the left bank of the Vendée. The sombre remains of a strong castle, a church of which the steeple is about 300 feet in height, and suburbs larger than the town itself, give it the appearance of an important city; it is the capital of a district.^o Luçon, the second town in the same district,^p has been made the seat of a bishopric;^q it contains about 3600 inhabitants. The houses are well built, but the streets are ill paved; it is situated at the extremity of a canal, which throws itself into the sea at the Anse d'Aiguillon.^r A road through a dull and monotonous country leads to Sables d'Olonne,^s a town consisting of four long straight and parallel streets, built on a narrow stripe of sandy land that protrudes into the sea, and defended by several batteries. The harbour which can only receive vessels of a hundred and fifty tons, separates the town from the suburb of Chaume,^t which rises on a rock. St. Gilles, another seaport on the same coast, lies opposite the isle of Yeu,^u which is only inhabited by fishermen; but Noirmoutier, a

^a "Large shipyards, magazines for naval stores, docks for careening vessels (*bassins de carenage*), and a fine rope walk."

^b "The streets are straight, and terminate in a fine public square planted with trees."—The streets are straight across each other at right angles. (Encyc. Meth.)—The streets, which are built after a regular plan, are broad and straight. The Place d'Armes is a spacious square, nearly in the centre of the town. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^c "The *Bagne* (Bagnio.)"

^d La Rochelle.

^e "40,000,000" Fr.

^f "Place du Château"—Castle Square.

^g The Mall.

^h Isle of Rhe. Tuckey.

ⁱ "2 short leagues"—1 league (Encyc. Method. Vosgien. Tuckey.)

^k Department of the Vendée, or of La Vendée.

^l The Marsh.

^m The Wood or Thicket.

ⁿ "Legumes"—not leguminous plants merely, but cultivated vegetables in general, (except corn and fruits,) including potatoes, turnips, &c. See note ^a p. 933.

^o "Arrondissement."

^p "Is the seat of a bishopric"—The bishopric of Luçon was founded in 1317. Encyc. Meth.—P.

^q Creek or cove of Aiguillon.

^r Les Sables d'Olonne.

^s La Chaume.

^t Isle Dieu or Isle d'Yeu.

larger island at some distance from it to the north, contains two villages and a town of the same name, and is peopled by 7500 individuals. Both these islands form part of the district^a of Sables d'Olonne, which extends on the north to the isle of Bouin, formerly a calcareous rock, but at present more than seven leagues in circumference, and united to the continent by a causeway thrown across the canal, by which it was formerly separated from the main land.^b The island gives its name to a village of 2500 inhabitants.

Bourbon Vendée, a thinly peopled town,^c but the only one of any consequence that has not been mentioned, was formerly the burgh of La Roche sur Yon in the principality that belonged to the house of Bourbon-Conti. It contained hardly 800 inhabitants in 1807, when its name was changed into that of the emperor,^d who laid out L.126,000^e in erecting the necessary buildings for the chief town of a prefecture;^f in 1814, its name was again changed into that of Bourbon Vendée. It is built after the plan of a large city, but most of the edifices remain unfinished, owing to the want of funds; the streets are broad and straight, but deserted. From its position on the small river Yon, at a distance from all navigable rivers, and from any populous town, it can never become a place of commerce or industry until the projected canal of Bret has been completed.

The department of the Two Sevres^g is bounded on the west by that of La Vendée, and is crossed in a diagonal direction by the heights of Gatine, a chain of lofty hills shaded by forests, from which the inhabitants export different sorts of timber. Intersected by many small streams, it takes its name from the two Sevres, the one flowing from south to north, and the other from east to west; the former is called the Sevre Nantaise, because it enters the Loire opposite Nantes, and the latter the Sevre Niortaise, because it passes by Niort. Many fine vallies and plains, fruitful in vineyards and pastures, extend in different directions, but it contains also much uncultivated land, and numerous ponds and marshes. The produce in grain and wine exceeds the consumption; herds and flocks are reared in the meadows. It furnishes the mules that are so much prized by the wealthy Spaniards,^h others that travel with heavy burdens across the steep Alps and Pyrenees, and others too, that drag the enormous waggons, which are seen on all the roads in the south of France. The sale of these animals in foreign countries and in other parts of France, yields several millions of francs to the department. The oxen form also a lucrative branch of commerce; the fattest are sent to Paris, but the greater number are sold and fattened in Normandy. The people work iron,ⁱ and manufacture cotton and coarse woollen stuffs.

Niort, the capital of the department, and a place of some antiquity, has been much improved; modern buildings now occupy the site of the rubbish and old houses, that rendered it formerly one of the dirtiest towns in Poitou. The most remarkable edifices are an old Gothic church built by the English, the townhouse, the ancient palace that belonged to

Eleanor of Aquitaine, and the fine fountain of Vivier.^k Madame de Maintenon was born in one of the prisons in the same town; among the celebrated men that it has produced, Isaac de Beausobre and Louis de Fontanes may be mentioned. The picturesque banks of the Sevre in the neighbourhood add to the beauty of the public walks and gardens. The small town of Mauzé is the capital of a district^l from which fifteen or twenty thousand asses are annually exported. St. Maixent, a town of five thousand souls, may be mentioned on account of the fruitful country in the neighbourhood. The finest mules in Europe are reared in the district,^m of which Melle is the chief town.

After having crossed the heights of Gatine, the traveller enters a plain watered by the Thouet. Parthenayⁿ rises near its banks, on a hill formerly commanded by an ancient castle now in ruins. The village of La Foret, at no great distance from the sources of the Sevre Nantaise, contains the tomb of the celebrated Duplessis Mornay, whom the catholics called the pope of the Huguenots; the river flows in the neighbourhood, and serves to move different mills.^o Bressuire is situated on a hill, which borders the course of the Argenton; it was so much injured during the wars of La Vendée, that at one time the only buildings left entire were a solitary house and the granite church. It has since become the capital of a subprefecture, and the inhabitants manufacture linen and woollen stuffs. In a north-east direction, and about five leagues distant from the last place, the Thouet flows round the base of a hill, on the summit of which rises the town of Thouars. It was probably founded before the sixth century; its name signifies the citadel of the Thouet.^p Pepin took it in the year 758, and the English rendered it in the middle ages one of the strongest places in Poitou. As the town was more than once desolated during the late civil wars,^q it may excite surprise that the magnificent castle built in the time of Louis the Thirteenth by the duchess of La Tremouille,^r remains entire.

The Vienne gives its name to a department^s through which it passes from south to north. Some of the hills on the south are lofty, but those on the north are insignificant; the centre of the department is occupied by an extensive table-land, partly encompassed by the Vienne, and partly by the Clain, one of its feeders; the eastern districts consist of low plains and vallies. The soil cannot be said to be fruitful; the surface is covered in many places with landes and heaths; still as much grain is produced as the inhabitants consume, and a surplus quantity of wine, by no means inconsiderable, is either exported or converted into brandy.^t Different mineral springs and iron mines are situated in the department; it is unnecessary to mention the hardware goods, the cutlery, the coarse woollen stuffs and the ordinary lace that the inhabitants manufacture;^u it may be sufficient to remark that the greatest hindrance to their commerce is the want of roads and other outlets.

Civray, a small town and the capital of the most southern district,^x possesses a church, which was probably built before

^a "Arrondissement."

^b It was a few years since separated from the main, by a channel practicable by vessels of 200 to 300 tons, but which by the accumulation of sand is now reduced to a boat passage. The island has three leagues of surface almost entirely consisting of salt marshes. Tuckey, vol. II. p. 28.—P.

^d Napoléon.

^e "3,000,000" francs.

^f It is now the capital of the department.

^g Deux Sèvres.

^h For riding. M. B.

ⁱ "Iron ore is found in the department, but it supplies only one high furnace and two fineries."

^k Fed by an Artesian well. M. B.

^l "Canton."

^m "Arrondissement."

ⁿ Parthenay.

^o "A mill for dressing flax and hemp."

^p *Thoaci arx*, in Latin. M. B.—*Thoarcis Arx* (Vosgien.)—P.

^q The wars of La Vendée.

^r La Tremouille or La Trunouille. Moreri. Beauvais.

^s Department of the Vienne.

^t "—is exported, either in its natural state, or when converted into brandy."

^u "It has two high furnaces and five fineries, and among its manufactures, are coarse woollens, common lace, swords and cutlery."

^x "Arrondissement."

the establishment of Christianity in Gaul. Montmorillon, situated on the Gartempe, is the capital of another district;^a it is noted for its biscuits and macaroons, which are exported to different parts of France. An ancient and very curious monument, supposed by many to be of Druidical origin, stands in the court of the old convent that belonged to the Augustines.

Poitiers,^b the former capital of Poitou, rises on a hill at the confluence of the Boivre and the Clain. It was the *Limonum* of the *Pictavi*, an important place in the time of Ptolemy; it is now the capital of the department, and it still retains its old walls flanked with towers, the venerable witnesses of the invasion of the country by the Visigoths, and of their defeat by Clovis. King John of France, after having refused the advantageous terms offered by prince Edward,^c lost the memorable battle of Poitiers, in which a French army of eighty thousand men was defeated by eight thousand English; the king was taken prisoner and conveyed to England. Charles the Seventh removed the parliament of Paris to Poitiers during the wars he maintained against the English. The streets are narrow and crooked, but some traces of ancient splendour may be discovered in the remains of the palace erected by the emperor Gallienus, in the ruins of an amphitheatre, and in the name of the street that is still called the *Arena*.^d The Guillon,^e a picturesque walk in the neighbourhood, terminates near the imposing ruins of a Gothic castle. The cathedral, which in point of size is equal to any other in France, was built in the eleventh century, but the bishopric of Poitiers dates from a much earlier epoch; not less than twenty-three councils were held in the town during the period from the middle of the fourth to the beginning of the fifteenth century.^f The ashes of Madame de Montespan rest in the Grey Friars' church;^g St. Hilary and St. Maximin, two bishops of the fourth century, were born in Poitiers; it contains a curious collection of antiquities,^h and a library of 22,000 volumes.

The Vienne begins to be navigable at seven leagues to the north-east of Poitiers. Chatellerautⁱ rises on the right bank of the river, over which a modern bridge has been erected, that leads to an old castle flanked with four large towers; it may be doubted that the building adds much to the strength of the place, but it serves at least as a gate to the town.^k Loudun is about nine leagues distant in a north-west direction from Chatelleraut; it is situated on a hill, and surrounded by vineyards that yield good wine. Although an

insignificant town, it has given birth to several distinguished men; among others, to John Maigret,^l better known by the name of Maecin, from the assumed Latin one of Macrinus, and to Renaudot the physician, who published the first French newspaper^m in the year 1631. Urban Grandier, a curate,ⁿ was accused and condemned in the same town during the reign of Louis the Thirteenth. A song that he had written against Cardinal Richelieu was the cause of his death; a pretext, however, was necessary, and it was alleged that he had bewitched a convent of Ursuline nuns.^o Ignorant and superstitious women may be excited or bribed to swear on the altar that they are possessed by demons; if the experiment were renewed at present, it might be followed with the same success; it is much more wonderful that they were believed at so recent a period, at a time when many great and good men were living in France. Although a matter of deep regret, it ought not to be concealed that clergymen perhaps suborned, certainly encouraged and confirmed such witnesses in their delusion; the same men put an innocent brother to the torture, and afterwards burnt him alive to gratify the vengeance of a minister, whose great actions were sullied by greater crimes.^p

The department of the Maine and Loire derives its name from its two principal rivers, the Loire and the Maine. The former flows through it from east to west, and receives the latter, which is formed by the union of the Mayenne and the Sarthe. Manufacturing industry, the culture of corn and the vine, and the working of mines, and of granite, marble and slate quarries, are the principal sources of its wealth. The coal pits in the same department yield every year more than 10,000 chaldrons.^q

Saumur is situated on the left bank of the Loire; a suburb rises on the opposite bank of the river, which is crossed by a well built bridge of twelve arches. The quay is the most frequented walk, and the principal buildings in that part of the town are a royal riding school, spacious barracks^r and a theatre. A broad street leads to the declivity of a steep hill on which part of the town has been built.^s A strong castle rises on the summit of the same height, and it serves at present as a depot for arms and ammunition. The portal of St. Peter's church is modern, but the rest of the building is very ancient. The town-house is a Gothic edifice. The quay, which extends beyond the public walk, terminates at a fine hospital^t built near the chalky height that commands the town; the neighbouring excavations in the same hill

^a "Arrondissement."

^b Poitiers.

^c Edward the Black Prince.

^d "*Rue des Arènes*"—the street of the amphitheatre. The amphitheatre at Nîmes is still called: *Les Arènes de Nîmes*. (Dict. de l'Acad.)—P.

^e "Promenade du pont Guillon."

^f Namely, in the years 355, 389, 592, 937, 1000, 1010, 1023, 1030, 1032, 1036, 1073, 1078, 1094, 1100, 1105, 1109, 1280, 1284, 1304, 1367, 1337, 1396 and 1405.

^g "Church of the Cordeliers."

^h "Cabinet of antiquities and natural history."

ⁱ Chatelleraut, Chatelleraud, Chatcheraut.

^k "The river is crossed by a fine bridge, one extremity of which terminates at an old castle flanked with four large towers, that serves as a gate to the town."

^l One of the best Latin poets of the 16th century.—P.

^m *Gazette de France*.—P.

ⁿ Curate (*curé*) of St. Peter's at Loudun.—P.

^o The convent of Ursulines at Loudun.—P.

^p "The town was rendered famous during the reign of Louis XIII. by the trial of the curate Urban Grandier, who for having ventured to write a song against Cardinal Richelieu, was accused of bewitching the nuns in the Ursuline convent. It is difficult to conceive how at a period so recent and when France could boast of many individuals of great intelligence, any nuns could be found so fanatical as to declare

at the altar that they were possessed with demons, or any priests so weak and cruel as to pretend to be convinced of the guilt of Grandier, and even to put him to the torture before condemning him to the flames. These shameful intrigues were only meant to satisfy the resentment of a minister whose great talents were sullied with great crimes." It is said that the persecution of Grandier arose from the hostility of the monks of Loudun, and that in order to gratify their hatred, they persuaded Cardinal Richelieu that Grandier was the author of "*La Cordonnère de Loudun*," a severe satire on his person and family, and by this means succeeded in effecting their malevolent purpose Moreri. Beauvais.—P.

^q "110,000 quintals."

^r "The royal riding school (*école d'équitation*) and its barracks^r. School for cavalry instruction (*école d'instruction des troupes à cheval*), founded by a royal ordonnance, Dec. 23, 1814—destined to form instructors for all the regiments of cavalry. For this purpose, each corps sends a detachment of officers and sub-officers, who after completing their course at the school, return to instruct their regiments. (Alman. Royal, 1822). The barracks were erected before the establishment of the school. (Vosgien)—P.

^s "A broad street extends in front of the bridge, and on the left is a quarter of the town, rising on the declivity of a hill crowned by a steep summit." The principal street follows the line of the bridge. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^t "Hospice." See note ⁿ p. 910.

have been converted into a lunatic asylum.^a Saumur is watered on the west by the Thoue, a small river over which the inhabitants erected of late years a bridge, where general Berton halted very unexpectedly at a time when he might have easily taken the town. Three druidical monuments are situated in the neighbourhood: one of them is a natural obelisk that rises vertically to a considerable height;^b the two others, which consist of several stones laid flat upon other stones,^c are two *cromlechs*^d in a good state of preservation; the smallest stands on a sloping hill; the other, remarkable for its great size, rises in the middle of a plain. Saumur is a place of considerable trade; it employs 600 individuals of both sexes and different ages in a particular department of industry; they manufacture beads and enamels, of which the quantity exported may amount in value to L.20,000.^{e f} Doué, about four leagues distant from Saumur, is peopled by two thousand inhabitants. It contains the ruins of a Roman amphitheatre formed by excavations in a calcareous rock, the remains of an old palace, which is said to have belonged to king Dagobert, and one of the finest fountains in France. Extensive grottos are situated in the neighbourhood.

The road from Saumur to Baugé is nowise remarkable, and the latter town, although the capital of a subprefecture,^g might be passed over in silence, if it were not for the fine bridge that has been lately erected over the Couesnon.^h An English army was defeated at no great distance from Baugé in the year 1421.ⁱ The same district^k carries on a great trade in paper; thus although Durtal^l is a small town of 3000 inhabitants, it possesses several paper mills, and the inhabitants also manufacture linen, tiles and earthen ware. Durtal has been admired for its situation on the banks of the Loir, and at the base of a hill commanded by two colossal towers, the only remains of an old castle, that was founded in the eleventh century. The Oudon waters Segré, which although the chief town in a subprefecture,^g is inferior in population and industry to the burgh of Chateau-Neuf on the Sarthe, and to Pouancé, which is enriched by iron works, to Lion d'Angers, worthy of notice for its picturesque situation, and to other burghs and towns in the same district.^k

Angers rises on the declivity of a hill at no great distance below the confluence of the Mayenne and the Sarthe.^m The ramparts,ⁿ the public walks, particularly the Turcie and the Champ de Mars, the cathedral with its two steeples rising into the air, and a Gothic castle, the ancient residence of the dukes of Anjou, in which eighteen large towers form an imposing mass, give the town an appearance of splendour that it does not possess. The streets are narrow; some of the houses are built of wood, while others are constructed

with blocks of the slate, with which the roofs are generally covered.^o It must be confessed, however, that the modern additions made to the town, the quarter near the ramparts, and others are regularly and well built.^p Angers possesses a library consisting of 26,000 volumes, a valuable collection of French paintings, a museum of natural history, a botanical garden, and two theatres. It was a place of some importance before the Roman conquest; it was then called *Juliomagus*; the Romans changed its name afterwards into *Andecavum*.^q It has given birth to Bernier, the celebrated traveller, and to Menage, a poet and a man of letters, whom Moliere has represented in the character of Vadius.^r In the neighbourhood are situated extensive slate quarries, which afford employment to about three thousand workmen, and from which nearly eighty millions of slates are obtained every year.

Pont de Ce^s on the banks of the Loire, about a league distant from Angers, contains only 3000 inhabitants; it may be remarked however for its series of bridges and embankments, forming a line more than 3000 yards in length, and extending across the different islands and branches of the river. The remains of a Roman camp, occupying a great space, are situated near the confluence of the Mayenne. Ingrande near the road to Nantes possesses glass works in which five hundred workmen are employed. Chalonne a town of 5000 inhabitants, in a district famous for its vineyards, is built near the confluence of the Layon and the Loire; it fronts the Lombardiere islands, whose verdant groves and delightful scenery form one of the finest landscapes on the banks of the Loire. Coal and other mineral substances are worked in the neighbourhood.^t

Beaupreau between the same river and the southern limits of the department, is the chief town in a fruitful and industrious district.^u The inhabitants manufacture linen and woollen stuffs, and many of them are employed in dying cloth; they carry on besides a considerable trade in leather.^v The village of Mont-Jean is almost surrounded by coal mines; the prosperity of Tessouale, another village, depends on its bleach-fields.^w Chemillé, a small place of 4000 inhabitants, has been enriched by the same manufactures which have rendered Cholet^x a flourishing town. The latter was adorned with a fine castle, which was destroyed in common with almost all the other buildings during the wars of La Vendée; but it has risen from its ruins and increased in industry, and its population has been doubled; it contains in present more than 7000 inhabitants. The improvements introduced into the manufactories, and the greater demand for their products, are the cause of so much prosperity.^{aa}

The romantic sites and varied landscapes watered by the

^a "Excavations made in the same hill serve as cells for lunatics."

^b It is one of those stones which antiquaries term *peulvens*, from a Breton word, that signifies a pillar of stone.

^c Cromlechs generally consist of a single large flat stone, laid usually in an inclined position on other stones which serve as pillars to support it.—P.

^d *Cromlech* signifies literally a vaulted place (*lieu roûté*).—[Cromlech signifies the bowing stone (place of worship) from the Celtic *crum* or *crum*, bent or bowed, and *lech* or *leac*, a broad stone. (Tindal.)—*Cromlec*, compounded of *crum*, bent, concave, and *lec*, a flat stone. (Owen's Welsh Dict.)—P.]

^e—"the annual exportation amounts to more than 400,000 francs."

^f Saumur formerly possessed a flourishing Calvinistic school, founded by Duplessis Mornay, but suppressed in 1684.—P.

^g "Arrondissement."

^h—"for the fine bridge of hewn stone erected over the Couesnon" (Couesnon, Encyc. Meth.)

ⁱ "The English commanded by the Duke of Clarence, were defeated by Marshal La Fayette, in the neighbourhood of Baugé, in 1421."

^k "Arrondissement."

Durtal. (Vosgien.)

^m It is situated on the declivity of a hill, on the banks of the river Maine, which divides it into two parts. Ed. Encyc.—P.

ⁿ "Boulevards."

^o Almost all the houses are covered with slate, of which there are abundant quarries in the neighbourhood. Encyc. Method.—The town is famous for its quarries of black slate, which in 1772 amounted to seven. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^p "Some new quarters which border the boulevards, are built with elegance." ^q *Andecavum*. Moreri. Encyc. Meth.

^r See the comedy of the Femmes Savantes.

^s Les Ponts de Ce. (Alman. Royal.)

^t "There is a coal mine in its neighbourhood."

^u "Subprefecture"—arrondissement.—P.

^x "It possesses several manufactories of linen and woollen stuffs, and also dye-houses and tanneries."

^y "Near the village of Mont-Jean, are extensive coal mines, and at that of Tessouale, a fine bleach-field." ^z Chollet.

^{aa} "The improvements it has introduced into its manufactures of linens, cotton handkerchiefs, coarse cottons and flannels, have given them no small degree of reputation."

Loire, have given the river a celebrity which it might not have otherwise possessed. And certainly the lower part of its course serves to confirm the general opinion, and accounts for the songs that have been made in its praise.^a Neat villages, picturesque vallies, hills covered with vineyards, and rich meadows, may be seen on that part of the road to Nantes, extending from Montrelais, a village enriched by its coals and excellent wines, to the burgh of Oudon, where two chains of hills line the opposite banks of the Loire. The appearance of the country changes beyond the last place; the fields are no longer covered with luxuriant harvests, and the traveller might suppose himself in Brittany from the ferns, buckwheat and heath. Lastly, the cathedral of Nantes is seen, as the traveller reaches a well-cultivated plain, about two leagues in length.

Many rivers water the department of the Lower Loire; it is also bathed by the Ocean, the coasts of which are nearly twenty-five leagues long and are continually enlarged by alluvial deposits. It may be remarked too that the salt marshes on the same coasts are very valuable. Different districts in the department are covered with rich pastures and thick forests; it is fruitful in grain, and still more so in wine; it abounds in coal and iron; the inhabitants smelt the ore, and convert the metal into different articles which are sold in many parts of France.^b The other products of industry in the same department are porcelain, china and different manufactures;^c it carries on a trade with the principal European states,^d and it equips vessels for the herring, sardel and cod fisheries. The capital, not unworthy of the country, may be ranked among the largest towns in France.

Nantes, after Bordeaux, the most commercial town which communicates with the ocean, rises on the right bank of the Loire, at the place where the Erdre and the Sevre fall into the river.^e It occupies the site of *Condivicnum*, the principal city inhabited by the *Namnetes*; the ancient Celtic name indicates its position, for it signifies a town at the confluence of several streams. It may be admired for the regularity of the streets, the elegance of the public buildings, and the magnificence of the quays. Some parts of the town, such as the quarter of Graslin, the isle of Feydeau and the suburb of La Fosse, may bear a comparison with the finest quarters in Paris. The verdant banks of the river, the islands in different directions, and the natural amphitheatre that rises beyond them, render Nantes in point of situation, at least equal if not superior to any other town. The port of La Fosse is shaded with lofty trees, and lined with large buildings that extend to the distance of half a league. The same port is about twelve leagues from the ocean, and although one of the most frequented in France, it has the disadvantage of being inaccessible to vessels above three hundred tons,^f because the tide does not rise higher

^a "The Loire, in the lower part of its course, does not belie the reputation it has acquired from the beautiful scenery on its banks."

^b "The produce of its iron mines supplies four high furnaces and twelve fineries."

^c "It possesses manufactories of delft ware, porcelain and different stuffs."

^d "It carries on an important commerce with different parts of the globe."

^e Erdre and Sevre Nantaise. The Sevre enters the Loire on the south, opposite Nantes, and the Erdre on the north. The latter flows through the town. Moreri. Vosgien.—P.

^f "200 tons." ^g "5 feet."

^h "Palais de la cour des comptes"—Hall of the chamber of accounts or board of finances. Rees' Cyc.—P.

ⁱ "At the extremity of St. Peter's Course (*Cours de St. Pierre.*) an agreeable and spacious promenade, the old castle of the dukes of Brittany rises on the banks of the Loire."

than six feet.^g The exchange, which appears like a monument erected to the commerce and shipping of France, exhibits a fine front adorned with an Ionic peristyle, and a portico on the opposite side, crowned with the statues of Duguay-Trouin, Duquesne, John Bart and Cassart. The residence of the prefect was the ancient court of exchequer;^h the front of the theatre presents a range of eight large Corinthian columns. St. Peter's course, a spacious and pleasant walk on the banks of the Loire, leads to the old castle that belonged to the dukes of Brittany;ⁱ it was built by one of them in the year 930, and has acquired celebrity from the edict issued by Henry the Fourth, the revocation of which by his grandson was the cause of innumerable calamities to France. Among the useful institutions, it may be worth while to mention a fine collection of paintings, a valuable public library, a museum of natural history, better than any other in any provincial town, a large botanical garden, a royal college, and lastly schools of medicine and hydrography. The charitable institutions are creditable to the benevolence of the inhabitants; the manner in which they are managed, is not less creditable to the civic rulers.^k Nantes is the seat of a bishopric which was erected in the third century.^l It was fortified in the time of Cæsar; it maintained a terrible siege against the Huns in the year 445; the Normans ravaged it in 843, and put all the inhabitants to the sword. The English besieged it in vain in 1343. A Vendean army consisting of 80,000 men attempted to take it by assault in 1793, but they were defeated and repulsed by the citizens. It became at a later period the theatre of the horrible executions which were sanctioned by Carrier. Nantes has given birth to the learned Mathurin Veyssiere,^m to René Le Pays, a poet of the seventeenth century, to Boffrand the architect, to Cassart the navigator,ⁿ to Cacault the diplomatist, to Bouguer the mathematician, and to Fouché, duke of Otranto, and minister of police. It possesses a cannon foundry, and dockyards in which merchant vessels and sloops of war are built; it also supplies part of the navy with cordage, sail-cloth and iron cables; there are besides several sugar works, cotton and cloth manufactories, tan-pits and different works of less consequence.^o

From the extremity of the department to Nantes, the Sevre waters a country not less romantic than Switzerland, and more interesting from the associations connected with it. The village of Palet was the birthplace of Abeilard;^p in the woods and rocks in the neighbourhood, Heloise and her lover bewailed their misfortunes after the base Fulbert had satisfied his monkish vengeance. The small town of Clisson contains only 1200 inhabitants, but it recalls the title of a family that rendered itself illustrious in the annals of France; their castle, formerly remarkable for its architect-

^k "The town house, in which there is a fine collection of paintings, the public library, the museum of natural history, next in importance to that of Paris, the botanical garden, remarkable for its situation and extent, the royal college, the schools of medicine and hydrography, and several establishments for the support and education of poor children, are creditable to the municipal authorities."

^l St. Clair is said to have been the first bishop of Nantes, about the year 277. Encyc. Meth.—P.

^m Mathurin Veyssières de Lacroze, a distinguished orientalist.—P.

ⁿ Jacques Cassard, a distinguished officer in the French navy, during the reign of Louis XIV. Beauvais.—P.

^o "It possesses sugar refineries, cotton mills (*filatures*), cloth manufactories, tanneries, and other manufacturing establishments of less importance."

^p The name is written variously in different authors: Abailard, Abailard, Abaelard and Abelard. The last is generally used in English authors. The name of the village is generally written Palais.—P.

ure, now majestic in its ruins, stands on a height near the town. Painbœuf,^a on the left bank of the Loire, about ten leagues below Nantes, was a hundred years ago a mere hamlet peopled by a few fishermen; but commerce has since changed it into a flourishing and well built city, at present the capital of a district.^b

The most remarkable places on the south of the Loire have now been mentioned; towards the north and on the right bank of the river is situated Ancenis, a pleasant town, commanded by the old castle which was long inhabited by the dukes of Bethune. Chateaubriant, on the other side of the small river Don, is well known for its preserves.^c Savenay on the south-west of the last place, is the chief town in a district^d that carries on a considerable trade in cattle and salt. Guerande, a more industrious and more populous town, and Pouliguen possessing a convenient harbour,^e are situated in the midst of salt marshes which yield every year nearly eighteen thousand tons^f of grey and white salt.

The word Morbihan, it has been said, signifies a small sea in Low Breton or perhaps in some Celtic dialect. The gulf of the same name is larger than any other on the coasts of the department, which the lower course of the Vilaine^g separates from the one that has been last examined.^h The same gulf encloses a great many small islands, the two largest of which, or the Isle aux Moines and that of Arz, are well peopled and cultivated.ⁱ Vannes is about a league from the most northern bay in the same gulf; two small rivers water and surround it; they add to the convenience of its harbour, and the advantages of its position. According to ancient authors, the walls of the town must have been bathed by the sea at the time when it was not only the principal city of the *Veneti*, but the most powerful, wealthy and populous of any in Armorica.^k An old wall flanked with towers separates the town from a suburb which exceeds it in size. The heavy and massive cathedral rises in the midst of dismal houses and dark streets. The freestone quays along the narrow harbour may be admired for their solidity, but the finest buildings are erected on the mole which extends near a small salt marsh. Three public walks are frequented in the vicinity, and within the walls are situated a college, an hospital and a theatre;^l the industry of the inhabitants is confined to sardel fisheries and to the manufacture of coarse cloth. Such is the capital of a department which, although poor in vineyards, is fruitful in corn, pastures, timber, flax and hemp. The marshes and landes are without doubt extensive; still the inhabitants rear many

^a Painbœuf, Pimbœuf.

^b "Subprefecture"—arrondissement.—P.

^c "Conserves of angelica."

^d "Arrondissement."

^e "The small port of Pouliguen."—Poulquain, a small dry tide haven, with ten feet high water. Tuckey's Mar. Geog. Vol. II. p. 21.—P.

^f "More than seventeen millions of kilogrammes."

^g Villaine.

^h "The gulf of Morbihan, the name of which signifies a small sea, in the Low Breton or rather in the Celtic language,^{*} is the largest on the coast of the department,† which the traveller enters after crossing the lower part of the Vilaine (*basse Vilaine*)."

^{*} Welch *môr*, Gaelic *muir*, a sea, and Welch *bychan*, Gaelic *beag*, *beg*, dimin. *beagan*, *began*, little.—Welch, *baç*, *byçan*, little. (Owen).—P.

† The department of Morbihan.

ⁱ According to the construction of the original, these two islands are not the only ones inhabited and cultivated.—The gulf of Morbihan is filled with inhabited islands. (Vosgien.)—The gulf—is a kind of small sea lagoon with many inhabited islands. Tuckey, Vol. II. p. 3.—P.

^k Cæsar. de Bello Gallico, Lib. III.

horses, oxen and sheep.^m Iron mines are wrought in different parts of the country; the inhabitants export the leather, linen and woollen stuffs manufactured in the department.ⁿ

Sarzeau, on the peninsula of Rhuys, is a small town peopled by 6000 inhabitants, who are mostly fishermen. The castle of Suscinion was erected on the coast by Anne, duchess of Brittany, and the monastery of St. Gildas^o may still be seen on another part of the coast of the same peninsula; according to tradition, the monks possess the chair of Abeilard; it is certain that he was the abbot of the convent.^p

The islands which Pliny calls *Insulæ Veneticæ*, rise opposite the coast between Vannes and Lorient;^q all of them belong to the department. The inhabitants of Belle-Isle en Mer, the largest as well as the richest of these islands, rear cattle, and export every year nearly eight hundred draught horses of the best kind in France. It contains 8000 souls, three small harbours and the burgh of St. Palais^r defended by a castle. A small fortress guards Hoedic, of which the inhabitants, like those of Houat, earn their livelihood by fishing. Groix or Groaix, the most northern of these islands, is peopled by 2000 individuals scattered in different villages; they are at once husbandmen and fishers. Quiberon, or as old writers call it,^s Keberoen, a peninsula about two leagues in length, and a quarter of a league in breadth, is changed into an island during the full tide. It is celebrated for the descent made in 1795 by 10,000 emigrants under the protection of the English fleet; abandoned by allies who might have saved them, they were completely defeated by general Hoche. A monument perpetuates the memory of the event.

The burgh of Carnac, situated on a height near the coast, at some distance to the north of Quiberon, has been often mentioned by antiquaries on account of a druidical monument; the size and the arrangement of the parts have been much admired, but its true purpose has never been explained. It is formed by more than five thousand granite stones, rudely cut and arranged in eleven straight and parallel rows.^t As it has been proved that they were not erected by the Romans to commemorate the victory gained by Cæsar over the Veneti,^u it may with probability be inferred that they were raised for the same superstitious purposes as other Celtic relics of a like kind. The port of Lorient, the chief town in a district^x of the same name, was built in 1719 by the India company^y at the mouth of the Scorff, and on the bay of Port Louis. The town is large and well built, but it is no longer enriched by the commerce, which excited

^l "The town possesses a college, a hospital, a theatre, and three public walks (*promenades*)."

^m "Notwithstanding the marshes and heaths (*landes*), the inhabitants rear many horses, sheep and bees. The honey of the last is much valued."

ⁿ "The department contains iron mines, important iron works and valuable salt marshes. The principal manufactures are sail cloth, linens, woollen stuffs and leather."

^o St. Gildas de Ruys.

^p "The chair of Abeilard, who was at one time its abbot, is still preserved in the convent."

^q L'Orient.

^r Palais, Le Palais. (Vosgien.)

^s "As it is written in old documents."

^t The stones are rudely cut into the shape of obelisks, resting on their points, and are arranged in eleven rows, each in a direction perpendicular to the coast. M. B.

^u See the dissertation by M. Ohier de Grandpré: Mémoires de la Société Royale des Antiquités de France, Tom. II. p. 325.

^x "Arrondissement"

^y "Compagnie des Indes"—formed in 1719 by the union of several companies, the most important of which were the East India and the West India companies. Savary, Diet. Comm.—P.

the jealousy of the English, who attempted to destroy it in 1746, when a nobleman of Brittany,^a having arrived with some assistance, displayed so much energy that the besiegers fled and left several cannon behind them, which the king presented to the town. If the harbour now appears more deserted than it really is, it should be recollected that its extent was made to correspond with the importance of its commercial transactions, at the time when the affairs of the India company in France were in a flourishing condition. Port Louis, about a league's distance to the south of Lorient, rises at the mouth of the Blavet in a situation well adapted for trade. The harbour is convenient,^b and the citadel which guards the entrance into the bay, was built by Louis the Thirteenth. The population does not exceed 3000 inhabitants. The old castle of Trafaven stands on the right bank of the Scorff, a castle which the imagination of the peasantry has peopled with sprites and fairies.

Ploërmel is situated near the confluence of the Oust and the Malestroit, beyond a chain of high hills, which crosses the department from north-west to south-east. It was an important town about the tenth century, but the old edifices were mostly destroyed when it was besieged by Henry the Fourth; there may still be seen, however, a Gothic church, adorned with painted windows and with the tombs of two dukes of Brittany, John the Second and John the Third. The waters which flow from a lake nearly three leagues in circumference, at a short distance from the town, form a fine cascade. The Blavet waters the western declivities of the same heights; it is navigable to Pontivy, a town situated on the left bank of the river, in a fruitful country. Now the capital of a district,^c it bore under the imperial government the name of Napoleonville. It owes its origin to the monastery in which St. Josse, the brother of Judicael king of Brittany, died in the year 660. The ruins of the ancient walls, with which it was surrounded, still remain, and also an old castle flanked with turrets, concerning the origin of which antiquaries disagree. The barracks are the finest buildings in Pontivy.

When the National Assembly decreed that the old divisions of France should be abolished, and others substituted in their place, it gave the name of the department of Finistère^d to that part of Brittany which juts into the Ocean, like the promontory on the north-west of Spain, to which the ancients gave the same name (*Promontorium finis terræ*), because early navigators supposed it the limits of the earth. The department is bounded on the east by those of Morbihan and the North Coast, on the south and the west by the Ocean, on the north by the Channel. Twenty islands are situated on the coasts, and the indentations in the latter form more than fifteen capes. Shipwrecks are not uncommon; these bold coasts are every where composed of granitic rocks, against which impetuous billows are dashed. The soil, although moderately fruitful, produces plenty of grain, hemp and flax. The country is well supplied with wood; thick forests grow on the hills, and the vallies are covered with rich pastures. It possesses more valuable silver and lead

mines than any other department in France; it is also perhaps the most humid, or the one in which rains and mists are most common.

The Isole which flows with the rapidity of a torrent, and joins the Ellé, a small and tranquil river, is known in the lower part of its course by the name of the Laita; it falls into the Ocean. Quimperlé^e situated at the place where the two rivers meet, possesses a small but well frequented harbour inaccessible to vessels above fifty tons. The prosperity of the place may be attributed to its position. The streets are neat and clean; two in particular may be remarked for their elegance; the finest public buildings are a church, the ancient convent of the Benedictines, now changed into the residence of the subprefect, and a four-sided tower on the high road. It was the birthplace of Morellet, nephew to the celebrated Abbé of the same name,^f and a writer of considerable talent and erudition. Quimper, surnamed Quimper-Corentin after St. Corentin, its first bishop at an uncertain period, perhaps about the beginning of the fifth century, was formerly called Cornouailles; it was the capital of a country of the last name, that comprehended the whole of its diocese.^g The Romans called it *Corisopitum*, but before their conquest, it bore the Celtic name of *Kimper*, which signifies a *small walled town*; it appears, therefore, that its antiquity cannot be disputed. It is situated on the declivity of a hill at the confluence of the Odet and the Steire. The most ancient quarter, encompassed with walls and turrets, rises like an amphitheatre, and commands a view of a romantic country covered with rocks, woods and heaths. In the more modern quarter of St. Mathieu, the streets are not so narrow, and the houses are better built.^h The finest public walk extends along the canal of the Odet,ⁱ which the tide renders navigable to vessels of 300 tons. The cathedral was rebuilt at the commencement of the fifteenth century, and is one of the finest churches in France. The town has given birth to several distinguished men, among others to Bougeant and Hardouin, two jesuits; the first composed the admirable *Histoire du Traité de Westphalie*, and also the *Amusemens philosophiques sur le langage des bêtes*, on account of which his brethren banished him to La Fleche; the second author, more to be pitied for his singularity, than dreaded for any real or imaginary danger arising from his writings, attributed Virgil's *Æneid* to a monk of the thirteenth century, and considered the poem an allegorical description of St. Peter's journey to Rome. The same writer maintained that the acts of all the councils anterior to the council of Trent, were false; he was charitable enough to include Malebranche, Nicole and Pascal in the list of atheists. The jesuits allowed him to repeat these absurdities without molestation.^k Freron the ex-jesuit, and Valentin the painter, were likewise natives of the town; the latter during the civil dissensions in France, handled the pencil, the pen and the sword. Concarneau, situated on a small island, which communicates with the continent by means of a convenient ferry, is enclosed with walls, and guarded by a castle. It was taken by Duguesclin in 1373. It sends

such a manner as to facilitate communication between the inhabitants on the opposite sides of the streets."

ⁱ "The fine quays and the promenade which border the channel of the Odet, contribute to the commerce of the place and the recreation of its inhabitants."

^k "He published and repeated these absurdities without molestation"—This statement is not strictly true. Not only were the works in which he had denied the authenticity of the ancients and the councils, suppressed by authority, but he was compelled by his religious superiors to retract his opinions.—P.

^a Count de Tinteniac.

^b "Avec un bon port"—It has a good port, but of difficult access. Tuckey, Vol. II. p. 20.—P.

^c "Arrondissement."

^d "Finistère."

^e Quimperlay, Quimperley.

^f Abbé Morellet, distinguished as a writer before and during the revolution.—P.

^g Cornouailles is the name of a country in Brittany, comprehending all the former diocese of Quimper. (Encyc. Meth. Vosgien.)—P.

^h "In the old quarter, the upper stories of the houses project in

every year about four hundred boats and small vessels to the sardel fisheries, of which the mean annual produce amounts to a thousand tons. Douarnenez rivals the last town in the same sort of industry; it is partly peopled by two thousand fishermen and sailors.^a

There are no towns of any consequence in the district^b of Chateaulin. The capital of the same name, divided into two nearly equal parts by the river Aulne,^c is pleasantly situated; it was the birthplace of father André^d and rear-admiral Cosmao; the former obtained some celebrity as the author of a treatise on Man, and an essay on the Beautiful;^e the latter died a few years ago, after having distinguished himself in several engagements. The burgh of Huelgoet and the village of Poullaouen are two other places in the same district;^b the former is enriched by a mine of argentiferous lead; the other contains 3,600 inhabitants, almost all of whom are employed in working a similar mine, the largest in France, and one of the finest in Europe. It yields annually about 150 tons of lead, and more than 900 pounds of silver.^f The machinery used in the works, the founderies and the houses of the miners,^g are not unworthy of being visited. The small and dirty town of Carhaix rises on the left bank of the Hiere at the distance of eleven leagues to the east of Chateaulin. It has produced one of the greatest men of the last century, the brave La Tour d'Auvergne, distinguished for his learning^h and as a soldier, and a worthy descendant of Turcotte, who was proclaimed first grenadier of France, and who fell in 1799 at the battle of Neuburg.

Every stranger who has visited Brest, must have observed the fatiguing and uninterrupted motion which prevails in the port, the vessels that frequent it, displaying the colours of every nation, the imposing aspect of the batteries, which defend the town, the old fortress, according to popular tradition, erected by Cæsar, which guards the entrance, and the extensive road, communicating with the ocean by the strait called the Goulet, and capable of holding five hundred ships of war;ⁱ he may also have remarked the naval storehouses, the large arsenal, the barracks on the long esplanade, the cordage and sail manufactories, the large dockyards, and lastly the work-houses which may contain four thousand prisoners or galley-slaves.^k Brest is built on the declivity of a hill, and is divided into the high and low

town; the latter has been embellished with many modern houses; indeed the quarter of Recouvrance may ere long be compared with the one round the harbour, for it has been found necessary to pull down the ancient Gothic habitations in order that sufficient space may be obtained for new buildings.^l The steep and crooked streets in the upper town are very disagreeable and difficult of access. The fifth stories of several houses are on a level with the gardens belonging to others, and as the only communications between the old and new quarters are by means of long and open stairs, accidents are not uncommon during frosty weather. A fine machine for masting vessels may be observed at no great distance from the entrance into the harbour. One can hardly behold the solid and extensive quays, and the magazines or storehouses built of freestone, which line them, without rendering homage to the genius of Richelieu, by whom they were planned, and who foresaw the advantages that might be derived from the situation of a burgh, which he raised to the rank of a maritime town. It has been supposed, and in all probability correctly, that Brest is not so ancient a place as many believe; it cannot be inferred from the Roman fortress which still remains, that the town existed in the time of Cæsar; besides it may be shown that it was only a village in the ninth century, when king Coron Meriadec erected a castle near it.^m Louis Choquet, a poet of the sixteenth century, Rochon, a dramatic writer, and Lamothe-Piquet and Kersaint, two distinguished naval officers, were born in the capital of Finisterre.ⁿ

The isle of Ouessant^o may be seen from the coast of Brest; it contains about 1800 inhabitants, who are scattered in several hamlets. The road to the heights in the district^p of Morlaix, leads to Landernau which, although it has been extolled by an academician, must be considered an ill-built and disagreeable town. Morlaix is not so dirty as many other small towns in Brittany; it stands between two hills, about two leagues from the sea, and at the confluence of the Jarleau and the Kerlent, which enter its harbour; the latter is defended by a castle.^q Possessing a considerable trade, adorned with several fine edifices, and encompassed with agreeable walks, it cannot be denied that Morlaix is a pleasant and wealthy city. It was the birthplace of general Moreau, a Frenchman who betrayed

particularly in the quarter of Recouvrance,[†] in which the old Gothic houses are replaced by modern buildings, and which promises soon to rival the quarter near the harbour.[‡]

† "Quartier de Recouvrance"—Brest is divided into two parts, one of which is called the *Côte du Brest* and the other the *Côte de Recouvrance*, between which there is no communication but by boats. (Ed. Encyc.)—The town (*ville*) properly so called, consists of a small number of narrow and crooked streets built on the declivity of a hill. The suburb, called the suburb of Recouvrance (*fauxbourg de la Recouvrance*), consists of straight and well built streets. It is separated from the town by an arm of the sea which forms the harbour. (Encyc. Meth.)—P.

^m Conan Meriadec died A. D. 393. (Moreri.)—Conan Meriadec, a native of Great Britain, was created duke (*dux*) of the Armorican frontiers by the emperor Maximus about the year 383, and 26 years afterwards invested with the sovereign authority by the Bretons. He died about the year 421. (Beauvais.)—Conan I. who took the title of king of Brittany, was killed in battle A. D. 992. (Beauvais.)—P.

ⁿ Roelon de Chabannes, the dramatic writer, was born at Paris 1730. La Mothe (Motte-) Piquet was born at Rennes 1720. Kersaint was born at Paris 1741. (Beauvais.)—La Mothe-Piquet died at Brest 1791. (Diet. Hist. Caen, 1804.)—Quimper is the capital of the department and the residence of the prefect. Brest is only capital of an arrondissement or subprefecture. (Alman. Royal, 1822.)—P.

^o Ushant. ^p "Arrondissement."
^q Its port is defended by the castle of Taureau on an island. Tuckey. Vol. II. p. 19.—P.

^a "Its population comprehends about 2000 mariners (*marins*.)" Douarnenez has a population of 2000. Tuckey, Vol. II. p. 20.—P.

^b "Arrondissement."

^c Chateaulin is situated on the Auzon. (Vosgien.)—P.

^d Yves Marie André, jesuit, professor of mathematics at Caen—died 1764, aged 89.—P.

^e *Traité de l'Homme—Essai sur le beau.*

^f "3000 quintals of lead and 400 kilogrammes of silver."

^g "The machinery employed in extracting the ore, and the buildings destined for founderies"—

^h In various languages, particularly the ancient Celtic. He published a Glossary of 45 languages, a French and Celtic Dictionary, and a work on Celtic etymology (*Traité des Origines Gauloises*.)—P.

ⁱ Brest has two roads, the outer called Bertheaume Road, and the inner, Brest Water, the communication between them being by a narrow channel, called *Le Goulet* (the Gullet,) which is defended by a castle on a steep rock on the south side, and by a semicircular battery on the other.* Brest Water is capable of holding 500 sail of large ships. Tuckey. Vol. II. p. 19.—P.

* Guarded by a castle on the side next the sea, and on the land side by a large ditch and other strong fortifications. Ed. Encyc.

^k "The magazines for naval stores, the arsenal, the barracks fronting on a long esplanade, the two rope walks in a line parallel with the dock yards, and the prison for the galley slaves (*bagne*,) built near the summit of a hill, and large enough to contain nearly 4000 prisoners."

^l "Improvements are making more rapid progress in the latter, par-

his country, and was mortally wounded when commanding the enemies of France. St. Pol de Leon,^a the metropolis of a district,^b and formerly the seat of a bishopric, rises on a hill near the sea. The only buildings worthy of notice are the town-house, the ancient granite cathedral and the steeple of Creesker. The district of which it is the capital, has been long famous for its horses.

Several deep bays and important capes that jut into the Channel, are situated in the department of the North Coast.^c The arid, rocky and wild heights of Menez, Ar-rée and Menebrat cover a large part of its surface, and are the sources of three navigable rivers, namely, the Guer, the Trieux and the Gouet. The gentle declivities of the same heights terminate both on the north and the south in sterile sands, which extend to a considerable distance, but plains of great fertility may be seen beyond them, particularly near the coasts. Their products are flax, hemp, and different kinds of grain and fruits; in some places the country is covered with vineyards.^d The mineral riches of the department consist in iron and lead mines, in granite and slate quarries, and lastly in several medicinal springs of greater or less celebrity. The culture of the ground and the produce of the fisheries enable many to gain the means of subsistence; but other sorts of industry, the products of manual labor, the *Brittany linens* as they are called, have almost changed the department into a vast manufactory.^e

Although the district of which Laudeac^f is the chief town, and which extends below the southern declivities of the Armorican chain, may be considered the smallest in the department, no less than four thousand linen manufactories are contained in it. Uzel, near the banks of the Oust, is the principal mart for the different manufactures. The small town of Lannion stands on the banks of the Guer, near the shores of the sea, in a favourable situation for trade. The river Treguier serves as a communication between the port of the same name and the Channel. Guingamp on the Trieux may be remarked on account of the fruitful and romantic country in which it is situated.^g

St. Brieuc or St. Brieuc contains hardly ten thousand inhabitants; one cannot see therefore without surprise, a public library of 24,000 volumes, a collection of paintings, a theatre, an hospital and a fine granite bridge over the Gouet.^h It may be added too that there are horse races every year in the beginning of July; the horses that run, must be bred either in the department of the North Coast, or in the neighbouring departments of Finisterre, Morbihan, the Lower Loire, and the Ille and Vilaine.ⁱ The town also contains a school of hydrography, and an agricultural society. The harbour is at the village of Le Gué St. Brieuc. St. Brieuc was built at irregular intervals round

^a St. Paul de Leon (Encyc. Meth.)

^b "Subprefecture"—The capital of a district (*canton*) in the subprefecture or arrondissement of Morlaix (Vosgien. Alman. Royal, 1822).—P.

^c Côtes du Nord.

^d "They produce flax, hemp and cider, and also a little wine."

^e "The inhabitants are employed in agriculture, fisheries, and different manufactures, particularly in the manufacture of what are called Brittany linens (*toiles de Bretagne*), in which so many are employed as almost to convert the department into a vast manufactory."

^f Also called *Bretagnes* or *Britannies*. Encyc. Meth. Part. Commerce.—P.

^g Loudeac.

^h "Guingamp — may be remarked for its fine cathedral, and for the pleasant walks in its neighbourhood."

ⁱ Goy. (Tuckey.)

^j "—Horse races, in which these departments are competitors (*concurrent*.)"

VOL. III.—NO. 50

32

a monastery which dates from the fifth century; the streets are clean and straight, and, according to antiquaries, one of the parish churches now repaired, was originally a druidical temple.^k Paimpol on the coast, towards the north-west, contains 2000 inhabitants; the harbour is safe and convenient, and the mineral waters are held in some repute. Quintin,^l at the distance of four leagues to the south-west of St. Brieuc, has been long known for its fine linens; on the neighbouring hill are situated a castle of singular architecture, and two *peulvens* or druidical stones twenty-five feet in height, one of which is still erect. The small town of Lamballe to the east of the capital, was probably the ancient city of the *Ambiliates*,^m a people mentioned by Cæsar.

The districtⁿ of Dinan is the only other in the department; the town rises on a height near the left bank of the Rance; it has a harbour, from which there is a communication during high tides with that of St. Malo. It is noted for a strong castle, an ancient residence of the dukes of Brittany, the walls of which are remarkable both for their height and thickness. The public walks are extensive and laid out with much taste; but most of the public buildings are not very creditable to the town.^o Dinan has produced several distinguished men; it may be sufficient to mention Duclos, the secretary of the French academy, and Mahé de La Bourdonnaye, who was thrown by an ungrateful country into a dungeon in the Bastille, after having added to the glory of the French arms in India. Although the time in which Dinan was founded, has not been determined, it is certain that it was originally a Celtic city, probably the same which Ptolemy designates by the name of *Dianlita*. Mineral springs,^p which have been of late years much frequented, rise in a valley at a short distance from the walls. The old road to them was almost impracticable; a new and an excellent one was made by the states of Brittany.

The Ille and the Vilaine water a department,^q the last of those that are included in the ancient province of Brittany. The first river flows from north to south, and unites with the second, which takes first a western direction, and turns afterwards to the south. It serves, as well as the Cher and the Coesnon, to facilitate the conveyance of goods. Hills extend in different directions, and forests, landes and heaths make up nearly half of the country. The banks of the rivers are covered with rich pastures, and the fruitful marsh of Dol, the *Delta* of the department, yields abundant harvests, but even these are hardly adequate to the consumption. The working and smelting of iron, and different manufactures, particularly linen,^r have diffused wealth among the inhabitants.

As the people in the ancient city of *Aleth*, the modern St. Servan,^s were continually exposed to the attacks of

^k "The antiquaries of the country consider its parochial church as an ancient druidical temple." St. Brieuc contains a cathedral and the parish church of St. Michael. Moreri.—P.

^l Population, 3976 (Alman. Royal, 1822)—not stated in the original.—P.

^m *Ambiliates*, Cæsar. J. Scaliger. edit. Elzevir. 1635—*Ambiliates*, Cæsar. ed. Vicentii, 1558.—P.

ⁿ "Arrondissement."

^o "With the exception of its public walks, which are agreeable and extensive, and a concert hall, an evidence that it reckons a number of connoisseurs (*dilletanti*) among its inhabitants, the town contains nothing remarkable."

^p "A ferruginous spring."

^q The department of the Ille and Vilaine.

^r "Agriculture, the working and refining of iron, and the manufacture of different kinds of linen."

^s St. Servan.

pirates, most of them removed, during the eleventh century, to the rock of Aaron, where they founded a small town, which was called St. Malo after the name of their bishop. The rock on which it stands communicates with the land by means of an embankment; the rough breakers on the north, and many batteries, render the access difficult to the enemy. The entrance to the narrow gulf which forms the harbour, is very inconvenient; on both sides are situated numerous shoals, and the waters are suddenly depressed or swollen by the tides; indeed, they have risen more than once to the height of forty-five feet above their ordinary level.^a The town rises like an amphitheatre; many of the streets are regularly built, and public walks extend round the ramparts. St. Malo has produced several remarkable men; among others, Duguay-Trouin, James Cartier,^b who discovered Canada, Maupertuis, a geometer and natural philosopher, La Mettrie, a physician, who was banished and died in exile, because he doubted the immortality of the soul, and lastly, the Abbé Trublet, an indefatigable compiler. St. Servant, not more than half a league from St. Malo, is a neat modern town with two harbours, one of them set apart for merchant vessels, and the other for those in the service of government. Caneale on the coast, at the distance of three leagues from St. Servant,^c supplies different places with oysters.^d Although the church of Dol may be compared with any other in the department, the town itself does not contain more than four thousand inhabitants.^e

The road from St. Malo to Paris passes through Fougères, which was almost destroyed by fires during the last century, calamities which account for its being at present one of the best built towns in the department. The public walks command a view of the neighbouring country, the fruitful valley watered by the Nançon, and meadows varied by groves; a fine forest in which are contained several druidical monuments, extended formerly beyond the village of Landean,^f where the cellars may be still seen that were dug in the twelfth century by Raoul, lord of Fougères, in order that his treasures might be hid from Henry the Second of England, but the monarch was more active than his enemy, for he seized the booty before it was concealed. Fougères has been long famous for different dyes, particularly for its scarlet, of which the brilliancy has been attributed to the quality of the waters of the Nançon. The sinuous course of the Vilaine leads to Redon, an agreeable and well built town, that carries on a

^a "The harbour is surrounded with rocks (*écueils*), and situated at the bottom of a narrow gulf, in which the sea rises at spring tides, 45 feet above its ordinary level; the access to it is consequently difficult."—The harbour is spacious, but of difficult access from rocks. It is nearly dry at low water, but the tide rises 48 feet. Tuckey, Vol. II. p. 18.—P.

^b Jacques Cartier.

^c "Caneale, at the distance of three leagues along the coast—" Caneale is three leagues E. of St. Malo. (Vosgien.)

^d—"is noted for its oysters." On the coast of Brittany there are very large oysters, particularly at Caneale, where a great many are preserved in places inclosed for that purpose. Ed. Encyc.

^e "Dol, a town of 4000 inhabitants, contains a fine church."

^f "It has a public walk (*promenade*), arranged in terraces, from which the view extends over the pleasant valley watered by the Nançon, over meadows interspersed with clumps of trees, and over a fine forest which contains many druidical monuments, and which formerly extended beyond the village of Landean—"

^g "Its port receives vessels of 200 tons"—Its port which serves as the entrepot for the commerce of Rennes, is accessible to vessels of 200 tons with full cargoes. (Vosgien).—P.

^h "Arrondissement"

ⁱ "Redon is the capital of an arrondissement, in which are situated the small towns of Renac and Bain, in the former of which a kind of

considerable trade with Rennes; it possesses a harbour for vessels under two hundred and fifty tons.^k Two small towns, Renac and Bain, are situated in the district,^l of which Redon is the capital; cheeses little inferior to those of Gruyeres are exported from the one, and the department is supplied with serge from the manufactories in the other.ⁱ Three other districts^k remain to be described; their chief towns are Montfort sur Meu, Rennes and Vitré; it may perhaps be worth while to add that they are all situated under the same parallel; the old fortifications in the first of these places are not wholly destroyed. The most important iron works in Brittany are those of Paimpont, a village about five leagues distant from Montfort sur Meu. The inhabitants of Plelan le Grand, another flourishing village, manufacture linens, thread, and other articles.^l These two villages are three times more populous than the chief town in the district.^h

Public walks on the banks of the Vilaine, communicate with Rennes, the capital of the department. The upper town, the finest part of the city, has been so called to distinguish it from the lower, which is situated on the left bank of the river, and is not unfrequently liable to inundations. The philosophical author of the treatise on Compensations, has omitted to state that many towns might not have been improved or embellished, had it not been for the devastations occasioned by fire. Thus, in the month of December 1720, all the upper part of Rennes was laid in ashes by a conflagration, which lasted several days;^m but the finest quarter of the city was builtⁿ in consequence of that calamity. The court of justice^o stands in a square, which may be compared with any other in France;^p the houses that surround it, are adorned with Corinthian pillars,^q which accord well with the architecture of the principal building. The different halls in the court are ornamented with paintings by Jouvenet and other French artists.^r The town-house, a larger and finer edifice than the last, forms nearly one of the sides in another square shaded by lofty lime trees.^s One of the wings has been set apart for the civil and commercial tribunals, and also for a public library, containing seventeen thousand volumes. Some of the works in the gallery of paintings are attributed to the great Italian masters; it is situated near the botanical garden, which contains many rare plants, and forms one of the most agreeable walks in the town.^t The establishments connected with instruction are an academy, a royal college, a scientific society, and lastly, schools of medicine, law,

cheese is made that is sold for that of Gruyeres, and the latter of which contains several manufactories of serges."

^k "Arrondissements."

^l "Plelan le Grand a de belles fabriques de fil"—manufactures fine thread.—The thread, called Brittany thread (*fil de Bretagne*), comes from Rennes, either white or coloured. It may be had of all colours and of every degree of fineness; it is used only for sewing. Savary, Dict. Comm. art. Fil.—P.

^m "Seven days"—six or seven days (Encyc. Meth.)—eight days (Vosgien.) It consumed more than 850 houses. (Moreri).—P.

ⁿ—"Built on a regular plan." The streets in the Upper Town are, with few exceptions, straight, broad and regular, and the houses, which are six or seven stories high, are well built, upon a uniform plan. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^o *Palais de Justice*—Parliament House.

^p "The Palace square (*Place du Palais*) is one of the finest in France."

^q "Pilasters."

^r "Some of the halls in the building are adorned with paintings by Jouvenet and with elegant arabesques."

^s "The town-house, a more elegant edifice than the last, terminates a square planted with lime trees"—the *Place d'Armes*.—P.

^t "The picture gallery contains several paintings attributed to celebrated artists (*peintres celebres*). The botanical garden forms a delightful promenade."

and the fine arts.^a Rennes is not only the seat of a court, but also the chief town in a diocese;^b it has produced several great men, among others, René de La Bletterie, the historian of Julian the apostate, Tournemine the jesuit, a person of great erudition, Caradeuc de La Chalotais, whose name is generally associated with the expulsion of the jesuits, and the principal events that preceded the revolution, St. Foix, the author of the essays on Paris,^c and Lanjuinais, a member of the convention, and afterwards raised to the peerage; the latter was distinguished for his eloquent speeches in the revolutionary assembly; in his various public employments he conducted himself as an enlightened philosopher and a virtuous citizen. The large prison^d in the ancient capital of Brittany, serves as a place of confinement to the culprits in the four departments subject to the jurisdiction of the royal court. If the canal between Rennes and St. Malo were finished, the trade of the town might be much improved. It may be almost unnecessary to mention that the capital of Brittany was connected with many important events in the history of France. The parliament of Rennes was instrumental in bringing about the convocation of the states-general in 1789. The inhabitants took arms for and against the king at different periods during the League.^e In the fourteenth century, it was invested by the English under the command of Lancaster, who were forced by Duguesclin to abandon the siege; but at a period anterior to the French monarchy, and even in the time of the Romans, several antiquities still preserved within the walls, prove that the town must have been an important place. The masters of the world called it *Rhedones*,^e because it was the chief town in the country inhabited by the people of the same name. It was called *Condate* by the Celts before the Roman conquest, probably on account of its position at the confluence of the Ille and the Vilaine. The hamlet of La Prevalaye is not more than half a league from Rennes;^f the neighbouring country has been long famous for its butter, which is said to be better than any other in France; it is mostly consumed in Paris.^g

Vitré,^h the only other place in the department that remains to be described, cannot be said to be either a clean or well-built town. It might almost be supposed that it had been made the capital of a district,ⁱ merely because the states of Brittany assembled there before the revolution. The house in which Madame de Sevigné used to reside while the states sat, perhaps the finest in the town, would be considered a very ordinary building elsewhere. From its appearance, one would be led to consider it as

^a "An academy, a royal college, a society of arts and sciences, a faculty of law, a secondary school of medicine,* and a school of fine arts."

* The schools of medicine in France are of two orders, viz: faculties and secondary schools, the latter subordinate to the former. In 1322, there were three faculties of medicine in France, those of Paris, Strasburg and Montpellier.—P.

^b "Rennes is the seat of a royal court and a bishopric."

^c *Essais sur Paris*.

^d "Central prison (*maison centrale de détention*)"—prison for criminals, corresponding to our penitentiaries.—P.

^e *Redones*, D'Anv.

^f On the left bank of the Vilaine. M. B.

^g The original merely states that its butter is highly esteemed in Paris.—P.

^h Vitray, Vitry.

ⁱ "Subprefecture"—*arrondissement*.

^k Madame de Sevigné. ¹ Department of the Mayenne.

^m "The cattle, sheep and swine are numerous and valuable; bees are reared on a large scale."

one of the oldest Armorican towns; some antiquaries even pretend to have discovered within its walls the remains of Roman edifices. It was the birthplace of Savary, the author of letters on Egypt. The neighbouring country has been much admired, and of late years much frequented on account of medicinal springs. Strangers visit the barony of Rochers, and the old castle flanked with towers, in which, it is said, several articles are carefully preserved, that belonged to the celebrated person, whose correspondence has become classical in French literature.^k

The Mayenne waters the department of the same name^l in all its extent from north to south; the soil and the vegetable productions are nearly the same as in the last; the vallies are fruitful in grain, but the vine gives place to the apple tree. Herds of oxen, and flocks of sheep may be seen in all the rural districts, and the peasants find the rearing of bees a profitable employment.^m The industrious classes manufacture flax, hemp and cotton.

The stranger looks in vain at Laval for straight or broad streets and houses at all worthy of an industrious and wealthy city. Situated between two hills, which enclose a fine valley, the Mayenne divides it into two parts, and waters a country as agreeable as the town is the reverse. The old and clumsy walls were built about the tenth century, when the town and the territory attached to it, were erected into a barony, which was made over in 1218 to a branch of the house of Montmorency; it became afterwards a county during the reign of Charles the Seventh.ⁿ The old castle that belonged to the dukes of Laval,^o rises in the middle of the town, on the banks of the river; it has been long used as a prison. The linen mart,^p a large and lofty edifice, was built by the dukes of La Trimouille, who succeeded those of Montmorency.^q The linens of Laval have been held in great repute for more than five hundred years; that branch of industry was first introduced by Guy the Eighth, lord of Laval,^r after his marriage with Beatrice of Flanders, from which country many weavers migrated and settled in the town. The fact, however, is little known by the townspeople, who in gratitude ought to have erected a monument to the great promoter of their prosperity. The public library consists of 25,000 volumes; the town has produced several distinguished men, but none perhaps more eminent than Ambrose Paré, the father of surgery in France.

The Mayenne waters the three principal towns in the department, and it may be necessary to remark that two of them, Chateau Gonthier and Mayenne, are six leagues distant from Laval, the one on the north, and the other on

ⁿ "This ancient barony, the walls of which do not indicate an origin anterior to the tenth century, was acquired by a branch of the house of Montmorency in 1218,* and erected into a county by Charles VII.†"

* By the marriage of Mathieu de Montmorency (II.) with Emma, only daughter of Guy V. last of the barons of Laval of the first branch. The barony descended to the children of this, his second marriage. Moreri.—P.

† A. D. 1429.

^o "to its dukes"—not dukes of Laval, but of La Tremouille. Francis, lord of La Tremouille, married Anne de Laval, second daughter of Guy XV. count of Laval; the house of La Tremouille thus became lords of Laval, by the extinction of the elder heirs of the house of Montmorency-Laval, and assumed, as one of their titles, that of count of Laval. Moreri.—P.

^p "Halle aux toiles"—linen hall.

^q "—who succeeded the Montmorencies"—not the dukes of Montmorency, but the Montmorencies, counts of Laval. See note ^o —P.

^r Guy VIII. died in 1323.

the south. Thus, their relative situation tends to facilitate their commerce with each other. If the streets in Chateau Gonthier were straight, it might be an agreeable residence; it is separated from its principal suburb by the river; the great charm of the public walks consists in the view along the basin of the Mayenne; the banks of the river are shaded with walnut trees and orchards, or bordered with meadows, and are commanded by heights that contribute much to the beauty of the scenery. Craon, a small town of 3000 inhabitants, about four leagues to the west of Chateau Gonthier, was the birthplace of the celebrated Volney. Although the streets of Mayenne are narrow and crooked, the cleanliness of the houses may convince the stranger that he is no longer in the ancient province of Brittany. It was erected into a duchy^a by Charles the Ninth in favour of Charles of Lorraine, who in consequence assumed the title of duke of Mayenne. The ancient castle inhabited by the same duke and his successors, may still be considered one of the greatest ornaments to the town.

The Sarthe, which gives its name to a department^b contiguous on the east to that of the Mayenne, traverses it from north to south, and waters a very fruitful country, until it joins the Huysne;^c there the soil changes, and all the space between the latter river and the Loir is covered with sandy and sterile heaths. Wines of an ordinary quality, grain in sufficient abundance for the wants of the inhabitants, rich pastures,^d numerous flocks, and iron and coal mines,^e make up the territorial wealth of the department.

The small town of Mamers may be first mentioned, because it is situated in the most northern district^f in the department. It was probably founded a short time after the arrival of the Franks in Gaul; the Normans fortified it at a later period, and it has since been embellished with public walks, fountains and different buildings. Although La Ferté Bernard contains hardly 2500 inhabitants, it possesses linen and woollen manufactories, together with several corn and fulling mills, which are moved by the Huysne and the Mene. The inhabitants have formed by subscription a public library,^g a proof that industry is accompanied with the desire of knowledge.

Mans, the capital and the residence of the prefect, is advantageously situated near the centre of the department; seven high roads terminate in the town, and the lofty trees^h which shade them, add to the beauty of the neighbourhood. Narrow and crooked streets paved with pebbles, and almost inaccessible to carriages, indicate the antiquity of the quarter on the right bank of the Sarthe. The upper town is more modern; the houses are built of freestone, and covered with slate; but most of the public buildings are situ-

ated in the New Quarter, the finest part of the city.ⁱ The cathedral was built at irregular intervals, during a period of not less than six hundred years; it forms a combination of Roman and Gothic architecture, very interesting to those who study the history of the art. Rows of stone alternate with rows of brick; the circular arches in the interior, and the ogives in the exterior produce a singular effect, which accords very well with the dazzling colours of the Gothic windows. The mausoleum of William de Bellay,^k viceroy of Piedmont during the reign of Francis the First, a good general and an able diplomatist, may be considered the principal ornament in the interior. The house in which Scarron resided, whilst he was canon at Mans, is situated at no great distance from the cathedral. The promenade of the Jacobins,^l a walk shaded with lime trees and bordered by terraces, occupies the site of a Roman amphitheatre. The same town was the ancient *Suindinum*, the capital of the country of the *Cenomani*; under the Roman government, it was the second city in the third Lyonnaise. It was one of the principal towns in France in the time of Charlemagne; the Normans by whom it was almost ruined, made themselves twice masters of it.^m It was several times taken and retaken by the Vendean and Republican armies; the market placeⁿ was changed into a field of battle on the 13th of December 1793, when the soldiers of La Vendée, commanded by the prince of Talmont^o and La Rochejaquelein, yielded in the darkness of the night and after much slaughter to the troops commanded by Westermann and Marceau, against whom they had defended themselves during the whole of the day.^p The wax candles made at Mans are said to be the best in the kingdom, but that branch of industry is not confined to the capital of the department; the same articles are sent to Paris from some districts in the neighbourhood, and from Suze,^q a small town of 1800 inhabitants, situated near the extremity of the landes,^r on the banks of the Sarthe.

Encompassed with forests and sandy plains, the Anille waters a town^s which bore the same name as the river until about the sixth century, when a St. Calais founded there a monastery, and gave his own name to the town. An old church, a large square and two public walks are the greatest ornaments to the place. Besides the commerce arising from the linen manufactories, it carries on a considerable trade in grain.^t The inhabitants in the industrious burgh of Bessé, about three leagues towards the south, find employment in different manufactories, in dying cloth, and in making paper and wax candles.^u In the same district,^v beyond the southern extremity of the landes, nature, abounding in contrasts, has embellished the rich valley of

^a "Duché-pairie"—a title peculiar to the old government of Franco. The Peers of France were the princes and nobles, secular and ecclesiastical, who assisted at the coronation, and had a seat in the parliament. All the nobles, however, were not peers. Hence the title in the original signifies a duchy with the privilege of the peerage annexed.—P.

^b Department of the Sarthe.

^c Huysne.

^d "Abundant crops of trefoil" (yellow clover. Ed. Encyc.)

^e Poultry and bees are also enumerated in the original. "Poultry forms an important article of commerce in the department." Peuchet. p. 155.—P.

^f "Arrondissement."

^g "The town supports a public library."

^h "The poplars."

ⁱ "The New Quarter (*Quartier Neuf*) is the finest part of the town, and the residence of the principal inhabitants. In the same quarter are situated the palace of the prefect and the public library, the last of which contains not less than 45,000 volumes and 700 manuscripts."

^k Guillaume du Bellay. (Beauvais.)

^l "Promenade des Jacobins" (Dominicans.)

^m "It was twice ravaged by the Normans."

ⁿ "The great square (*la grande place*)."

^o A. Ph. de La Tremoille, lord of Laval.

^p See the Memoirs of La Rochejaquelein.

^q "There are many manufactories of the same article at Suze,* and in the other arrondissements." [Suze is in the arrondissement of Mans.—P.]

* La Suze, La Suse.

^r Heaths. See general account of the department.

^s The capital of an arrondissement.

^t "Besides its linen and woollen manufactories, it carries on a considerable trade in clover seed (*graines de trèfle*)."

^u "—in manufacturing coarse cottons (*siamoises*), wax candles and paper, and in dying."

^v "Arrondissement."

the Loir; fields covered with grain, leguminous plants^a and fruits, hills adorned with vineyards that yield the only good wine in the department, fruitful orchards and rich meadows are united with romantic scenery. The chalky hills, cut into terraces, on the banks of the Loir, form a very singular appearance; houses of two stories are excavated in the declivities; the chimneys pass upwards to the fields, and clouds of smoke are exhaled from them. Chateau du Loir rises on one of these heights; industry and commerce have enabled the inhabitants to substitute new and commodious houses for old and inconvenient habitations; the town has been gradually renewed, and although it contains at present only about 3000 souls, it possesses a good classical seminary, an hospital,^b a theatre and public baths.

Passing through the same sort of country, the Loir flows below the small but neat town of Lude;^c at a greater dis-

^a "Legumes"—This term not only includes leguminous plants, but all other edible plants, except grain and fruits, such as cabbages, turnips, potatoes, &c. Pouchet. p. 333.—P.

^b "—a college, a hospital (*hospice*)—"

^c Le Lude.

^d Called under the imperial government, the Military Prytaneum

(*Prytanée Militaire*.) and under the late government (1822.) the Royal preparatory military school of La Fleche (*Ecole royale militaire préparatoire de La Flèche*.) The pupils who have completed their course at this school, are admitted at the special military school of St. Cyr. The college which had belonged to the Jesuits, was converted into a military school on the suppression of that order.—P.

tance, La Fleche, a comparatively wealthy city, rises on the right bank; it is not however remarkable for its industry, for its only manufactories are one of black veils for nuns, two of glue, and some leather works. It is however a well built town, and the public library contains 22,000 volumes; but this capital of a sub-prefecture has acquired additional importance from the college founded by Henry the Fourth, and changed many years ago into a military school^d for six hundred pupils, four hundred of whom receive their education at the expense of government. Prince Eugene, the celebrated Descartes and Picard the astronomer were educated at the college of La Fleche. Sablé at the confluence of the Erve and the Sarthe, is the last place of any consequence in the western region of France; a fine bridge of black marble obtained from the quarries in the vicinity, is without doubt the greatest ornament to the town.

BOOK CXLIV

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Kingdom of France.—Third Section.
—Central Region.

THE thirteen departments which make up the central region of France, formed eight provinces in the ancient monarchy: Orleanais, fruitful in corn and in vines, Touraine, called the garden of France, Berri, abounding in cattle, Nivernais, Bourbonnais and Marche, each of them enriched by commerce, Limousin, whose inhabitants supply by their industry the disadvantages of an ungrateful soil, and lastly, Auvergne, where the low lands are productive, and the higher districts, although not fruitful in grain, afford good pasturage. The same region does not differ widely from the last in extent of surface, and in the means of education provided for the people, but it is far inferior to it in the number of inhabitants, for the 4,165 square leagues that compose it, are only peopled by 3,789,000 individuals, which on an average does not amount to 910 persons to every square league.^a Thus it appears to be even more thinly peopled than the southern region; although no very favourable opinion can be inferred from such results, still this portion of France contains within itself so many resources, so much that may contribute to the expansion of industry, that its present depressed state cannot render an account of it uninteresting.

Almost the whole of Touraine, one of the smallest of the ancient provinces, is at present included in the department of the Indre and Loire, which these two rivers, together with the Cher, the Claise and the Vienne, traverse from east to west. The mildness of the climate, the fruitful vallies, the romantic banks of the Loire, on which the scenery has not been too much extolled by poets, and the varied productions inadequately described by geographers,^b render the country one of the most delightful in France. But the celebrity that has been conferred on the whole department, strengthened by the repetition of the same praises, may be reduced or more correctly estimated after a minute examination. The traveller, after leaving the banks of the Loire, whose majestic course is bordered by heights, covered with vineyards, orchards, castles and villages, and after passing through the vallies watered by the other streams that have been mentioned, will observe in other parts of the country, large tracts of uncultivated heaths, and will not therefore be surprised to learn that a region apparently so rich, which

^a It amounts to 909.7 nearly.—P.

^b “—the beautiful country on the banks of the Loire, whose scenery has been perhaps too highly celebrated, but whose fertility almost surpasses description.”

^c “—with its prunes.”—Prunes, or St. Catharine’s plumbs, constitute a lucrative branch of traffic, almost exclusively carried on at Tours and Chatellerault. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^d Encyclopédie Methodique: Dictionnaire géographique, art. Touraine.

has been almost compared to the promised land, and which supplies France and other countries with different fruits, does not furnish a sufficient quantity of grain for the consumption of the inhabitants. Thus the rich banks of the Loire may be said to resemble one of those magnificent frames which deceive the ignorant, and enhance in their opinion the value of a picture.

The following passage concerning Touraine, appears in a work that was published about forty years ago.^d

“The province was formerly enriched by different manufactures, such as leather, cloth, silk and ribbons; but all of them have fallen into decay; those of cloth and leather are no longer carried on. The silk looms amounted in the sixteenth century to eight thousand, the number of mills to seven hundred, and the individuals who found employment in manufacturing silk, to more than forty thousand, but the latter do not at present exceed two thousand. Of three thousand ribbon looms, there do not now remain more than fifty.” The inpolitic revocation of the edict of Nantes, and duties equivalent to prohibitions on foreign trade, have been so fatal to the department, that it has not participated in the immense progress that French industry has made during the last twenty years. The cloth, carpet and cotton manufactories, the paper mills and leather works^e are without doubt both more numerous and important than they were forty years ago, but they are not nearly so productive as might have been reasonably anticipated.

The state of the department justifies these reflections, although few towns in the kingdom can be compared with Tours on the banks of the Loire. The entrance into it is very imposing. A circus^f leads to one of the best built bridges in Europe, terminating in a spacious court^g that communicates with the Royal street,^h the finest in the town, and inferior to none in any other. Broad, straight, furnished with side walks, and lined with large houses, public buildings or well furnished shops,ⁱ it terminates in the road to Poitiers, along which an extensive range of lofty trees stretches to a green hill, surmounted with ruins, forming an admirable perspective. The *Tranchée*,^k an excellent road, cut through another hill, and bordered by a verdant slope (*talus*) and different buildings, extends from the same bridge, in an opposite direction; it leads to the telegraph, not an uninteresting object, but very different from the ancient ruins that

^e “Manufactories of coarse cloths, carpets, silks and cottons, cotton mills (*filatures*,) paper mills and tanneries.”

^f “Place circulaire.”

^g “—terminating in another square (*place*.)”

^h “Rue Royale.”

ⁱ “—with fine houses (*hôtels*,) and elegant shops.”

^k The Cut.

crown the other hill. The Royal street extends through the whole breadth of the town; several straight and modern streets cross it; but the old quarters consist of narrow and crooked lanes. The cathedral is an admirable Gothic edifice; the nave is of vast dimensions; the organ is remarkable for its size and ornaments, and the windows in the choir display the most dazzling colours. A very precious monument, illustrating the revival of the arts, may be seen within the same building; it is the tomb of Charles the Eighth and Anne of Brittany, his wife. The public library is one of the richest and most valuable in France; it contains more than 30,000 volumes, a great many copies of rare editions, and numerous manuscripts; among the latter, are the Hours^a of Charles the Fifth, those of Queen Anne of Brittany, and a book of the gospels, written in gold letters, on which the kings of France used to swear in the capacity of abbots and canons^b of St. Martin's church, where it was formerly preserved. The collection of paintings was removed a short time ago to a more commodious gallery; they are sufficiently numerous and of various styles, and some of them are by the greatest masters. Tours possesses a medical society, another of agriculture, and a third of arts and sciences; the last boasts of some distinguished members. Several celebrated men have been born in the town; among others, we may mention Destouches, a dramatic writer, Dutens, the author of different valuable works on numismatics,^c and the canon Grecourt, whose licentious poems find but few admirers at the present day. The period in which Tours was founded, has not been ascertained; Ptolemy mentions it by the name of *Cæsarodunum*, a name that was probably derived from the conqueror of Gaul; but it is not less probable that it was the capital of the *Turones*, at the time Cæsar entered their country. Can the Roman general be considered the founder of a town, which a short time after the conquest was a place of considerable importance in Celtic Gaul, which afterwards became the capital of the third Lyonnaise, and the name of which was distinguished by a Celtic termination? It is well known that the termination *dunum* indicates invariably a position on a height.^d Tours then, although at present on the left bank, was originally on the right bank of the Loire, perhaps on the very eminence where the telegraph has been erected.

Amboise, the ancient *Ambacia*, at the distance of five leagues to the east of Tours, has been considered by its townsmen, a place of greater antiquity, but the honours which they claim, are at best doubtful.^e Peopled by five thousand five hundred souls, and memorable from events connected with the troublous times of French history, it is as ill built as at the period when Louis the Eleventh instituted in its old castle the order of St. Michael. Charles the Eighth was born and died in the same edifice; there too

^a Breviary.

^b "First canons."—The church of St. Martin was abbatial and collegiate. The dignity of abbot was united to the crown of France by Hugh Capet. The dauphin was first honorary lay canon of the chapter. (Moreri.)—P.

^c Better known by his work, entitled: *Recherches sur l'origine des découvertes attribuées aux modernes*, in which he attempts to trace the principal modern discoveries and inventions to the ancients.—P.

^d The Gaelic *dun* is generally interpreted a fortress or fortified town, erected on a hill. In a note to the Death of the Sons of Usnach (*Oidhe Chloinne Uisneac*), a Gaelic tale published in the Transactions of the Gaelic Society of Dublin, vol. i., it is asserted that *dun* signifies a fort, fastness, mansion or tower, or simply any place shut in or enclosed. But as the forts of the Celts, as well as other ancient nations, were very uniformly erected on hills, particularly such as were insulated and abrupt, (witness the *Acropolis* of the Greeks and the *Capitol*

the conspiracy against the Guises proved abortive, a family that contributed by their intrigues to make the catholics and protestants of the same country, two hostile people, and that first rendered popular the reproachful epithet of Huguenots, by which reformed Christians have been since designated.^f One of the towers in the castle rises to the height of eighty-four feet; a spiral stair leads to the summit, which commands a view of the rich landscapes that border the Loire and the Cher. A well built bridge, finished in 1822, crosses the river and communicates with the road to Paris. Chateau-Renault, situated to the north of Amboise, is divided by the Brenne into the upper and lower town; the burgh of St. Patern^g at no great distance eastwards, contains 2000 inhabitants and more than twenty manufactories of woollen and linen stuffs. One of the streams that fall into the Loire, waters the small town or rather burgh of Luynes,^h which was erected into a duchyⁱ by Louis the Thirteenth, in favour of the constable D'Albert. It possesses a large hospital^k and several lace manufactories. Habitations similar to those that have been remarked in a neighbouring department, are dug in the depths of chalky rocks, and the ground above them is covered with rich vineyards. Paul Louis Courier, one of the most learned hellenists in France, and not less distinguished as a political writer, was born in the neighbourhood.

The small town of Langeais^l at the distance of some leagues from Luynes, carries on a trade in linen stuffs and earthen ware;^m it consists of a single street, and contains 2500 inhabitants. The old Gothic castle is still in a good state of preservation; it was built in the eleventh century; the articles according to which Brittany was united to France, and the marriage contract between the duchess Anne and Charles the Eighth, were signed in one of the halls on the ground floor, now converted into a stable. The other parts of the building have been changed into a prison. Although the town is included in the districtⁿ of Chinon, it is separated from it by the Loire, the Cher and the Indre. Chinon, situated on the Vienne, carries on a considerable trade in wines and also in the excellent prunes produced in the district. The walls which encompass it, are all that remains of the old fortifications. The venerable ruins of an ancient castle adorn the town; it was there that Henry the Second of England died in 1189; Joan of Arc presented herself in the same place before Charles the Seventh, and offered to deliver France from a foreign yoke. Chinon was the birthplace of the celebrated curate of Meudon.^o The minister of Louis the Thirteenth^p changed Richelieu, then a mere village, into a town; he embellished it with a castle, which has been since destroyed. The houses and streets are built with great regularity.

La Haye^q on the banks of the Creuse, has been surnamed

of the Romans,) the meaning usually attached to the word *dun*, including the idea of a height, may be considered legitimate.—P.

^e "Amboise—disputes with Tours the precedence in point of antiquity."

^f "—and there too the reproachful epithet of Huguenots, by which the Calvinists (*chrétiens réformés*) were designated, first became popular." The original does not say that the Guises rendered the epithet popular, but that it became so at Amboise. Moreri mentions among his etymologies of the name, that it was first applied by the courtiers, while the court was resident at the castle of Amboise.—P.

^g St. Patern. (Savary. Vosgien.)—P.

^h Called also Maillé and Maillé-Luynes.

ⁱ "Duché-pairie." ^k "Un bel hospice." ^l Langets, Langey

^m "It is noted for its melons, and possesses manufactories of linen and tiles."

ⁿ "Arrondissement."

^o Rabelais.

^p Cardinal Richelieu.

^q La Haye-Descartes

Descartes after the celebrated philosopher who was born within its walls, and whose house and modest furniture are still preserved with scrupulous care. Loches, the chief town in a district,^a that produces in abundance the excellent plums, which the French call the plums of Tours,^b rises like an amphitheatre on the left of the Indre. The square tower which commands it, was built by the Romans; it formed part of the castle in which Agnes Sorel used the empire of her charms to inspire her royal lover^c with the desire of glory. The building was converted into a state prison by Louis the Eleventh, and the Cardinal Balue, one of his ungrateful favourites, was confined there during eleven years, in an iron cage. The tomb of Agnes Sorel, which Louis the Sixteenth removed from the choir in the church of Loches to another part of the building, may now be seen at the residence of the subprefect; the epitaph attests that she was *charitable to all, giving largely of her wealth to the church and the poor.*

Blois, Vendome and Romorantin are the three principal towns in the department of the Loir and Cher, a flat and uniform country, but in some places varied by hills covered with vineyards, on which the eye rests with pleasure. The soil is much more fruitful in some parts than in others; the lands on the north of the Loire are very fertile, but on the south of the river, marshes, heaths and forests cover a third part of the soil.^d The country yields more corn than the inhabitants require, fruits and leguminous plants^e of every sort, a great quantity of hemp, different kinds of timber, and some good wines, particularly those of the *Côte du Cher*. Many sheep and oxen are reared;^f the turf pits^g are by no means unprofitable; iron mines are worked, and the flints in the chalky hills form an important branch of commerce. As a manufacturing department, it is not inferior to the last.

Different remains of antiquity render it probable that Blois was founded before the Roman conquest; in it, as in all the ancient French towns, the oldest buildings are situated on a height, and form a quarter consisting of steep and narrow streets; modern houses are erected below them; they extend to the quay on the right bank of the Loire, and to the bridge of eleven arches, the latter adorned with a lofty pyramid, and communicating with a suburb on the opposite side of the river. The lower part of the city is well built, and the views which it presents in different directions, are likely to impress strangers with a favourable idea of the place. The former church of the jesuits, built after the plans of Mansard, the Roman aqueduct dug in the rock, the public library, the prefect's palace in the highest part of the town, and the long walk which terminates in a large forest,

^a "Arrondissement."

^b "Les excellens pruneaux de Tours"—the excellent prunes of Tours.

^c Charles VII.

^d "The country on the north of the Loire is more fertile than that on the south of the river; marshes, heaths and forests cover three fourths of the latter."

^e "Legumes."—See note ^a p. 933.

^f "The department abounds in sheep and poultry."

^g "Tourbières"—peat bogs.

^h Henry de Lorraine, third duke of Guise, and Louis de Lorraine, cardinal of Guise.—P.

ⁱ Dec. 23, 1588.—P.

^k Aug. 1, 1589, by James Clement, a Dominican.—P.

^l Chambor.

^m Primaticcio (Le Primaticci) a native of Bologna.

ⁿ "—the castle of Chambord, constructed after the designs of Le Primaticcio during the reign of Francis I; 1800 workmen were employed during twelve years in building it, but it was continued under his

are well worthy of notice, but all of them are less imposing than the old castle, where the good Louis the Twelfth was born, which was inhabited by Francis the First and Charles the Ninth, and where too, during the last meeting of the states under Henry the Third, the Duke of Guise, and his brother, the cardinal,^h were assassinated by order of the king,ⁱ who was himself afterwards murdered by a bigot.^k The curious repair to the village of Chambord,^l about four leagues to the east of Blois, in order to see a castle which was built in the reign of Francis the First after the plans of Primaticcio;^m the monarch employed 1800 workmen during twelve years, his successors followed his example, and the edifice was completed by Louis the Fourteenth.ⁿ Although an irregular assemblage of towers and turrets, it is one of the most imposing Gothic buildings in France. A double spiral stair in the interior has been often admired; one person may mount and another descend it without seeing each other. The park round the castle is enclosed by a wall seven leagues in circumference. This fine domain was the residence of king Stanislaus; Louis the Fifteenth ceded it afterwards to Marshal Saxe, who died there in the year 1750. Napoleon presented it to the prince of Wagram;^o lastly, having been purchased by means of a national subscription, it became the appanage of the duke of Bordeaux. St. Aignan on the banks of the Cher, carries on a considerable trade in cloth and in flints, which are cut in the neighbourhood.^p

Ten^q manufactories render the small town of Romorantin a place of some importance; and it may be mentioned as a proof of its prosperity, that it has lately been embellished with several new streets.^r It is celebrated in history on account of the edict that was issued by the chancellor De l'Hopital, an edict that saved France from the horrors of the inquisition. The Loir divides itself into several branches near Vendome, which stands at the foot of a hill covered with fruitful vineyards. The town is well built, and the college is not inferior in point of architecture to any in France;^s the finest buildings are those in the vicinity of the horse-barracks, and no view near the town can be compared with the one, which may be seen from the ruins of the ancient castle.^t Vendome was the birthplace of the poet Ronsard.

A flat country, consisting of extensive and fruitful plains, with some narrow vallies of little depth, watered by different rivers, the largest of which are the Eure and the Loir, makes up the department of the same name,^u in an agricultural point of view, one of the most productive in France. It comprehends the greater part of the ancient Beauce and Perche. It furnishes corn in sufficient abundance for the consumption of the inhabitants, and exports besides a great

successors, and was not completed till the reign of Louis XIV."—Chambor, a royal house of France, begun by Francis I. a short time before his death, and finished by Henry II. Moreri.—P.

^o Marshal Berthier.

^p "St. Aignan, on the left bank of the Cher, is a place of some importance from its cloth manufactories, and also from the sale of flints, which are prepared on a large scale in its neighbourhood." Gun flints are manufactured by breaking the nodules of flint into fragments by the stroke of a hammer, and then reducing these fragments to a proper form and size on the edge of a chisel by repeated small blows (Cleaveland).—P.

^q "Une dizaine"—about ten.

^r "Constructions nouvelles"—new buildings.

^s "The college is one of the finest in France."

^t "The cavalry barracks (*quartier de cavalerie*) are of elegant architecture, and from the summit of the castle, now in ruins, there is a magnificent prospect."—The castle is situated within the town. (Moreri).—P.

^u Department of the Eure and Loir.

quantity^a to Paris and the neighbouring departments. It has been proved by official returns, that the quantity of grain raised in the department of the Eure and Loir, is nearly three times greater than the average produce of the French departments. The inhabitants rear numerous flocks and herds; the quantity of wool exceeds twice the mean quantity in the other departments, and the same may be said of the number of horses that are bred in the country.^{b c} As the agricultural products are so abundant, it might be supposed that the inhabitants are not engaged in other occupations, but all the branches of industry are mutually connected with each other; thus, the mines furnish materials to several important iron works, and the wool, to cloth and different manufactories.^d It may be unnecessary to mention the vineyards, as all the wines are of ordinary quality; the quantity produced may be equal to 20,000 tuns; cider, however, is a very common beverage in different parts of the country.^e

The department of the Eure and Loir contains four districts.^f Nogent le Rotrou is the chief town in one of them; the houses are mostly well built; it stands in a fruitful valley watered by the Huysne and the Arcise; the latter turns several mills, and forms a cascade near the town. The Gothic castle, which commands Nogent le Rotrou, need not be mentioned on account of its architecture, but it may be remarked that it was the residence of Sully. There are no other towns of any importance in the same district.^g The burgh of Senonches is situated in the district,^h of which Dreux is the capital; the inhabitants carry on a trade in machinery and agricultural implements.ⁱ Maillebois has several cloth manufactories.

It would be a waste of time to inquire whether Dreux¹ derives its name from the Druids or from Dryus, the fourth king of the Gauls; the antiquity of the town cannot, however, be disputed; it is well known that it was called *Durocasses* before the Roman conquest, a name which was afterwards changed into *Droca*, and lastly into Dreux. The inhabitants carry on a trade in leather, printed cottons, woollen stuffs, stockings and hats, all of which they themselves manufacture.^k Rotrou the poet, and Philidor the musician and celebrated chess player, were born in the town. The battle in which the troops of Charles the Ninth took the prince of Condé^l prisoner, was fought under the walls in 1562. The ruins of the ancient castle that was inhabited by the counts of Dreux are still seen on a neighbouring height. The burgh of Anet is about three leagues to the north of Dreux; it was near it that Henry the Second built a noble residence for Diana of Poitiers, his mistress; what remains of it enables us to form some notion of what it must have been, in its original magnificence; it may be considered a monument of the foolish passion that the

^a "More than 800,000 quintals."

^b "The number of horses exceeds the average number, and the quantity of wool is more than double the average quantity, in the departments."

^c M. Ch. Dupin, *Forces productives et commerciales de la France*, tom. i.

^d "The iron mines supply several fineries (*affineries*), and the department also contains numerous manufactories of cloth and hosiery."

^e "The quantity produced is estimated at 200,000 hectolitres, nearly equal to that of the cider made in the department."

^f "Arrondissements." ^g "Arrondissement."

^h "It contains an establishment in which hydraulic machinery is manufactured."

ⁱ Situated on the Blaise. M. B.

^k "It carries on a trade in dyeing (*teintures*), and in the leather, woollen stockings and hats, which it manufactures."

^l Louis de Bourbon, first prince of Condé.

king had for a woman who was not always faithful to him, and who was the cause of many disasters to France.

Epernon in the district^s of Chartres, contains about fourteen hundred inhabitants; it rises in a pleasant valley. Maintenon, somewhat more populous and still more agreeably situated than Epernon, was the native town of Colin d'Harleville. The castle, its finest edifice, was built in the sixteenth century; limpid streams water the park that surrounds it; there Louis the Fourteenth raised an aqueduct,^m now in ruins, in order to transport the waters of the Eure to Versailles; for that purpose he employed during several years more than sixty thousand soldiers, and a great many workmen. Several Druidical monuments are situated in a plain beyond the park; the country people call them the stones of Gargantua. Dirty and mean villages extend in different directions in the country between Maintenon and the capital of the department; they are built in the same manner as were those belonging to the *Carnutes* in the time of Cæsar; they consist of wretched hovels without windows, and made of clay mixed with cut straw, but what is very remarkable, the peasants who inhabit them, are not indigent.

The two towersⁿ of the cathedral of Chartres may be seen from the heights in the neighbourhood of Maintenon; they might be mistaken for two lofty obelisks. A small wood, the only remains of the ancient forest inhabited by the chief of the Druids, is in the vicinity of Chartres. The Eure, which flows below it, was the Celtic *Autur*, and the Latin *Autura*, whence the town was called *Autricum*, but the ancients also designated the latter by the name of *Carnutum*.^o An elegant square adorns the lower town, which is mostly well-built, but the upper town is formed by steep and irregular streets; in one of the narrow courts^p may be observed a monument^q erected to the memory of general Marceau, in every way unworthy of the young hero, whose ashes repose in a foreign land, and whose tomb was respected by the enemies he had defeated. The cathedral is the most remarkable edifice in Chartres; it stands in the highest part of the town, and the towers^r rise to a great height. It was founded in the eleventh century, and it was there that St. Bernard excited his hearers to engage in the second crusade; at a later period Henry the Fourth was crowned in the same place. Among the ornaments may be mentioned a white marble figure of the Virgin^r by Coustou, and in one of the small chapels, another Virgin with the infant Jesus. The last group and the relics of St. Vast are held in great veneration by the people.

The most valuable collections in the town, are a museum of natural history, and a public library, the latter consisting of about 30,000 volumes and 700 manuscripts. Chartres has produced several distinguished men; we may mention

^m "Behind the castle is a park watered by limpid streams, and traversed by the remains of the aqueduct"—undertaken by Louis XIV, A. D. 1684.—P.

ⁿ "Clochers." The principal curiosity of the town is the church of Notre Dame, with its two spires, one of which is the admiration of strangers, from its enormous mass, and from its pyramidal and finely tapering form, while the other is admired for the strength of its architecture and the richness and delicacy of its ornaments. (Ed. Encyc.)—There is a proverb in France: the steeples of Chartres, the nave of Amiens, the choir of Beauvais, and the portal of Rheims. (Encyc. Meth.)—P.

^o *Carnutes* (D'Anv.) from the name of the people who inhabited it.—P.

^p "—in a small square (*place étroite*) in the upper town."

^q "Obelisk."

^r "An assumption of the Virgin."—A magnificent group in white marble, representing the assumption of the Virgin—the virgin as the principal figure, surrounded by angels. Encyc. Method.—P

Philip Desportes and Regnier^a his nephew, two poets of the sixteenth century, Andrew Felibien, an author of considerable crudition,^b Thiers, better known as a critic than a theologian,^c Peter Nicole, an eminent writer of Port-Royal, Brisot de Warville and Petion de Villeneuve, two members of the Convention, and the virtuous defender of the unfortunate queen. The old ramparts of Chartres have been changed into public walks, which communicate with the lower part of the town; the gates are adorned with triumphal arches, and one of them flanked with turrets was connected with the drawbridge that was lowered before Henry the Fourth. The road to Brittany passes through Courville, a small city about four leagues to the west of Chartres. Sully died in the neighbouring castle of Villebon, an elegant and well preserved Gothic edifice of the sixteenth century.

The banks of the Loir lead to Bonneval, a burgh of seven hundred inhabitants, who carry on a trade in cotton, woollen stuffs and leather;^d broad, clean and well built streets indicate the wealth of the people. Chateaudun on the banks of the same river, was destroyed by fire in 1723, a calamity which has contributed much to its improvement; it is at present one of the finest towns in France. It has been made the capital of a district;^e it contains a townhouse, a public library and a college. The market-place must be considered the greatest ornament to the town both on account of its size, and the number of public buildings; a pleasant walk extends along the peaceful banks of the Loir, bounded by natural grottos, which have been converted into habitations for the peasantry.^f A castle rises on a rock that commands the river; it belonged to the counts of Dunois, and was built in the tenth century; there is not perhaps another edifice of the same date in France that can be compared with it.^g

A well-made road through no very picturesque country, leads from Chateaudun to Orleans, the chief town of a department,^h the name of which has been derived from the Loiret, a small river hardly three leagues in length from its source to its junction with the Loire, but which is navigable the distance of a league;ⁱ it has never been known to freeze, an advantage which renders it useful in more than one branch of industry. According to Lancelot and D'Anville, the ancient capital of Orleanais was originally called *Genabum*. Strabo informs us that the *Carnutes* held their principal markets there; it was embellished by the emperor Aurelian, who gave it the name of *Aurelianum*. It might have been destroyed in the year 450 by Attila, had it not been for the courage of the Roman general Aetius, who drove the Huns to the plains of Champagne, where he

^a Mathurin Regnier, the satirist.

^b He wrote chiefly on the fine arts.—P.

^c "A theologian and learned critic." His principal works are on different subjects of catholic theology, chiefly polemical.—P.

^d "It has woollen manufactories, cotton mills (*filatures*) and tanneries."

^e Arrondissement.

^f "It contains a large and elegant public square, a town house and a college, both of them well built, a valuable public library, and a pleasant walk (*promenade*), commanding a fine view along the Loir, which there flows with a gentle current, and is bordered with grottos, now converted into habitations."

^g "On the rock which commands the town, rises the old castle of the counts of Dunois, one of the finest edifices of the tenth century."

^h Department of the Loiret.

ⁱ "More than a league."—It has a course of two leagues, and is navigable nearly to its source. Vosgien.—P.

^k "Since the time of the regent,* it has been merely a title, without any hereditary privileges."

* Philip, duke of Orleans, only brother of Louis XIV, regent during the minority of Louis XV.—P.

gained a complete victory over them. It fell under the power of Clovis after the destruction of the Roman empire, and it became after the death of Clovis, the capital of one of the kingdoms into which France was divided. Philip of Valois erected it into a duchy in favour of his son; having been united to the domains of the crown at the accession of Louis the Twelfth, this duchy became under Louis the Thirteenth, the appanage of his brother Gaston, and afterwards of Philip, the brother of Louis the Fourteenth; but the revenues were abolished during the regency, the title only has been retained.^k Orleans was the birthplace of king Robert, a distinguished scholar, and the author of several hymns, some of which are still sung in the churches; it was also the native town of the jesuit Petau, one of the most learned critics of his age, of Amelot de La Houssaye, an able commentator, and lastly of Pothier, the celebrated jurist. It stands at the extremity of an elevated plain, which terminates near the banks of the Loire; a bridge crosses the river opposite the town, and communicates with the road to Bourges. The extent of the suburb, which the stranger enters on the road from Paris, and the number of well-built houses contained in it, indicate the opulence of a large city. The monument in the square of Martroy was completed in 1803, and dedicated to Joan of Arc;^l the town has thus paid a tribute of gratitude to the heroine, who compelled the English to raise the siege in 1426. The finest street in Orleans is the one which leads from the same square to the bridge over the Loire. The cathedral was commenced by Henry the Fourth, and not continued until the reign of Louis the Sixteenth; although still in an unfinished state, it may be considered a model of architecture.^m The old ramparts have been converted into broad streets.ⁿ

As the seat of an university,^o Orleans is a place of some importance; the transactions published every year by the society of arts and sciences are not without merit; the botanical garden contains many valuable plants; the collection of paintings is superior to most of the same kind in the provincial towns.^p Although there are several rare works in the library, the total number of volumes does not exceed twenty-six thousand. The commerce of Orleans was formerly more flourishing than at present; the sugar works yielded greater profits, and a greater number of hands were employed in the shawl manufactories, but the difference in the other products of industry is less perceptible; the demand for cottons, woollen stuffs, flannels and fine cloths is at present almost as great as at any former period.^q Orleans was one of the first towns in France, in which steam engines were substituted for human labour in the spinning manufactories.^r

^l "The monument of Joan of Arc, in the great square of Martroy, was restored in 1803."

^m "If the cathedral, the building of which was begun under Henry IV, but has been discontinued since the reign of Louis XVI., were completed, it might be considered a model of architecture."

ⁿ "Boulevards."

^o Orleans was the seat of a university before the revolution. It has now an academy and a royal college, but no faculties. Alman Royal. 1822.—P.

^p "The collection of paintings is not without value."

^q The refining of sugar was carried on more extensively,† and a greater number of hands were employed in the manufacture of hosiery.‡ The manufacture of blankets and cotton coverlets, as well as that of fine cloths and flannels, is still of considerable importance."

† The sugar refined at Orleans was formerly esteemed superior to any other in France.—P.

‡ It was estimated on an average, that about 60,000 dozen pairs of stockings were made annually at Orleans. Savary, Dict. Comm. Etat Gen. tom. i., p. 37. 1741.—P.

^r "Filatures"—cotton mills.

A part of the produce of the neighbouring vineyards is converted into excellent vinegar, which forms no inconsiderable part of the trade of Orleans. The situation of the town on the banks of a large river may contribute to restore it to its ancient prosperity. The present commercial decline, whatever it may be, can only be imputed to the rivalry of other places in the same branches of industry.

The other towns or burghs in the same district^a may be briefly enumerated. Olivet on the Loiret was well known on account of an abbey, supposed to have been founded by Clovis. Francis, duke of Guise, was assassinated there, while he was making preparations for the siege of Orleans. The population of the burgh amounts at present to about three thousand souls. Meun^b was the birthplace of John,^c surnamed Clopinel, on account of his lameness; he enjoyed some reputation as a poet at the court of Philip the Fair. The town contains about five thousand inhabitants; it carries on a trade in leather and in different manufactures. Beaugency,^d perhaps more populous than the last place, is certainly more industrious; the vineyards belonging to the town yield generous wine; it possesses besides, cloth and serge manufactories, leather works and distilleries.^e The town must have been more important in the twelfth century than at present, for two councils were then held at Beaugency. It rises on a hill near the Loire, which is crossed by an old bridge of thirty-nine arches.

It might be almost unnecessary to mention Pithiviers,^f were it not the chief town in the district^g watered by the Ceuf, and the mart of the saffron collected in the neighbouring country, believed by many to be the best in Europe.^h Malesherbes, a burgh at no great distance from it, was adorned and improved by the lord of Malesherbes, the virtuous minister of Louis the Sixteenth.ⁱ Montargis is finely situated near a forest, and at the junction of three canals, namely, those of Briare, Orleans and the Loing;^k the only buildings worthy of notice are the theatre and a church that may be remarked for the boldness of its architecture. Châtillon sur Loing has a population of 2000 inhabitants; it was the birthplace of admiral Coligny. Gien, the capital of the smallest district^l in the department, has been embellished with a modern bridge over the Loire; the trade of the inhabitants is confined to porcelain.¹ Briare is about three leagues to the south-east of Gien; it rises in a valley near the junction of the canal that bears its name, with the Loire.

The country from the last town to Orleans, on the right and on the left of the Loire, is by no means fruitful;^m but on the north of this portion of the sterile Sologne,ⁿ the hills are

covered with vineyards, numerous herds are fattened in the meadows, and the fields at the approach of autumn display their waving harvests, and yield more than sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants.

The department of the Loiret is contiguous to that of the Nièvre, for the distance of about two leagues. The latter department, situated to the south-east of the former, and formed by the ancient province of Nivernais, comprehends on the east the granite heights of Morvan, in some places covered with lofty forests which supply the Parisians with wood and charcoal, and in others with rich pastures on which the oxen are reared that are sent to the capital. The Yonne, the Aron, the Nièvre and the Loire compensate in some measure for the few and bad roads that traverse different parts of the country, most of which are impassable during part of the year. Many planks, united by flexible branches, and forming long lines,^o descend every year on the first of these rivers to Paris. Sandy but fruitful plains extend on the right of the Loire, which in a tract equal to sixteen leagues in length, bounds the department on the west. They produce enough of wheat, oats and wine for the wants of the people. The department abounds in coal and iron; wealth is thus diffused among the inhabitants; commerce and manufacturing industry are facilitated. Not less than fourteen hundred persons are employed in working metals, and the products of their labour represent a value almost equivalent to L.400,000.^p

Many of the iron works are situated in the district of Cosne;^q the town of the same name is the mart of the iron that is forged in the neighbourhood; it stands on the declivity of a hill, and the streets are clean and well paved; the inhabitants manufacture cutlery, and carry on a considerable trade in wine and grain. Although no remains of antiquity are left, it is certain that it was one of the seven or eight cities in Gaul, which were called *Condate*, a name probably signifying the junction of two or more streams; we have already had occasion to make the same remark in describing Rennes; it is alike applicable to other places that have not been mentioned. The Nohain throws itself at Cosne into the Loire; public walks have been cut on the banks of the river; the view from them extends over a fruitful country to the distant hills in the department of the Cher.^r A road from Cosne traverses the heights, which command the course of the Loire, the islands which it waters, and the romantic scenery near its banks; but the landscape becomes still finer above the descent that leads to Pouilly, or at all events, the gifts of nature appear in greater luxuriance; the

^a "Arrondissement."

^b Meung- or Mehun-sur-Loire.

^c John de Mehun.

^d Beaugenci, Baugenci.

^e "Beaugency, containing nearly the same population,* possesses valuable vineyards, and also several manufactories of hats and serge, besides tanneries and distilleries."

* Population of Meun, 4534; of Beaugency, 4520. Alman. Royal. 1822.—P.

^f Petiviers, Puviers, Pluviers.—The last name is said to have been derived from the great numbers of plovers (*pluviers*) in its neighbourhood. (Encyc. Meth.)—P.

^g "Arrondissement."

^h "Pithiviers, the capital of an arrondissement, is situated on the Ceuf, a small rivulet; it need only be mentioned as the mart of the saffron collected in its neighbourhood, considered the best in Europe, and for its pastry."

ⁱ "—had for its lord (*seigneur*) and benefactor, the virtuous minister who defended Louis XVI." (Lamoignon de Malesherbes.)

^k The canals of Briare, Orleans and the Loing form three branches of a navigable communication between the Loire and the Seine. That of Briare, (begun in 1605 under Henry IV. and completed in 1642,) commences in the Loire, a mile below Briare, and extends to the Loing below Montargis; that of Orleans, (begun in 1682, and completed by the Duke of Orleans, during the minority of Louis XV.) commences in the Loire, at the small town of Combleux, about a league

above Orleans, and also extends to the Loing below Montargis; that of the Loing, (begun in 1720 and completed in 1724,) is a prolongation of those of Orleans and Briare to the Seine, in which it terminates at the village of Mamort near Moret. The canal of Briare is 34½ miles long; that of Orleans, 45 miles; and that of the Loing, 33 miles, making a total of 112½ miles. Ed. Encyc. Savary.—P.

^l "It has no other ornament than a fine bridge over the Loire, and no other manufacture than that of fine pottery (*faïence*, delft.)"—It manufactures serges and stockings. (Vosgien, 1813)—P.

^m "Sandy and barren."

ⁿ Sologne, a district of country, comprehended in the old government of Orleans, extending on the south of the Loire, to the confines of Berri. Romorantin was the capital. Now comprehended in the departments of the Loiret and the Loir and Cher.—P.

^o "Rafts (*trains de bois*, floats.) the parts of which are ingeniously bound together by flexible branches—"

^p "9,000,000 francs."

^q "The arrondissement of Cosne is one of those in which there is the greatest number of forges."

^r "The public walk (*promenade*) along the Loire (*fleuve*) [the Nohain is only a *rivière*,] commands a fine view of the country on its banks, terminated by the distant hills in the department of the Cher."

hills are covered with rich vineyards, that yield the excellent white wines to which the last place has given its name.^a Pouilly does not contain more than two thousand six hundred inhabitants; it is about four leagues from Cosne, and at an equal distance from La Charité. In the latter town, which is finely situated on the banks of the Loire, the two most remarkable objects are the magnificent ruins of a Gothic church, and a well built bridge that joins the road to Bourges.

Clamecy, at the confluence of the Beuvron and the Yonne, is the metropolis of a district,^b and the place where the authorities regulate the cuttings in the forests of Morvan.^c It carries on a considerable trade, and possesses several cloth manufactories and porcelain works;^d thus, although the town is small, the inhabitants are comparatively wealthy. The suburb of Bethlehem has derived its name from its having served as an asylum to the bishop of Bethlehem, after the expulsion of the Christians from Palestine. It was the native town of Marchangy, a magistrate and a man of letters. Corbigny on the small river Anguison, which throws itself into the Yonne, has been long famous for its horses.^e

The district^f of Chateau-Chinon owes its wealth to its forests and meadows. The capital of the same name, a small town situated at no great distance from the sources of the Yonne, stands on a hill commanded by well wooded heights. The inhabitants carry on a trade in wood, charcoal and cattle, a trade which the supply of Paris renders very lucrative. A bad road leads from the town to Nevers, the birthplace of Adam Billaut, a carpenter, whose poetry bears the stamp of genius; he is known in France by the name of the rustic Virgil.^g The town was called *Noviodunum* in the time of Cæsar, who places it in the country of the *Ædui*,^h but its name was afterwards changed into *Novirum*, and lastly into *Nevirum*. It did not become a place of any importance before the reign of Clovis. About the tenth century, William, one of its governors, rendered himself independent, and took the title of count of Nevers. It contained only seven thousand inhabitants about forty years ago, but since that period the population has been more than doubled; the increase must be attributed to the effects of commerce and industry, both of which might be still much

^a "The road from Cosne crosses an extensive plateau, from which the Loire and the islands it encircles, are continually in view; a finer landscape presents itself on reaching the descent that leads to Pouilly, the environs of which are covered with vineyards that yield the excellent white wines that bear its name."

^b "Subprefecture"—arrondissement.

^c "Where are held the public sales of wood, for the forests of Morvan (*le point de reunion des adjudicataires des coupes de bois du Morvan*.)" *Adjudicataire*, the buyer at a public sale. *Coupe de bois*, standing wood, the cutting of which has been determined by the proper authorities—a term in the French forest laws. *Encyc. Meth. Jurisprud.*—P.

^d "It manufactures delft-ware and cloth."

^e "At Corbigny—there is a royal stud for stallions (*dépôt d'étalons*)." *Encyc. Meth.*

^f "Arrondissement."

^g "—Adam Billaut, a poet and a joiner (*menuisier*.) called by his contemporaries, the Virgil of the plane (*Virgile ou rabot*.)" Better known by the name of *Maitre Adam*—died at Nevers 1662. He published most of his poems in three collections, which he named from the tools of his trade, viz. *Chevilles* (pegs,) *Vilbrequin* (gimblet,) and *Rabot* (plane).—P.

^h Cæsar. de Bello Gallico, Lib. VII.

ⁱ Forces productives et commerciales de la France, tome i. page 296.

^k "Its porcelain (*porcelaine*) and enamel are celebrated. It manufactures with small glass pearls, different articles of jewellery,* in which an extensive trade is carried on both in France and in foreign countries. Its pottery (*faïences*, delft) is considered the best in France, and the manufacture, as M. Dupin remarks, has been in a flourishing condition for eight centuries. There are not less than ten establishments, engaged in this manufacture; they furnish employment to 700

workmen, and consume annually 32,000 kilogrammes of tin, and 135,000 of lead."^l
 * The boasted manufactory of enamel is nothing more than the blowing of glass toys with the blow pipe. *Ed. Encyc.*—P.
 † *Faïence* (delft ware,) a kind of varnished or enamelled pottery, originally made at Faenza in Italy, and since at Delft in Holland, the last in imitation of the Chinese porcelain; whence its French and English names. There may be manufactories of genuine porcelain at Nevers, but they must be of recent establishment, for in the authorities I have consulted, (Peuchet 1805, Vosgien 1813, and the older ones, *Encyc. Meth.* 1784 and Savary 1741,) only *faïence* is mentioned.—The manufacture of delft in Nevers is the oldest in the kingdom. It was originally brought from Italy by the dukes of Nevers, who were natives of that country. *Encyc. Meth.*—The original manufacture certainly was not porcelain, for the first European porcelain was made in Saxony, where the process of making it was first discovered by Bœticher, in the early part of the last century.—P.

improved. Nevers has been long celebrated for enamel and different articles of jewellery; they are sold in most parts of France, and exported into different countries. The porcelain works in the same place are supposed to be the best in France; the most ancient of these works, as M. Dupin remarks,ⁱ was established eight centuries ago; they furnish employment to seven hundred workmen; the quantity of tin consumed annually, amounts to 72,000 pounds, and the quantity of lead to 337,500.^k It is sufficient to pass through the town to be convinced of the truth of an observation made by a distinguished writer.^l "At Nevers," says he, "there are lamps which are never lighted, a bridge over the Loire, which is never repaired,^m and an enormous calvary raised in the worst taste in the market place." The people in the town have given or allowed the magistrates to take L.1500ⁿ for the purpose of erecting this calvary; it might have been better had they laid out the money in purchasing oil, and in lighting their crooked and ill paved streets.^o

The Allier, the *Elaver* of the ancients, throws itself into the Loire at the distance of a league to the west of Nevers; it crosses from south to north, the department to which it gives its name,^p and which is contiguous on the south to that of the Nièvre. It makes up almost the whole of Bourbonnais, a country well known on account of its mineral springs, coal-pits and iron mines. Many oxen are fattened in the pastures, and the horses are remarkable for their strength. The oaks are used in building ships, and the rivers and ponds supply Paris with excellent fresh water fish. The inhabitants are employed in different branches of industry; iron is converted into steel, raw silk into different manufactures, rocks into mill-stones, and clay into porcelain.^q But agriculture has long remained stationary; it may be regretted that the system of husbandry has not been improved, that the rich lands in the vallies, and the sandy but fruitful soil which covers the granite rocks, yield so scanty harvests.^r

Moulins was founded in the fourteenth century; it derives its name from the great number of mills (*moulins*) round the place where it was built. Robert, the son of St. Louis, founded there an hospital, and the princes of the house of Bourbon, long lords of the province in which it

workmen, and consume annually 32,000 kilogrammes of tin, and 135,000 of lead."

^l M. Ad. Blanqui, Relation d'un voyage au midi de la France pendant les mois d'Août et de Septembre 1828.
^m "—which is not repaired."—One half of the stone bridge over the Loire was carried away many years ago, and is replaced by one of wood. The part of the stone bridge remaining consists of six arches, and the wooden half of ten arches. *Ed. Encyc.*—P.
ⁿ "—in the public square (*place*)." *Encyc. Meth.*
^o "30,000 francs."
^p Department of the Allier.
^q "Its steel is converted into cutlery, its silk into ribbons, its sandstone into millstones, and its clay into pottery (delft)."
^r "Stationary in its agriculture, it does not derive all the advantage it might, from the fertile soil of its vallies, and the sandy soil which covers its granite rocks; still its produce in grain and wine is more than sufficient for the wants of its inhabitants."

was the capital, at different periods embellished it. The streets are well paved; although the houses are built of brick, and the outer walls fantastically divided into red and black compartments, they are better than many in other provincial towns. Several of its finest edifices are built of stone; among others that may be mentioned, is the former convent of the Visitation,^a now changed into a college;^b the church attached to it is adorned with different ornaments, particularly with the fine mausoleum of the last constable Montmorency, who was beheaded at Toulouse during the administration of Richelieu. The townhouse, another stone building, has been lately erected in the principal square.^c The town is the seat of a bishopric; it possesses a museum, a collection of natural history, a library of twenty thousand volumes and a theatre. It was the native town of John Lingendes, a poet of the seventeenth century; his verses are seldom read, but they evince no ordinary talent;^d it was also the birthplace of Marshals Villars and Berwick. A four-sided tower, now changed into a prison, is all that remains of the ancient castle which the princes of Bourbon inhabited. The bridge over the Allier is little inferior to any in France; it is about 257 yards in length, and nineteen in breadth;^e it consists of ten arches, and the opening in each exceeds twenty yards.^f

Two excellent roads bordered by lofty poplar trees terminate at the bridge; the one on the left leads to Clermont, and that on the right to Limoges. The latter first traverses Souvigny, a town of 2700 inhabitants, where the Gothic church served formerly as a place of interment to the princes of the house of Bourbon. The town is situated at no great distance from the capital of the department, and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in soda and glass.^g Bourbon l'Archambault in a fruitful valley about three leagues from Souvigny, is visited during the summer and autumn^h by invalids, particularly by those afflicted with rheumatism and palsy; it is supposed that the thermal springs may mitigate, if they do not remove these diseases. The church is adorned with finely painted windows, but the clumsy and ill built houses appear as old as the town, which was founded about five hundred years ago. The castle that belonged to the princes of Bourbon is no longer habitable, although three of the towers are in a good state of preservation.ⁱ The population amounts to three thousand individuals. The poor but laborious inhabitants in the burgh of Lurey-Levy find the means of subsistence in making porcelain and earthen ware; some of them are employed in the coal mines in the vicinity.^k

La Palisse,¹ a small town in the eastern part of the department, is the capital of a subprefecture; it is watered by the Besbre, and commanded by the ruins of an ancient castle. Cusset, on the banks of the Allier, has from its walls and

ancient fortifications, the appearance of a strong town; it contains about four thousand inhabitants. Many persons resort every summer to Vichy, a fashionable watering place at no great distance from Cusset; it is situated in a romantic country, where the painter, the botanist and the geologist may find subjects of study in their respective pursuits.

Gannat might be passed over in silence, if it were not the residence of a subprefect. St. Pourçain, in an agreeable valley, is famous for its cattle fair, held during the last days of August. Crowds of well-dressed peasantry repair to the market place, while the idle are attracted by strolling players or mountebanks; tables and tents are set in the plain, where the excellent white wines of Lachaise form the ordinary beverage; in one place the noise of music and dancing is heard; in another the galloping of horses, which those who mean to purchase, try beforehand; the oxen are prized for their strength, not for their fatness; indeed they are never bought by the butcher; the peasantry use them in the plough. The singular costume of the men, the fresh and fair complexion of the women, the cries of different animals, and the confused voices of the multitude, bear no resemblance to the village festivals in the neighbourhood of Paris.^m

Mont-Luçon, the capital of a district,ⁿ is surrounded by walls flanked with towers. In its vicinity^o is situated the burgh of Neris les Bains, the name of which has not been changed^p since the time that Julian rebuilt it after it had been sacked under Constantine the Second. It is at present peopled, as in the time of the Romans, by invalids subject to rheumatism and cutaneous diseases. Several remains of antiquity, such as an amphitheatre, and the traces of a Roman camp (*castrum*), prove that Neris must have been a considerable town, before it was laid waste by Clovis, and at a later period by the Normans. Although there are no public baths, each inn is provided with a large apartment for eight or ten bathers. *Piscinae*,^q similar to those that existed in ancient times, are reserved for the use of the hospital, into which more than a hundred and thirty patients are gratuitously admitted.

Unproductive in corn, and destitute of wine, for which other fermented liquors afford but a poor substitute, the department watered by the Creuse,^r must be considered a sterile country; it is certain too that a tenth part of the labouring population migrate every year into other parts of France, but they seldom fail to settle afterwards in their native land, where they improve by judicious investments the fruits of their economy and industry. The soil may be arid and mountainous, but the love of country makes it appear less ungrateful than it really is; on that account numbers return to their hills and vallies, and cultivate joyfully the field which their labour has enabled them to purchase. The working of metals is not attended with profit in the

^a Convent of St. Mary, for nuns of the Visitation.

^b The royal college of Moulins.

^c "—in one of the squares."

^d "—whose verses are less known than they deserve to be."—Jean de Lingendes, born 1580, died 1616—remarkable for the period in which he lived, for sweetness of versification and delicacy of sentiment.—P.

^e "239 metres in length; 14 in breadth."

^f "Span of the arches, 20 metres."

^g "It manufactures soda, and has two works for making glass bottles."

^h "From the middle of May to the end of September."

ⁱ "The houses are inelegant, and appear to have been built at least five hundred years ago, at the same time with the castle that belonged to the princes of Bourbon, of which there remains only three towers, still in a good state of preservation."

^k "—find employment in a manufactory of white porcelain, in twelve manufactories of common pottery, and in the coal mines in the vicinity."

¹ La Palice.

^m "The crowds of peasants that flock to the market place, the idlers attracted by the shows of mountebanks, the tents erected in the plain, the tables loaded with the excellent white wines of Lachaise, here noisy dances, there the trial of horses and oxen, the latter only in the plough, the large hats of the peasants, the fresh complexions and cheerful looks of the village girls with straw hats turned up in the figure of a boat, suspended from their arms, the cries of different animals, and the confused voices of the multitude, altogether present a spectacle that bears no resemblance to the village festivals near Paris."

ⁿ Arrondissement.

^o Neris les Bains is one league S. E. of Montluçon.—f.

^p *Agua Nera* of the ancients.

^q "Piscines"—basins or tanks for bathing. The basin where they (the Romans) bathed was called *Baptisterium*, *Natatio*, or *Piscina Adam's Antiq.* p. 480.—P.

^r Department of the Creuse.

department, but from the low rate of wages, it is well adapted for other branches of industry; the art of making carpets has been brought to great perfection; the same may be said of paper and different manufactures.^a

The four principal towns^b are of little importance, and the country is of such a character as to present few objects for description. Aubusson, watered by the Creuse, and situated in an arid and unfruitful district, rises in a defile formed by naked granite rocks; it consists merely of a single street, which, it must be admitted, is broad and well built. Louis the Fourteenth gave it in exchange for St. Cyr to the Marshal de Lafeuillade, the last descendant^c of its ancient viscounts. The carpets made in the royal manufactory are equal to any in France;^d fifteen other manufactories of the same kind diffuse the means of subsistence among the inhabitants. The places of amusement are three coffee-houses, a theatre and a literary club. Felletin, a small place of three thousand inhabitants, not more than two leagues from Aubusson, rivals it in the same sort of industry. Bourgneuf may be mentioned on account of two porcelain works and a paper manufactory; it is remarkable too for a tower of very large dimensions, which according to tradition was built by Zizim, the son of Mahomet the Second,^e who found refuge in France during the reign of Charles the Eighth. Gueret is the capital of the department; the streets are well built and watered by fountains; it is a place of little or no trade; although fuel is very cheap in the neighbourhood, no manufactory or work of any kind has been erected near the town. Boussac contains fewer inhabitants than the capital of any other district^f in France; it stands on a rock and is almost inaccessible to carriages; surrounded with walls, flanked with towers, and commanded by an old embattled castle from which the view extends along a defile formed by arid and wild mountains, the town is as gloomy a residence as can be well imagined.

There are few departments so well wooded as that which derives its name from the Cher;^g it has the advantage too of abounding in iron and other minerals.^h The uniformity of the country is in some places broken by hills; the lands on the east near the banks of the Loire, which forms the eastern boundary, produce the richest harvests; on the south and the south-west are situated a great many ponds, and the soil is of an ordinary quality; on the north and the north-west are numerous marshes encompassed with sterile landes and heaths; a fruitful country in the centre extends along the banks of the Auron and Cher. On the whole, an ungrateful soil in many places, but in others sufficiently productive,ⁱ covers two-

^a "The manufacturing industry does not consist in the working of metals, as in the neighbouring departments, but the low price of labour has made it the seat of important manufactories of carpets* and paper, both of which are in high reputation, and of different establishments for spinning wool and cotton."

* "Tapisseries"—carpets, hangings, &c. The department was formerly noted for its raised tapestry-hangings, called Aubusson tapestry (*tapisseries d'Aubusson*); but the manufacture is now almost entirely confined to carpets and furniture tapestry Peuchet, p. 168.—P.

^b Aubusson, Bourgneuf, Gueret and Boussac, capitals of subprefectures or arrondissements.—P.

^c "Only descendant."—Louis XIV ceded Aubusson in exchange for St. Cyr to the Marshal La Feuillade, who assisted in forming the *Place des Victoires* in Paris. This marshal was Francis, viscount d'Aubusson and duke de La Feuillade, who had three sons, the second of whom succeeded him in his titles. The latter was born in 1670. Louis XIV founded a nunnery at St. Cyr, for the education of the daughters of military officers, the buildings of which were completed in 1686. Encyc. Method. Moreri.—P.

^d "—have been long celebrated in France." See note ^a. *

^e Brother of Bajazet II. by whom he was forced to take refuge in Italy, where he died, it is said, of poison. Beauvais.—P.

thirds of the surface; the remaining portion is abundantly fruitful. The inhabitants derive their wealth or means of subsistence from the products of their iron works, from their wool and from the culture of the ground, but bigoted to old prejudices and to routine, they do not derive all the profits which might be obtained from a better system of husbandry.

St. Amand, one of the most commercial towns in the department, rises in an agreeable valley at the confluence of the Marmande and the Cher. It is the mart of the grain, wine, chestnuts, timber and cattle in the surrounding district;^k most of the inhabitants are consequently engaged in trade. It was built in the year 1410 on the ruins of the burgh of Orval, which the English had destroyed by fire. Dun le Roi,^l on the right bank of the Auron, was in ancient times one of the most celebrated cities in Aquitaine. The prosperity of Sancerre depends on its trade in wine;^m it is built on the highest hill in the department, at the distance of a league from the left bank of the Loire. Ivoy le Pre is a populous and flourishing burgh; the inhabitants find occupation in making glass; others are employed in iron works, where the different pieces that form the parts of the steam engine, are forged.ⁿ

The interest excited by an industrious population, and that attached to historical recollections, are not often united in the same place; other manufacturing towns,^o therefore, such as Aubigny, Henrichemont and Precy, may be passed over in silence, for several places in the neighbouring district^p of Bourges, possess the double interest which has just been mentioned. Bourges, it may be remarked, is situated in an agreeable position on the declivity of a hill, watered by the Auron, at the very place where the river receives several other streams. It is surrounded with a thick wall flanked at regular distances with eighty lofty towers, all of which are in a good state of preservation. Divided into the old and the new town, it might be inferred from their superficial extent, that they could contain a greater population than that which has been assigned to them, but they exhibit nothing which renders it at all doubtful that Bourges is one of the dirtiest towns in France.^q It is the seat of a royal court, an archbishopric, an university,^r a royal college, and a scientific and agricultural society;^s it possesses besides a valuable library, a collection of natural history,^t a theatre and a large hospital,^u all of which are situated in the midst of low houses and narrow streets. Two edifices only are worthy of fixing the attention; the one is the cathedral, and the other the town-house. The first may be ranked among the finest Gothic monuments in Europe; it is surmounted

^f Arrondissement.

^g Department of the Cher.

^h "It has numerous forges and iron works."—It contains mines of iron and ochre, and abounds in wood which supplies fuel for its numerous iron works. Peuchet, p. 169.—P.

ⁱ "A soil not very fruitful, and yet tolerably productive—(*des terres ingrates et pourtant assez productives*)."

^k Arrondissement of St. Amand.

^l Dun sur Auron.

^m "Sancerre carries on a large trade in wine."

ⁿ "The small town (*bourg*) of Ivoy le Pre is very flourishing, owing to an establishment for the manufacture of window glass and bottles, and to another for casting the iron work of steam engines."

^o In the arrondissement of Sancerre. M. B.

^p Arrondissement.

^q "Its two quarters united occupy a space capable of containing a greater population than has been assigned to it; but in its general appearance (*dans son ensemble*), it is obviously one of the dirtiest towns in France."

^r "Académie universitaire"—academy of Bourges.

^s "A scientific or rather agricultural society."

^t "Physical cabinet (*cabinet de physique*)."

^u "—and several charitable establishments."

by two high towers; the front cannot be considered free from the irregularity, which disfigures almost all the churches of the same period, but it is remarkable for the delicacy and finished workmanship of the ornaments; one of the sculptures on the portal represents the last judgment. The town-house was the residence of the celebrated James Cœur, one of the wealthiest merchants in France during the reign of Charles the Seventh; he managed the king's finances, and was treated as a court favourite, until he granted a loan of 200,000 gold crowns to his sovereign. As a recompense for this service he was accused of several imaginary crimes, deprived of his wealth, and confined in the Franciscan monastery at Beaucaire; many however sympathized with him in his sufferings; indeed he was so much esteemed that the merchants of Beaucaire enabled him to escape from confinement,^a and furnished him with money, as a means of settling in a foreign land, where he might forget the country which he had loved, and the base ingratitude of a prince, whom he had had the misfortune to oblige. The house was purchased by Colbert, who made it over in 1679 to the mayor and aldermen of Bourges. Every part of the building is richly decorated; the walls are covered with a profusion of ornaments, among which, hearts are not the least conspicuous, probably because the original proprietor's name was Cœur. The chimneys represent towers and the gates of cities guarded by soldiers.^b A bad portrait of Bourdaloue, painted by himself, has been placed in the interior. The same celebrated jesuit, the fathers Deschamps,^c Souciet and D'Orleans, the treasurer of Charles the Seventh,^d and Louis the Eleventh,^e who founded the university of Bourges in 1466, are the most distinguished persons that the town has produced.

According to Livy, Bourges must be one of the oldest cities in Gaul; at the time of the Roman conquest, it was called *Avaricum*, and was the principal city of the *Bituriges Cubi*; the Romans gave it the name of *Bituriges*; Augustus made it the capital of Aquitania, and the roads to Bordeaux and Autun passed through the town. It was embellished with an amphitheatre, for which a castle was substituted in the eighth century; it is not more than forty years ago since the same castle was destroyed.^f The capitol built by the Romans stood on the site of the town-house.^g It became at a very early period the chief town in a diocese which was founded by St. Ursin in the year 252. Chilperic having taken possession of it, plundered the inhabitants, and burnt the houses, but they were rebuilt and improved under Charlemagne and Philip Augustus. The public walks of Villeneuve,^h so called from the name of the prefect, by whose directions they were made, are very ornamental to the town.

Mehunⁱ is situated below Bourges, at the place where the Auron joins the Yevre, and forms a large basin^k well adapted

for the purposes of commerce; the inhabitants carry on a trade in hemp, wool, timber, and the products of their manufactories.^l The site and some vestiges of the castle may still be seen where Charles the Seventh, fearing that his son Louis the Eleventh intended to poison him, starved himself to death in the year 1461. The population of the town does not exceed three thousand individuals. Vierzon stands at the confluence of the Yevre and the Cher, the last of which waters the most fruitful and agreeable district in the department; although it contains only four thousand five hundred inhabitants, it has cloth and serge manufactories, others of porcelain and earthen ware, iron works, paper mills and tan-pits.^m

Woods and forests occupy more than a seventh part of the surface in the department of the Indre: the country on the right bank of the riverⁿ is covered with ponds and marshes, which diffuse dangerous and pestilential vapours in the atmosphere; but it is chiefly in the territory of Brenne, between the Indre and the road to Limoges, that these large sheets of shallow water occasion in the summer season noxious exhalations, of which the effects are often fatal to man and the lower animals. Government has not hitherto attempted to drain these marshes, a work which might be accomplished without much difficulty; and if the health of the inhabitants is not a matter of concern to the state, the hope of profit may perhaps excite it to undertake the task, for more than thirty thousand acres^o of land might thus be restored to agriculture. The lands in the other parts of the department are chiefly sandy; they yield more grain than the inhabitants consume; the wines are of an ordinary quality, but the excess of the vintage above the consumption is equal to at least one half. Sheep and oxen are reared in great numbers in the rural districts.^p

Issoudun, as the chief town of a district,^q cannot be passed over in silence; it was destroyed by fires in the years 1135, 1504 and 1651; it possesses at present four cloth and three linen manufactories, one porcelain and seven leather works.^r

Some antiquaries affirm that the name of Levroux has been derived from the great number of lepers, who, it is supposed, inhabited the town about the twelfth century; but according to others the place was so called from an hospital for lepers, which was built there about the same period; it is certain that the town bears the name of *Leprosium* in some old charters, and it is not improbable that the same circumstance may have attracted the attention of antiquaries to a subject of little or no importance; it would have been a more interesting object of inquiry to have ascertained what was the name of Levroux in the time of the Romans. The present population does not amount to more than three thousand inhabitants, but the ruins of an amphitheatre, and other remains of antiquity prove that it must have been an

^a Jacques Cœur is said to have effected his escape by the aid of Jean de Village, one of his factors.—P.

^b "The building is constructed in a style of great magnificence; even the chimneys are of the richest architecture; they represent towers and the gates of cities guarded by warriors; shells and hearts are sculptured on the walls of the edifice."

^c Et. Agard Des Champs.

^d Jacques Cœur, born near the end of the 14th cent., son of a goldsmith at Bourges.—P.

^e Louis XI. was born at Bourges, 1423.—P.

^f "—destroyed more than forty years ago." The Great Tower, which commands the easiest approach to the town, is a castle partly in ruins since 1651. Moreti.—P.

^g "The house of Jacques Cœur."

^h "The public walks (*promenades*) which surround it, called the *Boulevards Villeneuve*—"

ⁱ Mehun- or Meun-sur-Yevre.

^k "Below Bourges, at the place where the Auron joins the Yevre, the latter river washes the town of Mehun, and forms between its bridges a large basin—" Mehun is situated on the Yevre (Evre.) Vosgien. Encyc. Meth.—P.

^l "—manufactories of different stuffs."

^m "—it has manufactories of porcelain, delft (*faïence*), cloths and serges, besides tanneries, paper mills, and iron works (*forges*.)"

ⁿ The Indre.

^o "10,000 hectares."

^p "Sheep, as well as geese and turkeys, are sources of great profit."—The fine wool of Berry (*laines du Berry*) is procured from the departments of the Indre and the Cher. Peuchet. p. 169.—P.

^q "Arrondissement."

^r "4 manufactories of cloth, 3 of linen, 1 of delft (*faïence*) and 7 tanneries."

important city under the Cæsars.^a It is surrounded by walls flanked with towers, and encompassed with ditches. A road that passes through vineyards and woods leads to Valençay,^b in which the castle built by the house of Etampes^c and since embellished by Talleyrand, served as a residence to king Ferdinand the Seventh of Spain from the year 1808 to 1814. The number of inhabitants is nearly equal to three thousand;^d many of them are employed in manufacturing cloth.^e The most extensive iron works in the department, are those in the neighbouring village of Luçay le Mâle.^f The chief town in the district^g of Buzançois contains four thousand inhabitants; the trade of the place consists in wool, iron and flour.^h

The town of Chateauroux in the districtⁱ of the same name is situated on the left of the Indre, which flows through the middle of a low plain covered with rich meadows. It derives its name from Raoul de Deols, by whom it was founded in the tenth century. A castle which he erected on a neighbouring hill, is now occupied as the prefect's residence.^k Cloth is the principal article of trade, and there are not fewer than thirty-five manufactories. The Creuse waters Argenton, a small town of four thousand inhabitants, at the distance of six leagues to the south-west of Chateauroux. It may be inferred from several medals and sculptures that have been discovered at different times, and also from the ancient fortress which was demolished by Louis the Fourteenth, but of which some ruins still remain, that the town was more important in the time of the Romans. It was then called *Argentomagus*, and it lay between the territories of the *Bituriges* and the *Pictavi*.

Two districts^l remain to be described. La Chatre, the capital of the one, is a small but neat town on a gentle declivity near the left bank of the Indre; it was formerly defended by a strong castle, but the only part of it which now remains, has been for many years used as a prison.^m Aigurande, an insignificant town near the southern extremity of the department, may be mentioned on account of an ancient octagonal monument, concerning which no tradition has been preserved by the inhabitants, but which was probably set apart for sacrifices or other religious purposes. The Creuse divides Leblanc,ⁿ the capital of the other district,ⁱ into the upper and the lower town. St. Benoit du Sault,^o between the last river and the Anglin, is considered a town by the inhabitants, although it does not contain more than twelve hundred individuals; it is situated in the most picturesque part of the department; indeed nothing can be more romantic than the scenery near the rocks and the cascade of Montgermo.

^a A plate of copper bearing the following inscription, was discovered there at the commencement of the seventeenth century; *Flavia Cuba, Firmiani filia, Colozza Deo Marti suo, hoc signum fecit Augusto.*

^b Valençay.

^c The Estampes of Valençay were a younger branch of the family, the first of whom, Louis d'Estampes, was lord (*seigneur*) of Valençay, the fourth, James d'Estampes, marquis, and the seventh, Henry d'Estampes, who continued the line after the death of his nephews without issue in 1700, count of Valençay.—P.

^d "Population 2700."

^e "It possesses a cloth manufactory (*une fabrique des draps*)."

^f "The village of Luçay le Mâle" contains the finest iron works (*forges*) in its neighbourhood."

^g Two leagues S. W. of Valençay.—P.

^h "Canton"—subdivision of an *arrondissement*, under the jurisdiction of a justice of the peace (*judge de paix*).—P.

ⁱ "Buzançois contains 4000 inhabitants, and carries on an extensive trade in wool; in the district attached to it, are some important iron works, and a great number of flour mills." ^j "Arrondissement."

^k The castle—was erected by one Raoul (*Radulphus*), whence the town took the name of Chateau-Raoul (*Castrum Radulphium*, *Radulph's castle*), since corrupted into Chateau-Roux. Moreri.—P.

The department of the Upper Vienne, a mountainous country, abounds in metals, in rocks useful for building or other purposes, and in kaolin which is used in many porcelain works; but the land is ill adapted for grain or the culture of the vine, and the produce does not supply the consumption of the inhabitants; chestnut trees, however, occupy a surface of more than 120,000 acres,^p and yield annually about 25,000 tons^q of chestnuts, which make up for the deficiency in grain; fruitful meadows also enable the proprietors to rear many horses, most of which are much valued on account of their strength.^r The people are frugal and laborious; many masons, carpenters and other artisans annually leave the country, and obtain employment in most parts of France. Such are some of the characters by which the department of the Upper Vienne may be distinguished.

The district^s of Bellac may be first described, because it is contiguous on the north to the department of the Indre. The town stands on the declivity of a steep hill above the Vinçon, a small river or rather a rivulet; it possesses several leather works, some paper mills, linen and woollen manufactories.^t The vineyards in the neighbourhood yield wines of a good quality. A fine monument of the druidical worship may be observed at no great distance from Bellac, near the village of La Borderie. Dorat is a small town of three thousand inhabitants; the people manufacture cloth and cotton stuffs; they also carry on a trade in weights, measures and barometers.^u The village of Darnac contains more than two thousand inhabitants; it has risen into importance from its glass and porcelain works.^v It may not be difficult to infer from this account of the principal places, some notion of the commerce and industry in the district.^w

A short distance above Limoges, the capital of the department, the Vienne waters an agreeable valley covered with artificial meadows and bordered by low hills. The town rises like an amphitheatre on one of the sides of the same valley, and the streets are consequently steep and crooked; if they are clean, it may be attributed to the streams that water the town; its situation on a height renders the air keen and pure, the chief cause perhaps of the health of the inhabitants, and of the beauty for which the women are famed. Several different squares and public walks are situated in the highest part of the town; one of the former^y occupies the site of a Roman amphitheatre. The church of St. Martial may be admired for its lofty spires; it belonged formerly to an abbey of which the ruins still remain; the cathedral is an imposing Gothic edifice, but the church of St. Martin is perhaps the finest and certainly the oldest

¹ "Arrondissements."

^m "The only tower that remains is now used as a prison."

ⁿ Le Blanc, Le Blanc en Berry.

^o *St. Benoit du Sault* (St. Benedict of the falls.)

^p "40,000 hectares"—98,850 acres.—P

^q "Nearly 500,000 metrical quintals."

^r "Many fine horses are bred in its fruitful pastures."—The best saddle horses in France are those of Limousin.* They are seldom fit for riding till they are six or seven years old; but then they are very useful and last a long time. Ed. Eneye.

* Included in the departments of the Creuse, the Correze and the Upper Vienne.—P.

^s "Arrondissement."

^t "It possesses several tanneries, a foundery, and some manufactories of paper, and of linen and woollen stuffs."

^u "They manufacture cloths, cottons (*cotonnades*), weights and measures, and barometers."

^v "Darnac, a village of 2000 inhabitants, contains an important establishment for the manufacture of glass bottles, and another for that of pottery."

^w The *Place d'Orsay*.

of the three. It might be difficult to discover a fourth public building at all worthy of notice.^a Limoges possesses, however, other titles to celebrity; it may be sufficient to mention the academy,^b the royal college, the museum of antiquities and natural history, the public library, the royal nursery, the gratuitous schools of drawing and of geometry in its application to the arts, the anatomical school, the dispensary, the lunatic asylum, the society of agriculture and the sciences, and what is not perhaps the least useful, the society for the relief of prisoners. At certain seasons, the town is crowded with strangers and country people who attend the races, in which the only horses that are allowed to run, are those bred in the department and nine others in the neighbourhood;^c much about the same time, a cattle show takes place, and prizes are awarded to those who exhibit the best oxen.^d The number of woollen manufactories amounts to thirty-two, and there are not fewer than eleven porcelain works. The distinguished men that the town has produced, are the carmelite Honoré de Sainte Marie,^e the author of three quarto volumes on different military orders, Dorat the poet,^f the chancellor D'Aguesseau, and Marshal Jourdan.

Ratiatum, a town which Ptolemy mentions, appears to have been built on the site of Limoges;^g the Romans gave it the name of *Lemovices*, by which they also designated the ancestors of the present Limousins. It must have been a flourishing city in Cæsar's time, for he says that the territory furnished ten thousand men to the confederation of the Gauls.^h It was laid waste in the fifth century by the Visigoths; the English obtained possession of it in 1360 by virtue of the treaty of Bretigny, but it was restored nine years afterwards to the kings of France. St. Leonard, the second town in point of importance in the district,ⁱ is about seven leagues above Limoges, on the Vienne; it is encompassed with agreeable walks, and contains several manufactories, and at least six thousand inhabitants.

Rochechouard^k lies to the west of Limoges, near the frontier of the department; it is built on the declivity of a hill, and commanded by an old castle, which the English besieged in vain during the reign of Charles the Fifth. The present name of the town is derived from *Rupes Cavardi*, the ancient name of the castle.^l Twelve burghs are situated in the district of which Rochechouard is the capital; the country abounds in iron ore; several iron works and manu-

factories account for the industry and comparative wealth of the inhabitants.^m St. Junien, a small city, but more populous than the last, is encompassed with ramparts;ⁿ it rises like an amphitheatre on a hill at the confluence of the Vienne and the Glanne; it has twelve cloth and two flannel manufactories, five paper mills and two porcelain works.^o It carries on a considerable trade in horses and mules. The district^p of St. Yriex,^q not less industrious than that of Rochechouard, abounds in kaolin, of which the discovery made in 1770 by Villars, a druggist at Bordeaux, has greatly increased the number of porcelain works in France; almost all of them are supplied with that substance, as well as with petuntse, from the district^r of St. Yriex. The town, although wealthy, is ill built; it owes its origin to a monastery founded in the sixth century in honour of the saint whose name it bears.

The Correze has its source, and also its termination in the Vezere, in a mountainous department,^s ill provided with good roads or navigable rivers. The inhabitants fatten several thousand oxen in winter, and send them to Paris in the spring of the year; they supply besides the maritime towns of Bayonne and Bordeaux with salt meat,^t and furnish walnut oil to different departments. These products indicate at least the abundance of walnut trees and the richness of the pastures. The country may be divided into two distinct regions, the one on the south-west, and the other on the north-east of the road to Limoges.^u If a traveller ascend the Correze, he may observe on the right of the same road, mountainous and sterile districts which occupy nearly two thirds of the department, and which the peasantry call the *Montagne*; the second or the *low country*, as it has been termed, consists of cultivated lands and fruitful vineyards, but it does not produce enough of grain to supply the consumption.^v In the former, the scenery is wild and romantic, and the inhabitants are thinly scattered; in the latter the population is more concentrated, almost all the ground is cultivated, and mills^w are erected on the different streams.

The road from Limoges traverses the small but neat town of Uzerche, which does not contain more than two thousand inhabitants; it stands on the declivity of a hill above the Vezere; all the houses are covered with slates; the most of them are flanked with turrets,^y which gives the town a singular appearance, and attests its antiquity. Be-

^a "Besides the church of St. Martial, remarkable for its lofty steeple, and which belonged to an abbey formerly venerated in the country, the cathedral, an imposing Gothic edifice, and the church of St. Martin, the oldest of the three, Limoges possesses no other edifice of any importance."

^b "Académie universitaire"—academy of Limoges.

^c The departments of the Allier, the Cher, the Creuse, the Correze, the Indre, the Indre and Loire, the Nièvre, the Saone and Loire, and the Vienne.

^d "Races are held every year, in which the horses of the department and of nine neighbouring departments, are competitors; premiums are also annually distributed for improving the breed of oxen."

^e Honoré de Ste. Marie, a barefooted carmelite, born 1651. His work on military orders (*Dissertations histor. et crit. des Ordres Militaires, ou sur la Chevallerie*) was published in 1 vol. 4to.; he however published a work on ecclesiastical criticism (*Réflexions sur les règles et sur l'usage de la Critique, touchant l'Histoire de l'Eglise, les Ouvrages des Pères, &c.*) in 3 vols. 4to. Beauvais. Dict. Histor. Caen, 1804.—The error in the text has probably arisen from falsely quoting the Encyc. Method. art. Limoges. "Honoré de Ste. Marie—known by his historical dissertations on military orders, and by his reflections on the rules and uses of criticism, in three volumes 4to."—P.

^f John Dorat, died 1588, celebrated in his day as a Greek, Latin and French poet. There have been other poets of the same name in France. Claude Joseph Dorat, born in Paris 1734, enjoyed at one time no little reputation.—P.

^g Limoges was originally called *Augustoritum*, and afterwards *Lemovices*, from the name of the people that inhabited it. *Ratiatum* was

a town of the *Pictavi*, the name of which remains in that of the country of Retz. D'Anv. Encyc. Method. Géog. Anc. art. *Gullia*.—P.

^h Cæsar. de Bello Gallico, Lib. VII. VIII.

ⁱ Arrondissement.

^k Rochechouart.

^l Rochechouart was called *Rupes Cavardi*, in the Latin of the middle ages. Encyc. Meth.—P.

^m "The arrondissement of Rochechouart, contains more than twelve communes, in which there are several important iron works (*usines et forges*.)"

ⁿ "Boulevards."

^o "It has 12 cloth and 3 hat manufactories, 5 paper mills, and also manufactories of blankets (*couvertures*), porcelain and common pottery."

^p "Arrondissement."

^q St. Yriex.

^r Department of the Correze.

^s "Salt pork."

^t "Divided on a line drawn from south-east to north-west, by the road to Limoges."

^u "The district on the right, in ascending the Correze,* is the most mountainous, and occupies nearly two thirds of the department; the people of the country call it the Mountain (*Montagne*); sterile heaths cover the greater part of the surface. The second, called the Low Country (*pays bas*), consists of cultivated fields and fruitful vineyards, but without the aid of the chestnut tree, would not furnish sufficient food to supply the consumption of its inhabitants."

* The north-eastern district.

^v "usines"—iron works. The iron manufacture is the most important in the department. Peuchet, p. 130.—P.

^w "Almost all the houses are flanked with turrets and covered with slates—"

yond Uzerche, the same road passes through a picturesque country, intersected with the ravines and precipices that are formed by the last heights in the mountainous region. The cathedral of Tulle was built in the ninth century; it is chiefly remarkable for the height of its tower, which can, however, be seen from the road only at the distance of three miles.^a The town owes its origin to a monastery, that dates from the seventh century, and to the destruction of another and more ancient city, of which all that now remains, are the ruins of an amphitheatre and other buildings about half a mile from the walls.^b The present city is dirty and ill built; the streets are crooked and narrow, and in many places very steep.^c There are several paper mills, woollen manufactories, distilleries and leather works; the inhabitants also carry on a trade in walnut oil and horses. Tulle has produced few distinguished men, and certainly none during the last or present century, but it may perhaps be worth while to mention Stephen Baluze,^d who was sent into exile for having written a genealogical history of the house of Auvergne, in which he supported the claims of Cardinal Bouillon, who, it was asserted, could not be subject to the king, because his father was prince of Sedan before Tulle was united to France.^e

The Correze, below Tulle, waters the neat town of Brives la Gaillarde,^f the birthplace of Cardinal Dubois, General Treillard and the unfortunate Marshal Brune. Lubersac, about eight leagues north of Brives, contains three thousand inhabitants; general Souham may be mentioned among its distinguished townsmen. Turenne, at the distance of three leagues from the chief town in the department,^g has given its name to one of the greatest generals that France has produced.^h The population does not exceed sixteen hundred individuals; the ruins of a castle, probably one of the most ancient fortresses in France, are situated on a steep rock that commands the town; the largest tower in the same castle is about a hundred feet in height, and is called the *Tower of Cæsar*.

Few places of any consequence can be mentioned in the mountainous region; Ussel, the capital of a district,ⁱ is surrounded by arid summits, and watered by the Sarsonne, over which a bold and elegant bridge has been erected since the revolution.^k Bort^l is about five leagues to the south-east of the last town; it stands in a fine position on the right bank of the Dordogne, and it boasts of being the birthplace of Marmontel. About a mile and a half below Bort, the Rue, a small river, forms a fine cascade, called the *Saut de la Saule*.^m

The different ramifications of the Cantalⁿ extend over the department, which bears the name of the mountain^o—a noble

^a "Half a league."

^b "—at some distance from the walls."

^c "The town has a mean appearance, and consists of steep streets, on the declivity of a hill"—at the confluence of the Correze and the Solanes.—P.

^d Etienne Baluze, born 1630, died 1718.

^e Literally—"who considered himself independent of the king, because he was born of a prince of Sedan before that town [Sedan] belonged to France."—Emm. Theod. de La Tour, Cardinal of Bouillon, third son of Fred. Maurice de La Tour, duke of Bouillon and prince of Sedan, was born 1643. His father, who had been arrested for engaging in a plot against Cardinal Richelieu, gained his liberty only by ceding the principality of Sedan, of which he was independent sovereign, to Louis XIII. in 1642, consequently the year before the birth of Cardinal Bouillon. He however made the cession on condition of retaining the dignity of Prince of Sedan. Having again joined the enemies of the king, he finally made peace with him in 1651, by receiving in exchange for Sedan, several large estates in France, among others, the barony of La Tour and the county of Auvergne. This final cession by treaty, in which he resigned the dignity of prince, as well as the sovereignty of the principality, explains the last clause of the original, which would be obviously in contradiction with the first ces-

monument of the volcanic convulsions, to which the centre and the south of France were exposed at a period, when the soil was covered with the sea.^p The sides of these heights, formed by porphyry, basalt, lava, scoriæ and pumice, are frequently beaten by violent winds, and the snow on their summits remains nearly eight months in the year. Limpid springs issuing from the depths of the earth, give birth to numerous rivulets, which by the cascades they form in different directions, add to the beauty of varied landscapes. The same streams, precipitated into the vallies, fertilize the pastures which they water, and give rise to several rivers. The northern declivities furnish the principal streams of the Rue, a feeder of the Dordogne; the latter river receives also the Maronne and the Cere, which descend from the western vallies. The eastern vallies supply the sources of the Truyere, which throws itself into the Lot, and of the Alagnon, which runs in an opposite direction, and is joined by the Arcueil, before it falls into the Allier. The vallies on the south are watered by different small streams that enlarge the Truyere. The thermal and medicinal springs that issue from the sides of the same mountains, are considered salutary in different diseases. The vallies watered by the streams and rivers which have been just enumerated, are in general fruitful, but most of the grain that the inhabitants consume, is produced in the Planeze, a small plain watered by the Alagnon and the Arcueil.

The higher vallies, the different heights, and even the summit of the Plomb,^q the latter the loftiest and the most central mountain in the group of the Cantal, abound in rich pastures and meadows that are covered with numerous herds, even with those from the neighbouring departments. The oxen fattened in these pastures are sold in every part of France, while the sheep are sent to the southern parts of the kingdom; kid and goat skins, articles of commerce in the country, are converted into parchment at Milbau.^r The horses, although of a small size, are strong and well adapted for light cavalry. The people in the *Burons* or cottages that are scattered in different parts of the pastures, convert their milk into butter and into cheese of three different qualities. The husbandman cultivates rye and buck-wheat, which constitute the principal food of the peasantry, flax which rivals in fineness that of Flanders, hemp which is woven into coarse cloth, either employed in the navy, or sold to the Spaniards, potatoes, fruits of different kinds, particularly chestnuts, the last of which make up no small part of the consumption, and lastly some vineyards, that yield only wines of inferior quality. Copper kettles and different culinary utensils of the same metal, together with

sion by compulsion in 1642. The first clause of the original is explained by the following circumstance. The cardinal, having fallen into disgrace with Louis XIV., resigned his offices and quitted the kingdom, in doing which he wrote to the king that he resumed the liberty which his birth and his quality of foreign prince gave him. I have allowed the translation, altogether inaccurate as it is, to remain unaltered.—P.

^f Brive, Brive la Gaillarde.

^g "Three leagues south of the chief place"—Brives, the chief place of the arrondissement, not Tulle, the chief place of the department. Turenne is 9 miles S. of Brives and 15 S. W. of Tulle. Rees' Cyc.—P.

^h Marshal Turenne (Henry de La Tour, Viscount of Turenne.)

ⁱ "Arrondissement."

^k "—over which there is a bridge, remarkable for the elegance and boldness of its architecture."

^l Bort.

^m Willow Falls.

ⁿ "The group of the Cantal." ^o Department of Cantal.

^p "—when the greater part of the surface was covered by the sea or by lakes (*d'eaux marines ou fluviales*)."^q See the remarks on the salt and fresh water basins under the head of the geology of France.—P.

^r *Le Plomb du Cantal*.

^s In the department of the Aveyron

lace and paper, are almost the only articles that are made in the department; the coal pits are not of much importance, no other mines are worked; thus for want of employment, many individuals leave their country; the most of them follow the trade of copper-smiths or braziers in different parts of France, in Spain, and even in Holland.^a

The fifteen hundred inhabitants of Maurs in the southern part of the department,^b rear a great many pigs, and carry on a considerable trade in bacon. From Maurs, which is situated at the base of the mountains, the traveller can ascend into the high country, where he may pass through towns little worthy of being examined in detail, and where the majestic spectacle afforded by the remains of ancient volcanic eruptions is likely to reward him for his labour.

At the extremity of the picturesque valley watered by the Jordanne, he may traverse the broad but irregular streets of Aurillac. The theatre has been considered too large and too much ornamented for the capital of so poor a department; ^c the town rests on lava, which large lakes have covered with thick strata of calcareous sediment. The hippodrome beyond the walls has been set apart for horse races, which take place every year, from the first to the fifteenth of May inclusive. It appears very improbable that Aurillac was founded before the eighth century.^d Pope Gerbert who took the title of Silvester the Second, Marshal Noailles, Piganiol de la Force,^e and the infamous Carrier were born within its walls. Basaltic lava arranged in colonnades may be observed in the immediate neighbourhood of the town; two mineral springs rise in the suburbs, the use of which is recommended in different diseases.

It is almost impossible for a stranger to travel the winding and narrow roads in the department of Cantal without a guide. Vic en Carladez, a small town of two thousand five hundred inhabitants, called also Vic sur Cere, because the Cere passes through it, is much frequented on account of its mineral waters. It is about nine miles from Aurillac; the women in the intermediate villages are celebrated not only for their beauty and fresh complexions, but also for their graceful demeanour.

The elevation of the Plomb du Cantal is about 6,036^f feet; any one who ascends it, may discover the ruins of a colossal volcano, overlaying a granitic mass. St. Flour is situated above the valley watered by the Dauzan, on the summit of a basaltic hill nearly three hundred feet in height. The number of inhabitants does not amount to more than seven thousand;^g it is the chief town in a district consisting of eighty-two burghs and villages.^h All the houses are built of lava; but, although the seat of a bishopric, it possesses no edifice of any consequence. It has, however, produced two celebrated men, namely, the dramatic poet Du Belloy, and the brave Desaix who fell at Marengo. The

^a "The only mines worked in the department, are those of coal;* but many individuals annually leave the country, and follow the trade of braziers in other parts of France, and also in Spain, and in Holland."

* There are mines of coal, antimony and copper in the department, and also quarries of marble and slate. Peuchet, p. 131.—P.

^b On the right bank of the Rance. M. B.

^c "The theatre is very handsome (*assez jolie*), for so small a capital of department."

^d "Aurillac is supposed to have been founded about the end of the eighth century."

^e "Author of a description of France" (*Description histor. et géograph. de la France*, 1715, 5 vols.) also of a description of Paris (*Description de la ville de Paris et de ses environs*, 10 vols.)—P.

^f "Height 1857 metres."

^g Population 6,640 (Stat. Table)—5687 (Alman. Royal, 1822.)

inhabitants manufacture copper utensils and coarse cloths; they also prepare glue, and arcluilⁱ for dying.

Chaudes-Aigues rises in a deep defile, watered by a feeder of the Truyere; it was known to the Romans, who gave it the name of *Calentes Aquæ*.^k It does not contain more than two thousand individuals, but the thermal springs, which are held in great repute, attract during the summer season, a number of invalids at least equal to the number of inhabitants. These springs issue from volcanic rocks, and their temperature varies from twenty to sixty-five degrees of Reaumur. Their sanative qualities are not their only virtues;^l they are used in cooking, in washing, and in every domestic purpose for which warm water is required; lastly, they are introduced into each house by subterranean pipes, and thus serve to warm the lower rooms during winter.

The Alagnon waters a pleasant valley at the base of the Plomb du Cantal, and near the Puy du Peroux. Murat, the chief town in a subprefecture, stands on the right bank of the same river; the men are employed in making copper utensils, and the women in working lace; the latter occupation serves to recal that sort of industry which was first introduced by Colbert into Upper Auvergne.^m The Puy-Mary, a volcanic peak, rises on the opposite side of the Col de Cabre in the districtⁿ of Mauriac. The small town of Salers in the same districtⁿ is built on a current of lava;^o it gives its name to the mountains in the neighbourhood, where the finest cattle in Auvergne are reared. The mountaineers are said to be quarrelsome and prone to revolt, defects which may be attributed to an insulated situation and the want of education.^p Mauriac, a small town, is situated on the side of a basaltic hill,^q which commands an extensive and magnificent view. In the vicinity are the romantic valley of Fontanges, and the water-falls of Salins; a labyrinth of deep glens and precipitous rocks stretches to the banks of the Rue, and exhibits all the variety of forms that are to be found in volcanic countries.

Vallies watered by small streams separate the group of the Cantal from that of Mont-Dor; the immense labyrinth, which they form, leads from the department of Cantal to that of Puy de Dome.

Having arrived above the region of the fir, pastures cover the sides of all the mountains^r which are grouped round the Puy de Sancy; their bases form a plateau with a southern inclination. Herds of cattle are seen at distant intervals, and a few scattered cottages serve to vary a dreary country, in which the traveller cannot find a single tree to shelter himself against the rays of the sun. The picantry who inhabit the mountains, repair to a Gothic chapel, built in the sixteenth century; great numbers perform a pilgrimage to it every year;^s on Sundays and other days, consecrated to divine service, many mountaineers meet at the same place.

^h "It is the chief town of an arrondissement composed of 82 communes."

ⁱ A dying material prepared from lichens.—P.

^k The ancient and modern names both signify thermal waters.—P.

^l "Their sanative qualities are less important than their other uses."

^m Murat is noted for the manufacture of point lace.—The manufacture of point lace was introduced into France by Colbert in 1665. Savary, Dict. Comm. Tom. i. p. 101. Tom. iii. art. *Point*.—P.

ⁿ "Arrondissement."

^o On the right bank of the Maronne. M. B.

^p "The inhabitants of these mountains are said to be obstinate and quarrelsome (*mutins et querelleurs*.)"

^q Between the Ouze and the Dordogne. M. B.

^r "Puys"—peaks.

^s "It is celebrated in the country for an annual pilgrimage."

A cottage, which has been dignified with the name of an inn, may be seen near the chapel; it is frequented by pedestrians in their excursions to Mont-Dor, and by all those, whether natives or strangers, who require something stronger than the limpid water which flows from a neighbouring spring. On the approach of winter, the peasantry abandon their mountain cottages, the chapel is closed until spring, and the deep snows render the roads impassable. At some distance from the chapel, is situated the Trou de Soucy, a natural excavation in the form of a funnel, about a hundred feet in diameter, and terminating in a gulf or pit not less than eighty feet in depth. The extent of the cavity cannot be ascertained, but to judge from the prolonged noise occasioned by the discharge of a gun, it must be considerable. It would be wrong to consider this excavation as an ancient crater; it may be also remarked as the most curious circumstance respecting it, that it is filled to the depth of at least six feet, with limpid water, the temperature of which too is always much lower than that of most of the springs in the country; but the phenomenon may be easily explained, from the fact that the porous lava which lines the cavity, promotes evaporation. The country people affirm that the gulf communicates with the waters of Lake Pavin, a lake which in appearance at least, resembles a crater. It is situated at the bottom of a circular cavity, not less than a hundred and twenty feet in depth. The sides of the cavity are well wooded, and the luxuriance of the vegetation which covers them may be attributed to the moisture exhaled from the waters; the banks of the lake are formed by the lava, which flowed from the sides of the Puy de Monchal, a neighbouring volcano. The black waters of the lake, fed by no visible spring, and continually discharged by an adjoining outlet, form the Couse, a small river, which fertilizes the neighbouring meadows. A limpid stream feeds the lake of Mount Sineyre, at no great distance from the last, but there does not appear to be any outlet to the waters which it continually receives.

Few travellers visit the volcanic heights^a that encompass Mont-Dor without ascending the Puy de Sancy, of which the pyramidal summit is apparent from every part of the surrounding country. The rocks that compose it, are impressed with all the characters of an igneous origin; the groups of Mont-Dor and the Cantal may be said to attest those great convulsions of nature, of which the volcanos now in action can furnish but an imperfect idea. No craters can be seen; the fused substances, raised from an immense depth, and forced through the superincumbent granite, exhibited probably after their consolidation enormous and rugged masses, which the action of the atmosphere and of ages has scattered in every direction. These masses, once so awful from their height, and imposing from their extent, now present only broken skeletons, whose pointed peaks threaten to overwhelm the vallies below them. The eastern declivities of the Puy de Sancy are not very precipitous, and the chairmen in the valley to which visitors resort on account of the thermal baths, have frequently carried ladies to the summit. The verdant slopes are covered with thick and tufted grass; a sheet of water formed by all the springs which descend from the higher

declivities, occupies a small part of a lofty plain, where the traveller rests before climbing the peak. It often happens that those who commence their journey at day-break, when no clouds appear on the mountain, and when they expect to be rewarded for their labour by a magnificent and extensive view, find themselves on reaching the summit of the volcanic pyramid, where a cross formed of the same substance has been erected, suddenly involved in a dense fog which prevents them from discovering even the narrow path by which they have ascended. The inscriptions on the four sides of the cross are then only visible; from them they may learn that they have ascended 2720 feet, that the rock on which they stand, is 109 feet higher than the Plomb du Cantal, 1368 higher than the Puy de Dome, and 6136 above the level of the sea, and lastly, that they have reached the highest point in central France. If the sun's rays dissipate the clouds collected around them, they may see on one side the romantic valley of Mont-Dor, and beyond it an almost boundless horizon, and on the left, the valley of Enfer, frightful from its depth and from the rugged rocks that surround it. Having left the Pic de la Croix,^b the traveller may wander through meadows, where golden ranunculus and potentilla contrast with the verdure of the other plants. Only a few scanty tufts of vegetation issue from the crevices in the valley of Enfer,^c and from the steep rocks which border that of La Cour, whilst in the ravines above their frightful precipices, the snow remains even in the month of August. The view from the slippery declivities on the western side of the valley,^d extends over deep and sequestered vallies, while the cattle on the heights seem almost suspended from pastures, on which man cannot walk without fear. The shepherds frequently drive a stake into the ground above these precipices, and attach themselves to it by means of a cord; they are thus enabled to mow the grass which grows in almost inaccessible situations, but which the wind too often scatters before they have time to collect it.

The highest part of the valley of Mont-Dor is watered by the small river Dor; it is formed by a number of streams collected on the Puy de Sancy, from which it descends in cascades through a vertical fissure in the midst of rugged rocks. Fir trees cover the base of the mountain; a rapid stream, which the inhabitants call the Cascade of the Serpent,^e winds in the shade of their dismal foliage on the right of the Dor; it is almost concealed in many places by tufts of the broad-leaved *cacalia* and the blue flowering *sonchus*. Below it and on the same side of the valley, the waters of the Dogne fall from a height of not less than a hundred and sixty feet; they mingle near the fall with the waters of the Dor, and form the Dordogne. The Capuchin, a rock composed of porphyritic lava, so called because one of its fragments,^f when seen from a distance, has some resemblance to a monk in the dress of that order, rises on the opposite bank of the river. The village of Bains fronts the same rock; a walk lately planted with trees leads from it to the banks of the Dordogne, across which an iron bridge has been erected. Since the new baths were constructed on the site of those that were built by the Romans, the village has been enlarged and embellished, and has now become a place of

^a "Puys."

^b The Peak of the Cross.

"Gorge de l'Enfer"—ravine of *Enfer* (Hell.)

^d Valley of Mont-Dor.

^e *Cascade du Serpent*.

^f "A prism detached from the mass."

resort for strangers from the beginning of June to the middle of September. The baths form a simple and at the same time a solid and elegant edifice; they are built of a dark coloured lava, and covered with large and thin stones^a of the same substance; on the whole, they are not unlike the buildings of the Romans. The pilasters and arcades in front correspond well with the columns and other remains of an ancient monument, which probably formed part of a temple that some wealthy Roman erected on the square before the new edifice, to commemorate a cure which, it was supposed, the waters had effected. The varied and picturesque sites in the valley and neighbourhood of Mont-Dor are visited by the strangers who frequent the baths; the exercise which they take contributes perhaps as much as the thermal springs to the improvement of their health. Few persons leave the country before they have seen Lake Chambon in which the river Couse has its source. The romantic scenery near the lake, accords so well with the views which Sidonius Apollinaris describes round his house, that there is every reason to believe that its banks were inhabited by that celebrated prelate of Gaul,^b who flourished about the middle of the fifth century.^c

We may pass from the valley of Mont-Dor to different places not unworthy of notice in the district of Issoire.^d St. Nectaire, a small burgh famous for its cheese, contains the remains of several Roman baths, which serve to prove its antiquity. One of the five or six rivers in the department, called the Couse,^e traverses Issoire, a town that was founded before the conquest of Gaul, and to which the Romans gave the name of *Issiodurum*.^f The church appears to be of an architecture anterior to the Gothic; mosaic ornaments are observed on the outside, and the twelve signs of the Zodiac are represented on the walls; Virgo and Libra adorn the principal front. The Latin names of these signs, sculptured in Roman characters, are proofs that the church was built at a very remote period; the choir rests on a subterranean chapel. The town is embellished with several broad and well built streets, besides fountains, squares, a fine public walk and a covered market place, built of granite. Issoire was the birthplace of Anthony Duprat, chancellor of France, who after the death of his wife, entered into holy orders, and became a cardinal; he abolished the pragmatic sanction, rendered offices venal, increased the imposts, and lived long enough to be execrated by his countrymen. Iron and coal mines are worked in the neighbourhood of Auzat on the right bank of the Allier. More than a million of bottles are made every year at the glass works of La Combelle in the same district.^h Sauxillangesⁱ contains about two thousand inhabitants; they carry on a trade in earthen ware, saws, scythes and woollen stuffs of their own manufacture.^k

The Allier, a broad but shallow river, winds through Li-

magne; it is bordered on the left by granite rocks which rise perpendicularly near the village of St. Yvoine, and threaten to overwhelm both the boatman who steers his bark, and the traveller who pursues his journey along the road^l on the banks of the river. The burgh of Vic le Comte is built on the right bank beyond the village; it may be mentioned as the birthplace of the immortal Lesage. Billon,^m a town of five thousand inhabitants, and supposed to be the most ancient in Auvergne, is situated on an eminence, about two leagues distant from the Allier. It may be seen from the summit of the Puy de Corent, a mountain of the absolute height of about nineteen hundred feet, composed of lime and sandstone, which were originally deposited by the fresh waters that covered the whole of Limagne, and crowned with lava and basalt. Billon was formerly celebrated, and it has again become so of late years, on account of a college under the direction of the jesuits. At the time of their expulsion, a picture was found in the college church, of which many engravings were afterwards sold in France; it represented religion under the emblem of a ship guided by the jesuits. The principal articles made in the town are silks and porcelain of admirable fineness.ⁿ

The road to Clermont passes along the base of Gergovia,^o a calcareous and volcanic mountain; the name serves still to indicate the site of the principal city in the country of the *Arverni*, a city that Cæsar besieged without success. It was built in a plain on the mountain,^p of which the absolute height is not less than two thousand three hundred feet. The site is accurately described in the Commentaries; the country people have often found there broken *amphoræ*, Roman medals and Gallic axes.^q The traveller may form from the same place some notion of the wealth and industry of Limagne; he may see villages crowded on the sides of the mountains, hills covered with vineyards, vallies shaded by fruit trees, and in the distance, the fertile plain that extends from the banks of the Allier to the volcanic summits that command Clermont, Volvic and Riom. The heights above the plain are crowned in different directions with old and dark castles, while the plain itself is watered by numerous streams or by canals cut by the husbandmen, and is agreeably diversified with meadows, corn fields, orchards and plantations of poplar trees. Pont du Chateau^r contains about three thousand inhabitants; it is situated near the extremity of the plain on the banks of the Allier, which flows beneath a modern bridge, and falls the height of several feet from an artificial embankment.^s

Clermont is built on a height which cannot be said to be very lofty, if compared with the mountains that surround it. Ramparts adorned with fine trees form an enclosure round narrow and dismal streets.^t It may be

^a "With slabs (*dalles*.)"

^b Sidonius Apollinaris was bishop of *Augustonemetum* (Clermont.)—P.

^c See the note at the end of the work by Doctor Bertrand, entitled: *Recherches sur les propriétés physiques, chimiques et médicinales des eaux du Mont-Dor*.

^d "The country in the vicinity of Mont-Dor comprehends the most interesting part of the arrondissement of Issoire, but the principal towns in the same arrondissement are situated in an eastern direction from the mountain."

^e Couze.

^f "Its Latin name is *Issiodurum*" (*Isiodurum*, Encyc. Meth. Géog. Mod. art. Issoire.)—P.

^g Judicial offices (*charges de judicature*.) Moreri.—Dict. Hist. Caen, 1804.—P.

^h "Commune."

ⁱ Sauxillanges.

^k "They manufacture scythes, saws, pottery, and woollen stuffs."

^l "The road cut in the rock."

^m Billon.

ⁿ "Poteries fines—étoffes de nouveautés."

^o Modern name, Gergoviat (Encyc. Meth.)

^p "It occupied the plateau of the mountain"—its flat summit.

^q The ancient Gauls used two-edged battle-axes (*bépennes*).—P.

^r Pont du Chatel.

^s "—which flows beneath a bridge lately erected, and then falls over a dam (*digue*) in a sheet of foam (*en nappe blancheâtre*.)"

^t "Boulevards planted with fine trees form a regular enclosure round the town, which consists for the most part of narrow and gloomy streets."

urged, however, that the gloomy appearance of the town is owing, in part at least, to the lava with which the houses are built; the inhabitants cover them with a coat of plaster, but the lava always resumes its sombre colour. The cathedral was commenced in the twelfth century, but it remains still in an unfinished state; the architecture is bold and elegant; the greatest ornaments in the interior are the finely painted windows; the white marble figures on the outside contrast well with the dark lava of which it is constructed. The church of Notre-Dame du Port is without doubt a much more ancient building; lighted by arcades and not by ogives, and loaded with inscriptions in Roman characters, it was in all probability founded shortly after the introduction of Christianity in Gaul.

The principal squares (*places*) are very large, and some of them worthy of particular notice. That of Jaude forms a rectangle, not a square; a covered market is erected in the middle of it. A Gothic fountain ornamented with arabesques rises in the square of Champeix, a large but irregular quadrangle. That of the Poterne^a is bordered by an agreeable walk, from which the plains of Limagne, and the summit of the Puy de Dome may be distinctly seen. A fountain in the form of an obelisk has been erected to the memory of Desaix, at the extremity of that of Taureau. The ancient college, a very elegant building, is situated at no great distance from the last monument; large halls are set apart for public schools of drawing, mineralogy and natural history; it contains besides a valuable collection of casts from the finest ancient statues, and of different articles in the three natural kingdoms, among others, the best mineralogical specimens of the department. Other apartments are reserved for the academical society and for a library of twenty thousand volumes.^b A white marble statue of Pascal, certainly the most illustrious man that Clermont has produced, has been placed in the library. A large and valuable botanical garden is connected with the college.^c

The fountain of St. Allyre, in one of the suburbs of Clermont, is considered by the inhabitants the greatest wonder in the place, and guides are ever ready to show it to strangers. It is a ferruginous spring, abundantly impregnated with carbonate of lime; it supplies baths, the use of which medical men consider beneficial in some complaints. The transparency of the water does not indicate the ingredients that compose it, for in that respect it may vie with the purest crystal. Diverted into small buildings, where it is made to fall in minute particles^d on different objects, such as flowers, fruits, branches of trees, and stuffed animals of the largest or smallest size, it covers them with so fine a cal-

careous sediment as to give them the appearance of petrifications without changing their forms. These articles are collected^e and sold to strangers, many of whom, while observing the manner in which the calcareous molecules are disengaged from the waters, erroneously believe that they can discover in this mechanical operation, the phenomena of petrification. The spring of St. Allyre has made for itself a calcareous embankment that terminates in an irregular arch, under which flows a small rivulet.^f The natural bridge and embankment are formed by the sediment which the waters deposited around the plants that grew in their course. The calcareous sediment thus deposited extends over a space about two hundred and thirty feet in length, a branch of the same spring forms at present other works of the same kind,^g and as the length gained every year does not exceed four inches, it follows that a period of seven hundred years must have elapsed before the bridge and embankment which are now seen, were completed.

Clermont is not a manufacturing town; it possesses but few manufactories or works of any kind.^h It may be considered however an important depot for the neighbouring departments, and even for Bordeaux, Lyons and Paris. The people in Auvergne believe it to be a town of great antiquity; the ancient name of *Nemetum* renders their opinion not improbable, but if it existed at the time that Cæsar laid siege to *Gergovia*, it must have been a place of little importance, for it is not mentioned by the Roman general. It cannot be denied that it was enlarged and embellished by Augustus; indeed to perpetuate the recollection of the emperor's munificence, it was called *Augusto-Nemetum*.ⁱ It retained its senate and magistrates until the seventh century; the present name of the town appears to have been derived from that of an ancient castle on a neighbouring height; it is certain at least that both the one and the other were called *Clarus Mons*.^k

The Puy de Crouelle, Mount Rognon and various other mountains, the product of volcanic fires, seem like so many low hills from the lofty ramparts^l of Clermont, but they appear very different from the plain below the town; the first rises to the height of more than three hundred feet above the highest part of the town; the inclination of the alternate calcareous and basaltic strata towards its centre, may be considered the traces of the subterranean shocks by which it was raised.^m The basaltic cone on the second has been ascertained to be at least eight hundred feet above its base, and, like many other heights in the same country, it is crowned with the ruins of an ancient building.ⁿ Mont-Ferrand has been called a suburb of Clermont, although it is about a mile and a half distant

great trade in preserved apricots and apples (*pâtes d'abricots et de pommes*.) Savary.—P.

ⁱ *Augustonemetum*. D'Anv.

^k "The ancient city was embellished by Augustus, in gratitude for which it took the name of *Augusto-Nemetum*. It retained its senate until the 7th century, and finally took its present name from a castle which commanded it, and which gave to its mountain the name of *Clarus Mons*."—Clermont is situated on a small eminence at the foot of a lofty mountain. Ed. Encyc.—The modern Latin names of Clermont are *Claromons* and *Claromontum*. Encyc. Meth.—P.

^l "Boulevards."

^m "The first exhibits on a height of nearly 300 feet above the plain, traces of its elevation from beneath (*soulèvement*) in the inclination of its alternately calcareous and volcanic strata towards its centre."

ⁿ "The second, which rises to the height of more than 800 feet above its base, presents a basaltic cone, crowned like many others in the country, with the ruins of a castle constructed of its prisms."

^a Square of the Postern gate.

^b "15,000 volumes."

^c Clermont has a fine college, and a literary society founded in 1741. (Encyc. Meth.)—In the organization of public instruction in France, Clermont has an academy, and a royal college. (Alman. Royal, 1822.)—P.

^d "In a fine spray."

^e In one of the halls of the bathing establishment. M. B.

^f The waters of the spring have formed a wall more than 140 paces long, and in some places 15 or 20 feet high, with a small bridge, under which flows the Tiretaine. Encyc. Meth.—P.

^g—"a bridge, similar to the preceding, over the rivulet into which it falls."

^h "Its manufactories and its tanneries are of little importance; it is however noted for its preserves (*pâtes de fruits*)."—The principal manufactures of Clermont are fine rascens, coarse serges, druggets, linen cloth, ribbands, silk stockings, candles and paper. Its preserved apricots have long been celebrated. (Ed. Encyc.)—It carries on a

from the walls;^a it consists of dark Gothic houses, that are crowded on an inclined plain. A country different from that which has been last described, extends in an opposite direction.

The oldest building in the burgh of Chamailere^b is a church that was built in the fourth century;^c there are besides six paper mills that are put in motion by the Fontanat, which waters a romantic valley. Old walnut trees display their thick foliage, while the broad-leaved ivy clings round their trunks; vines appear suspended above a road that follows the windings of a limpid stream; granite mountains support two immense currents of lava and masses of scoræ; and excavations similar to those at Pozzuoli exhale carbonic acid. A thermal spring whose waters are acidulated and ferruginous, was perhaps not unknown to Cæsar, at all events it bears his name;^d in the grotto of Royat, another spring issues from volcanic rocks by seven outlets, and forms as many cascades; in short the whole valley may remind an Italian of the finest sites in his country. The Puy-Chateix, so called from a castle which was built by the dauphins of Auvergne, rises above the village and grotto of Royat. The mineralogist may find near its summit, in the veins that run through the granite, beautiful specimens of sulphate of barytes; the botanist may discover several rare plants and lichens of the finest colours. Those who have neglected the previous study requisite for the enjoyment of scientific researches, may accept the invitation of the villagers, who are ready to show strangers the *Granaries of Cæsar*. It is thus that they call a ruin on the side of the mountain, where travellers have seen rye, wheat and other grain slightly carbonized,^e in all probability the effect of a fire by which the granaries of the ancient castle were destroyed.

An author of some celebrity^f affirms that the Puy de Dome is not a mountain; but what other name can be given to an eminence which commands all the volcanic summits in the neighbourhood of Clermont, and of which the absolute elevation is not less than 4500 feet, and the height above the base 2200. It is by no means unlikely that the writers who describe the crater of the Puy de Dome, have never ascended it.^g This mountain, which may be regarded as an ancient monument of subterranean convulsions, was probably raised from the depths of the earth through a crater, the orifice of which it has covered with its own mass. The ancients called it *Podium Dumense*; it is composed of a spongy rock through which are disseminated ferruginous laminæ of dazzling lustre.^h The same rock is of igneous origin, and known by the name of *domite*, the type of other analogous substances.

^a Montferrand, at the distance of a quarter of a league from Clermont (half a league, M. B.,) forms with it a single municipality, by the name of Clermont-Ferrand. Encyc. Meth. 1784.—P.

^b Chamalieres. (Vosgien.)

^c "The small town (*bourg*) of Chamailere contains a church built in the fourth century."

^d "known to Cæsar, whose name it still bears."

^e "It is thus that they call an *eboulement* (mass of debris or shingle) which covers the side of the mountain, and in which may be found grains of rye and wheat, slightly carbonized."

^f M. Blanqui, in his Account of a Journey to the South of France (*Relation d'un voyage au midi de la France.*) He makes the absolute elevation equal to 5000 feet.

^g Besides the work last mentioned, see also that entitled: *L'Ermite en province*, tome viii. p. 323.

^h Laminæ of specular iron (Daubeny).—Domite is a trachytic rock consisting of an aggregation of imperfect microscopic crystals of glassy felspar, with several other minerals imbedded, among which are specular and titaniferous iron in dispersed grains, blade-shaped laminæ or

Long and thick grass extends from the base to the summit, where a small excavation, the only remains of an ancient hermitage and chapel, has been dignified with the name of a crater, although it is deemed inaccurate to call the Puy de Dome a mountain. The view from the summit loses in richness what it gains in extent; no near or well-defined objects form a shade to a succession of airy distances; the sixty volcanos that form a long line from its base, might almost be compared to so many mole-hills in a field. The Puy de Nadailhat, which rises to the height of two thousand feet above the plain, has vomited from its sides an immense mass of lava, called the Serre, occupying on a considerable breadth, an extent of nearly three leagues. The Puy de Pariou, which rises near the base of the Puy de Dome, is remarkable for a regular and well preserved crater, about 960 feet in diameter and 280 in depth; the mountain itself is not less than five hundred feet higher than the last; still both of them appear very insignificant from the Puy de Dome.

The white summits of the Great Sarcouy and the Puy Chopine on the north of the mountains last mentioned, indicate a different origin from that of the neighbouring heights. In the first, the same porous substance may be discovered, as that which composes the Puy de Dome, and the name of the mountain still serves to indicate the use to which the rock was applied by the ancients; several unfinished *sarcophagi* have been found in the caverns dug by the Romans; it is certain they were considered valuable by the same people from the property they possessed of drying speedily dead bodies by absorbing the humid particles. The second attests the convulsions by which the neighbouring conical masses were raised, masses composed of different sorts of domites, granite and basaltic rocks.ⁱ The district^k of Riom extends to the north of these mountains; Pont-Gibaud,^l one of the places in the district,^k has been called a town, although the population does not exceed eight hundred individuals; it possesses a fine fountain, mineral springs, several corn mills and hydraulic saws; the inhabitants have lately begun to work argentiferous lead mines in the neighbourhood.^m

Low woods cover the base of the Puy de Nugere, and in many places thorns and nut trees conceal the vegetable mould formed by the decomposition of scoræ; the same Puy has vomitedⁿ from its inclined crater two currents of lava, which extend in different directions to the distance of 3600 yards, and meet below Volvic. The inhabitants of the burgh had long used these volcanic materials for building and other purposes; but the same sort of industry was not long since much extended by the ingenious M.

regular octohedrons. Serope on the Geology of Central France, p. 51.—P.

ⁱ "The second, attesting the elevation (*soulevement*) of those conic masses without craters of which it is an example, exhibits a mixture of different varieties of domite, granite and basalt."—The Puy Chopine consists of a mass of primitive rocks showing signs of great disturbance, included between a bed of domite on one side and basalt on the other. Serope's Geol. of Cent. France, p. 70.—P.

^k "Arrondissement."

^l Pont-Gibaut.

^m "It possesses a fine mineral spring (*fontaine d'eaux minerales*), an excellent flour mill, and several saw mills (*scieries hydrauliques*); it has the prospect of deriving great advantage from a mine of argentiferous lead in the neighbourhood."

ⁿ "The Puy de Nugere, the base of which is covered by a small wood, in which oaks and brambles contend with the hazelnut tree for the layer of vegetable earth formed by the decomposition of its scoræ has vomited"—

Chabrol. A school of drawing and sculpture was founded, casts of ancient figures were collected, the method of mutual instruction was introduced, and village lads soon became draughtsmen and sculptors. Different machines^a moved by water were also erected, and three times the number of hands were employed in extracting the lava. A ready market was found for the different products in Paris, and the lava, which had been before only used in building houses or in paving streets, is now changed by means of the lathe into columns, and by the chisel into elegant capitals; it serves also to multiply the master-works of antiquity, and is converted into *cippi* and funeral monuments; its sombre colour, its solidity, and its texture not affected by the atmosphere, render it more valuable for the last purpose than marble or even granite. It would not be easy to calculate the advantages that might accrue to the department, from the trade in these articles of luxury and utility, if canals made to communicate with the rivers that descend towards the capital, gave greater facility to their conveyance, for in the present state of communication, they are quadrupled in price by the mere expense of transport.

The importance of Riom may be attributed to its courts of law, and to the litigious propensities of the people in Auvergne; at all events, industry is at a low ebb, and the trade of the place is almost confined to articles of primary necessity. The town, which is well enough built, and watered by several fountains, stands on a hill above the Ambene; it is separated from its suburbs by ramparts and fortifications.^b It might be attended with advantage to the department if the courts of justice were transferred to Clermont.^c The tribunal, the *holy chapel* and the prison,^d the latter a large and well-aired edifice, are the finest buildings. Riom has produced several distinguished men, but none more so than Gregory of Tours. Although there is only one long and broad street in Aigue-Perse,^e the population amounts to five thousand inhabitants; the neighbouring country abounds in picturesque scenery, and that circumstance together with its mineral springs may account for it being a place of resort in the fine season. Two celebrated men, the chancellor De L'Hopital and the poet Delille, were born in the town.

The impulse that a canal and good roads might give to the commerce and consequently to the wealth of the department, may be estimated, in some degree at least, by the industry observable along the course of the Dore and the Allier, and on the road lately opened to Lyons, in the district^f of Thiers. The town of the same name, enclosed on all sides by a wild and romantic country, consists of

^a A turning-mill (*tour*.)

^b "by well planted boulevards."

^c "It is the seat of a royal court, which ought rather to be located at Clermont."

^d "The hall of justice,* the holy chapel,† and the central prison‡"—

* *Palais*, so called, either in imitation of that at Paris, which was originally a royal palace, and was ceded to the parliament and different tribunals by Louis X., or because it was itself originally either a house of the king or of some noble, or simply because justice was there rendered in the name of the king.—P.

† *La Sainte Chapelle*, a church so called, founded by John, duke of Berry, in the 15th cent.—P.

‡ *Maison centrale de détention*—See note ^d p. 931.

^e Lat. *Aqua Sparsa*.—P.

^f "Arrondissement."

^g "It has carried on the manufacture of coarse cutlery for three hundred years."

^h "The manufacture of paper dates from a period almost equally re-

singularly painted but not inelegant houses. The inhabitants have carried on a trade in hardware and coarse cutlery during three hundred years,^g and the same sort of industry furnishes employment at present to more than twenty thousand persons in the town and neighbouring hamlets. The paper made in the same place dates from a period almost as remote, but in consequence of the improvements that have been successively introduced, the quantity now manufactured is much greater, and the quality much finer.^h Ten or twelve other works are in an equally prosperous state,ⁱ and it may be added that the Durole, the great mover of all its manufacturing establishments, is only a small stream that rushes through a narrow ravine. The village^k of St. Remy participates with Thiers in the same kind of industry; it carries on a trade in cutlery and hardware goods,^l and contains nearly four thousand inhabitants. The fir trees cut on the neighbouring heights,^m are divided into planks by means of hydraulic saws, at the burgh of Puy-Guillaume on the banks of the Dore. Maringues rises on the Morge, not far from the Allier; many of the inhabitants are employed in dressing chamois and kid skins.ⁿ Courpierre,^o the chief town in an agricultural district,^p contains about three thousand individuals; one or two mills have been built in it for the purpose of grinding bones,^q which are afterwards used as a manure.

The district^r of Ambert, although not so favourably situated as the last, is still very important on account of its industry. The best cheeses in Auvergne are exported from the town, which gives name to the district;^s the stream which traverses it, and which throws itself into the Dore, puts in motion more than sixty paper mills and different works.^t Arlanc^u is situated above Ambert in a pleasant valley on the banks of the Dolore; the principal manufactures are lace and ribbons; Marsac and Viverols carry on a trade in articles of the same sort.^v Mines of argentiferous lead are worked with profit in the neighbourhood of St. Amans-Roche-Savine:^w lastly, the burghs of Oliergues and Cunlhat^y export the same products^z as Ambert.

All those who have visited the department, agree that its commerce and resources might be greatly increased; to judge from the antimony, lead and coal mines, considerable wealth might be extracted from the depths of the earth. The fruitful soil of Limagne might be covered with the richest harvests, if the prejudices of the peasantry were not opposed to every improvement. The rich meadows of Mont-Dor, and the fine pastures that cover all the sides of the volcanic Puys, are admirably adapted for rearing cattle; but at present the breeds are of an inferior kind, and require to be improved by introducing oxen from

mote, and the numerous improvements which have been introduced, have served to maintain its reputation."

ⁱ "Ten or twelve tanneries are equally prosperous."

^k Small town (*bourg*) and capital of a canton. (Vosgien.)

^l "It also manufactures cutlery."

^m "On the mountains to the N. W. of Thiers."

ⁿ "In preparing shammy (*chamoiserie*)." p "Canton."

^o Courpierre, Courpieres.

^q "It contains a mill for grinding bones."

^r "Arrondissement."

^s "—more than 60 paper mills, besides manufactories of taminies, cords and woollen garters (*d'étamines, de lacets et de sarretières de laine*.)"

^t Arlanc.

^u "—are engaged in the same kind of industry."

^v St. Amans-Roche-Savine.

^y Cunlhat.

^z "—are engaged in the same manufactures."

Switzerland, and sheep from Spain. The wretched condition of the people in the rural districts may be readily inferred from the following remarks. A peasant, encumbered with unwieldy wooden shoes, may be seen holding a long goad in his right hand, and driving oxen attached to a wooden cart, of which the wheels without iron make the air resound with the shrill and disagreeable noise produced by the friction on the axle-tree. The ancient *araire*, a very clumsy plough,^a is still used in the fields; the ploughman stops his oxen by repeating the Latin words, *sta bos*, words introduced by Roman masters, from whom they have been handed down to men ignorant of their meaning. The cottages of the peasantry proclaim their poverty; the windows do not admit sufficient light, and the doors, and even the walls, hardly afford shelter against the blast. The labourer is seen in his wretched dwelling, borne down by want and toil; his principal food is cheese or milk, which

cannot be of a very good quality, for the cows are ill-fed, and they are used in common with oxen in the plough. But the people are laborious and worthy of a better fate; the country-women, who carry on their heads the provisions which they sell in the towns, are generally employed in knitting stockings, or in turning the spindle, as they go to market. It is not uncommon for the peasants in their leisure hours to carry saekfuls of earth to places difficult of access, and which the kindness of the proprietor allows them to cultivate.^b They are degraded by the prejudices which prevailed throughout France about three centuries ago, and by ignorance, not of their duties, for they are honest and upright, but of whatever regards their comfort and welfare; it may be truly said that more knowledge and less superstition might enable them to enjoy the blessings, of which their laborious perseverance renders them not unworthy.

^a "A plough without wheels."

^b "The peasants carry earth in baskets to almost inaccessible places, and thus render them proper for cultivation."

BOOK CXLV.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—France.—Fourth Section.—Eastern Region.

LYONNAIS, Burgundy, Franche-Comté and Alsace make up the eastern region. The inhabitants are more enlightened and more wealthy than those in the central departments; the relative population is also greater. The superficial extent is equal to 2960 square leagues, and the number of individuals to 4,192,000; consequently the mean number in every square league is equal to 1416.^a The mountains of Forez separate the two regions; in the one the people are comparatively ignorant, poor and wretched; in the other they are well informed, industrious and happy: how happens it that such differences exist in a country, of which all the inhabitants enjoy the same rights and privileges, and are governed by the same laws? They may be accounted for by many concurring causes, but the facility of communications is perhaps the most effectual of any. The region we are about to enter is better provided with roads, navigable rivers and canals^b than any other that has been yet described, and it possesses no other advantage which exerts a greater influence on the industry of the inhabitants, or contributes more to improvements of every kind.

The department of the Loire is traversed from the southern to the northern extremity by the river of the same name, which flows between two chains of mountains, consisting partly of granite and partly of sandstone and limestone,^c and which waters a country of little fertility, as the insufficiency of its harvests attests; the department however contains valuable mines of iron and lead, and the rich-

^a 1416.216 nearly.—P.

^b "Roads (*routes*) of different classes, common highways (*chemins communaux*, roads passing from one *commune* to another or for the use of a particular *commune*.)* several considerable secondary rivers (*rivieres*—navigable branches,) two large primary rivers (*fleuves*—the Rhone and the Rhine,) and many canals!"

* In 1809, the roads of France were classed as follows: viz. 1. great roads (*grandes routes*) passing from one frontier of the empire to another through Paris; 2. roads (*routes*) passing from one frontier to another, but not through Paris; 3. roads (*routes*) connecting the different towns (*villes*) of the same province or of neighbouring provinces (—the regulation was founded on an edict of Feb. 6, 1776, whence the term province is here used;) and 4. private roads (*chemins particuliers*, corresponding to *chemins communaux* in the original text, and to our cross roads or common highways,) connecting small towns or villages (*petites villes*—*bourgs*.) Code Administratif. Part. Police. Tom. II. p. 432.—P.

† The principal canals in eastern France are, 1. the Canal of Forez, intended to open a communication between the Rhone and the Loire (—completed 8 miles from Givors on the Rhone below Lyons to Rive de Gier. Ed. Encyc.) ; 2. the Canal of the Centre, from Digoin on the Loire to Chalons on the Saone (—completed, length 71 miles. Ed. Encyc.) ; 3. the Canal of Burgundy, intended to connect the Seine and the Saone (—the line extends 148 miles from Brinon on the Armançon, a branch of the Yonne, by Dijon to St. Jean de Losne on the Saone—navigable (1814) from the Saone 13 leagues to Pont de Parry 5 leagues west of Dijon, and from Brinon to the vicinity of Ancy le France—the summit not completed. Ed. Encyc.) ; 4. the Canal of Monsieur, intended to connect the Doubs and the Rhine (Alman. Royal, 1822.)—P.

est coal mines in France. Metals rendered subservient to many domestic purposes, flax and hemp woven to satisfy the luxury of the rich, or the wants of the poor, silk made to assume a thousand different tints, and converted into articles^d which the caprice of fashion multiplies almost to infinity, yield greater profits to the inhabitants than any that could be derived from the culture of the richest soil.

Of the three districts^e into which the department of the Loire is divided, that of St. Etienne is the most industrious and the most populous. The people in the small town of Bourg-Argental rear many silk worms; they are also employed in manufacturing crapes and different stuffs.^f The inhabitants of Chambon^g work their coal mines, manufacture ribbons, and export a great many nails, knives, and files;^h Firminy carries on a trade in the same articles.ⁱ A fine walk leads to St. Chamond,^k a town of six thousand inhabitants, where public baths have been lately erected.^l The waters of the Ban and the Gier^m serve to move different works and not fewer than thirty ribbon manufactories.ⁿ Rive de Gier^m contains not less than eight thousand inhabitants; the wealth of the town may be attributed to its glass and iron works, and to its mines of excellent coal, worked by means of forty steam engines; it is situated near the junction of three vallies on the small river Gier, and at the commencement of the canal of Givors. The village of Berardiere in the neighbourhood of the chief town, may be mentioned on account of its steel founderies.

The immense progress that industry has already made in France, renders it difficult to assign any limits to future

^c "Calcaire ancien."

^d "Ribbons."—The principal manufactures are hardware, silk ribbons, hempen cloth, glass and leather. Peuchet, p. 113.—P.

^e "Arrondissements."

^f "Crapes and cords (*lacets*.)" ^g "Le Chambon."

^h "—manufacture ribbons, nails, files and knives."

ⁱ Firminy possesses coal mines, iron founderies and nail manufactories (Vosgien.)—P.

^k St. Chamond.

^l "At St. Chamond — there is a fine promenade and public baths."

^m Giez—Rive de Giez, Rive de Gié.

ⁿ "—are employed in carrying on the same manufactures as those last mentioned. The town contains more than thirty manufactories of ribbons and cords (*lacets*.)"

^o An iron work constructed after the English method (*forge a l'Anglaise*), in the suburb of St. Julien, furnishes annually more than six million lbs. of iron. M. B.—St. Julien en Jarrets, a small town (*bourg*) one league N. of St. Chamond. (Vosgien.)—P.

* The English generally use coke in reducing iron, instead of charcoal which is more commonly used on the continent. Consequently, their furnaces are constructed so as to furnish a more powerful blast and to sustain a more intense heat. As the iron work above mentioned is situated in the heart of one of the greatest coal districts in France, it was undoubtedly constructed for using coke.—P.

improvements, but from what has been already done, it is reasonable to suppose that much more may be accomplished. A rail-way, now almost finished, extends from St. Etienne to Lyons, so that goods may soon be conveyed from the one place to the other in half the time that is at present necessary. The distance may be equal to twenty-five or twenty-six miles;^a the work was commenced near the close of the year 1827, and what has been already accomplished, has entirely changed the appearance of the country. Hills and vallies have been levelled, 620,000 cubic yards^b of the hardest rock have been torn from the soil, 120,000 cubic yards^c of earth have been taken away, and in order to fill up the inequalities in the ground, 110,000 have been removed from one place to another;^d on the whole line, not fewer than a hundred and twelve arches, each of them forming a bridge, have been raised, and it has been necessary to cut through a high hill in the neighbourhood of St. Etienne.^e It is calculated that at no distant period steam-engines travelling at the rate of five miles an hour, and dragging each fifteen loaded waggons,^f may be substituted for the eighteen hundred vehicles that pass daily between the two towns.

St. Etienne, says a good judge of such places,^g is built without regularity; there as well as in many commercial towns, order and beauty are of secondary importance. Workshops covered with tiles, darkened with smoke and without windows, resembling the abodes of the Cyclops, surround the elegant and modern town-house, which the inhabitants have erected on the Place Neuve.^h The streets are filled with a dark and light dust, which covers clothes, houses and even furniture. It is, however, in these very streets that the people manufacture the light gauze, the laceⁱ and the dazzling ribbons, for which the whole of Europe is tributary to France. Contiguous houses are inhabited by armourers and embroiderers; the movement of the loom is heard in the streets, and the noise of the anvil resounds in the fields. "I have seen," continues M. Blanqui, "men on horseback, who to judge from their squalid dress, might be thought unable to afford linen, but I afterwards discovered that they were the proprietors of productive iron works. Miners without shirts refuse to take charity, while beggars with shirt-ruffles walk the streets of Paris. The houses, which not long since formed part of the suburbs, are now in the heart of the town, and the number of inhabitants has increased within a period of less than ten years from twenty to forty thousand. What a contrast to Montbrison, the capital of the department, which is inhabited principally by the wealthy and the idle; there the population decreases incessantly, and all the mendicants in Forez resort to it!"

St. Etienne contains a royal armoury, forty in which arms of every sort are made, fifty-five places in which

^a "Length of the route 55,000 metres"—34.18 miles nearly.—St. Etienne is 12 leagues from Lyons. (Vosgien.)—P.

^b "500,000 cubic metres."

^c "100,000 cubic metres."

^d "900,000 cubic metres have been employed in filling up the inequalities in the surface."

^e "On the whole line, 112 bridges (*ponceaux*) have been constructed, and a tunnel has been opened through a hill (*montagne*) near St. Etienne."

^f "Steam-carriages, each consuming 70 kilogrammes of coal and 350 kilogrammes of water per hour, travelling two leagues in 60 minutes, and drawing fifteen waggons carrying altogether a weight of 1,200,000 lbs.—"

^g M. Ad. Blanqui, Relation d'un voyage au midi de la France, pendant les mois d'Août et de Septembre, 1828.

hard-wares and cutlery are wrought, a hundred and fifty ribbon and velvet manufactories.^k Montbrison might rival it both in trade and in manufactures, for the Vizezy^l which flows through the town, furnishes enough of water to move the most important works. But the inhabitants do not devote themselves to any branch of industry, and the town is ill-peopled and ill-built. The only edifice to which any additions have lately been made, is the royal college; it is unnecessary to add that these additions were made by government.^m Many suppose that the present town was founded in the twelfth century by Brison, whence it received the Latin name of *Mons Brisonis*. The mineral waters are held in great reputation, and several remains of antiquity prove that they were not unknown to the Romans. It was from the summit of the volcanic rock which commands Montbrison, that the sanguinary baron of Adretsⁿ precipitated the catholics whom he had taken prisoners during the civil wars. The small town of St. Galmier carries on a trade in wax-lights for the use of churches;^o it stands on an eminence not far from the Croize. A mineral spring rises from a rock near the town, and the waters that issue from it, have a strong vinous flavour. Feurs is situated on the road between Thiers and Lyons; it is the *Forum Segusianorum*, the ancient capital of the *Segusiani*, of which the name was afterwards extended to the province of Forez.

The Gand flows below the small town of St. Symphorien de Lay, a place of some importance from its trade and manufactures. It is situated in the district^p of which Roanne is the capital; the latter, occupying the site of an ancient town which Ptolemy calls *Rodumna*, was considered a mere village about the commencement of the eighteenth century, but the industry of the inhabitants has since restored it to something like its former rank; it is at present well built, and the population amounts to more than eight thousand individuals. Some remains of Roman monuments have resisted the vicissitudes of time and barbarism.

If there is any department in France, which may be said to prove the superiority of manufacturing over agricultural industry, it is certainly the department of the Rhone. The soil, intersected by hills and vallies, is not very fruitful; it does not yield one half of the grain or timber necessary for the consumption. But if the harvests are scanty, the vineyards are productive, and the wines of an excellent quality; the best are those of Cote Rotie and Condrieux. Artificial meadows afford pasture to many herds of oxen, and to numerous flocks of sheep and goats. It would be incorrect therefore to ascribe the deficiency in corn to the negligence of the husbandman; on the contrary, he appears to derive from the fields all the profit that can be obtained from them. The flourishing state of the country

^h New Square.

ⁱ "Tulle"—a kind of thin silk lacc.

^k "—a royal manufactory of fire-arms, 40 manufactories of arms of every kind, 10 of cutlery, 45 of hardware (*quincaillerie*.) and 150 of ribbons and velvet." ^l Vezize, Vecize.

^m "The only edifice to which any recent additions have been made, is that of the college." The original does not call it a royal college, nor does it say that the additions were made by government. No royal college at Montbrison is mentioned in the Alman. Royal, 1822. Montbrison had before the revolution, a college belonging to the priests of the Oratory.—P.

ⁿ Francis de Beaumont, baron des Adrets—lived in the 16th cen^r—P.

^o "—manufactures wax tapers (*cierges*.)"

^p "Arrondissement."

must be attributed to its manufactories; if the department of North be excepted, there is no other in France, which contains so great a population relatively to the surface, for the mean number of inhabitants on every square league is equal to two thousand nine hundred and fifty-four. Copper and coal, the most valuable of its productions, furnish the materials with which the numerous founderies are supplied.

The population of Tarare does not exceed seven thousand inhabitants; it contains, however, not fewer than sixty-five muslin manufactories, and twenty-five of embroidered work; the latter are the first of the kind that were established in France; they afford employment at present to more than fifty thousand workmen, who are scattered in different districts. The town stands at the foot of a hill which bears its name, and on the left bank of the Tardine, a small river that sometimes inundates the neighbouring fields, but the devastations thus occasioned, are amply redeemed by the advantages the manufacturer derives from it. Thizy and Amplepuis rival each other in their cotton manufactures. The village of Tours carries on a trade in the mixed stuffs, with which it supplies different departments; they are made of linen and cotton, and known in France by the name of *beaujolaises*.^a Beaujeu, a small but well-built town, is finely situated on the Ardiere; it stands at the base of a hill, on which rise the ruins of the strong castle that belonged to the lords of Beaujeu. It possesses several paper mills, and carries on no inconsiderable trade in wine. The same trade and the sale of embroidered works tend to enrich Belleville sur Saone. The two last towns contain nearly an equal number of inhabitants; the population of each amounts at least to three thousand individuals. Ville-Franche,^b the capital of the wealthy district in which they are situated,^c consists of a broad street about a mile and a half in length, and of houses grouped round it, which form the suburbs. The lands watered by the Saone and the Morgon are very fruitful; the neighbouring hills are covered with vineyards. It must be admitted, however, that the picturesque scenery round Ville-Franche has not been much improved by cultivation;^d as a manufacturing town, it is a place of considerable importance. The village of Chessy near the left bank of the Arbresle, is about three leagues on the south of it; it contains six hundred inhabitants, and is well known on account of its copper mines, the most productive in France.

Lyons is remarkable for the beauty of its situation, and for the magnificent view presented by the country houses in its neighbourhood, by its four suburbs,^e and by the twenty quays on the Saone and the Rhone. The gentle current of the first river and the rapidity of the second form a striking contrast. The Saone offers an emblem of peace—favourable to the arts, to commerce and to industry; boats

are continually passing up and down its stream, and seventeen harbours^f are situated on its banks. The Rhone, emblematic of war and civil discord, is an impetuous torrent which the temerity of man does not always brave with impunity; the loud noise of its waters is the only sound that can be heard on its dismal and deserted banks. Other and less pleasing contrasts may be observed in the same town; in its fifty-six squares, mean and sorry buildings rise by the side of the most sumptuous edifices; its two hundred and forty-five streets are ill-paved, narrow and dirty, and as rain is of frequent occurrence, they are very often wet. All the inhabitants must be equally indifferent about the cleanliness of their town, otherwise the same filth could not be seen near mean shops and costly warehouses, the humble abode of the artisan, and the habitation of the wealthy merchant. The *canuts* or silk weavers prepare in their smoky garrets light crapes, brilliant satins and pliable taffetas of the richest colours; no sooner have they been taken from their dirty hands, than they are sent to Paris, where they assume the various shapes that fashion renders indispensable.

Lyons or the ancient *Lugdunum* was one of the principal cities in the dominions of the *Segusiani* at the time that Cæsar took it from the Gauls. About forty years before the vulgar era Munatius Plancus received instructions from the Roman senate to allow the people of Vienne, who had been driven from their town by the *Allobroges*, to settle in *Lugdunum*. It became not long afterwards one of the most flourishing Roman colonies in France; Strabo says that it was only inferior in population to Narbonne. The importance and the admirable position of the town rendered it frequently the residence of the governors of Gaul.^g It was first built on the declivity of a hill, which rises on the right bank of the Saone; it was embellished by many noble monuments, but they were all destroyed by fire in a single night.^h This disastrous event, of which history affords fortunately but few examples, happened in the year 59 of the Christian era, during the reign of Nero, by whom it was rebuilt. It does not require a minute examination of ancient edifices to be convinced that the Romans knew well how to avail themselves of the inequalities in the surface, and thus to give their towns an air of majesty, which we look for in vain in modern cities. The palace of the emperors rose on the hill of St. Just, where the monastery of Antiquaille,ⁱ now changed into an hospital for *Incurables*, was afterwards built. The name of the convent appears to have been derived from the number of medals and other antiquities, which were discovered in digging the foundation. An amphitheatre was erected on the same height, and some remains of it are still seen in the gardens round the convent of the Minims. The waters of the Rhone and the small river Furaut were conveyed by means of an aqueduct at least two leagues in length, to different parts of the town.^k Sixty Gallic nations

^a "Thizy and D'Amplepuis are employed in the manufacture of calicoes, and of the cotton stuffs (*cotonnades*) called *garets*, as well as in the spinning of cotton; the mixed cloths of linen and cotton called *beaujolaises*, are made in the village of Cours."

^b Villefranche.

^c "—arrondissement"—in which all the preceding towns in the department are situated.—P.

^d "Picturesque scenery, embellished by cultivation, surrounds it on every side."

^e The suburb of St. Irène on the right of the Saone, including the hill of Fourviere; that of Vaize on the same bank of the Saone, higher up the river; that of La Croix Rousse (the Red Cross) on the heights overlooking the north part of the city, between the two rivers; and that of La Guillotiere on the left bank of the Rhone.—P.

^f "Ports"—landing places.

^g "—rendered it the residence of the governor of Gaul."—Forty-six years after its foundation, Lyons was considered the metropolis of Gaul. Ed. Eneye.—P.

^h "The city was destroyed by fire in a single night."—Inter magnam urbem et nullam, nox una interfuit. Seneca, Epist.—P.

ⁱ "L'Antiquaille."—The hospital, called the Antiquaille, is situated on the declivity of Fourviere. Ed. Eneye.—P.

^k Ancient Lyons was supplied with water by four aqueducts, two of which are confounded in the text. The great aqueduct, some remains of which may be seen near the gate of St. Irène and in other parts of its course, extended for seven leagues, from the stream called Furens, near the town of St. Etienne, to the gates of Lyons. A second aqueduct, some remains of which appear in the valley of Eully, conducted the waters of Mont D'Or to the hill of Lyons (Fourviere). A subterranean aqueduct conveyed the waters of the Coise and the

raised at the confluence of the Saone and the Rhone an altar to Augustus, of which the four principal columns have been removed to the altar in the church of St. Martin d'Ainay. But the two rivers meet no longer at the same place; more than fifty years have elapsed since Perrache the sculptor thought it practicable to divert the course of the Saone,^a which now falls into the Rhone below its former confluence; the ancient channel was thus drained, and it now forms a public walk.^b The four Roman roads traced by Agrippa passed through Lyons, one of which extended through Auvergne and Aquitaine to the Pyrenees, another to the Rhine, a third through Picardy to the Ocean, and a fourth through Narbonnese Gaul to the Mediterranean. A rock that was cut by order of Agrippa, still bears the name of *Pierre-Scise*; Buchard of Burgundy built on it in the eleventh century, a formidable castle, which was in later times changed into a state prison. The names of many other places in the town and neighbourhood of Lyons are connected with ancient associations. In the time of the Romans, *Bella Curia* was the name of the place, from which the prætor pronounced his decrees; it is at present the square of Bellecour.^c The elegant buildings which adorned it, were demolished by a furious conventionalist, but they were raised anew by Napoleon. It forms a regular oblong square, and the fronts of two very large edifices adorned with pilasters and surmounted by balustrades, terminate the two opposite extremities; it is bordered by rows of lime trees. The hill of Fourviere^d formed part of the original enclosure of the city; on it was situated the *Forum Vetus*, or according to some antiquaries, the *Forum Veneris*, that Trajan erected. The hill was called after the forum, and an ancient chapel on it was restored to the catholic worship by Pius the Seventh during his short residence in the town in 1805. The square of Terreaux^e may recal events of a different nature, events that have left an indelible stain on the page of history; there Cinq-Mars suffered death for having attempted a change in the administration of his country, or rather for having conspired with some others against the proud and vindictive minister of Louis the Thirteenth; there too the virtuous president De Thou was beheaded, because he chose to die rather than betray his friend.^f

Lyons is connected with many historical events. When after the death of Pertinax, Albinus and Severus contended for the empire, the town declared for the former, and opened its gates to him after his defeat; it was consequently levelled

Brevenne to St. Irenée; and a fourth aqueduct extended from Montluel along the Rhone and terminated in the hill of St. Sebastian. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^a "Conceived the project of turning the course of the principal river" (*le fleuve*, the Rhone—the Saone being only a tributary (*rivière*).—P.)

^b "A public walk (*promenade*) extends along the former channel." Before 1772, the Rhone and the Saone joined their waters near Ainay. The sculptor M. Perrache conceived the idea of removing their confluence to the village of Mulatiere, and in 1770, he obtained letters patent for the purpose. A company was formed, and a new bed was excavated for the Rhone, which was compelled to take another direction, by a magnificent causeway nearly a mile and three quarters long, planted with Italian poplars and forming a continuation of the quays of Lyons. Ed. Encyc.—The Rhone formed a kind of delta at its junction with the Saone. A canal formerly connected the two rivers at the Place Terreaux, now in the heart of the town, below which point there was formerly a group of islands, which have been artificially united by made ground, and are now covered with houses.—P.

^c *Place Belle Cour*. ^d *Fourvieres*.
^e *Place des Terreaux*—so called from its occupying the site of the canal which connected the two rivers (*terre*, land—*eau*, water).—P.

^f Not the president De Thou, but his eldest son Francis Aug. De Thou.—P.

^g It was pillaged and partly burnt by Severus in 193, in order to

with the ground by the victor;^g a hundred and fifty years elapsed before it rose from its ruins. It formed a part of the Burgundian kingdom during the fifth century. It was at one time subject to the kings of France, at another under the power of its archbishops, but it was taken from the latter by Guy, count of Forez.^h After many wars between the descendants of the count and the clergy, the latter recovered their authority; but the town was not therefore more fortunate, for the canons of Lyons assumed the title of counts, and the people had to submit to a double tyranny—the arrogance of the nobility, and the rapacity of the church. Louis the Gross by introducing the municipal system into his dominions, rendered the sword and mitre less oppressive. It might be shown indeed that the effects of the change were felt at Lyons before the town was added to the monarchy. But during a hundred years after the same period, the archbishops continued their depredations, and the people were frequently excited to revolt; at last St. Louis declared himself the arbiter of the scandalous exactions on the part of the church, and of the resistance which such proceedings rendered lawful on the part of the people; by the decision of the same prince, Lyons was included within the dominions of the crown. From that epoch the citizens had the right of electing their own magistrates, of controlling their receipts and expenses, and of providing for their own defence; personal liberty was also secured to them; no citizen could be cited in judgment beyond the walls of the town. It was at the general council held at Lyons in 1245, that the cardinals by an order of pope Innocent the Fourth, clothed themselves for the first time in scarlet.ⁱ This wealthy city was destroyed in 1793 by the revolutionary army after a siege of sixty-five days, because the inhabitants attempted to free themselves from popular tyranny. Two deputies of the convention at the head of sixty thousand men could not effect a capitulation until the town had been bombarded, and until the besieged had suffered all the horrors of famine. The principal edifices were demolished, and in conformity to a decree, the town was called *Ville Affranchie*. Cruel mockery, worthy of the period; the anarchists confounded freedom with the work of destruction!

The commercial prosperity of Lyons dates from the reign of Francis the First; the inhabitants learnt from the Genoese the art of manufacturing silk. The town contained about forty years ago 180,000 individuals, and there were

revenge himself on the inhabitants for having given shelter to Albinus, his enemy. In 202, he persecuted the Christians in Lyons with the greatest severity. Irenæus suffered in the persecution with 19,000 of his fellow Christians, the bones of which are said to be preserved in a vault in the church of St. Irenée.—P.

^h "By turns subject to the kings of France and its archbishops, it was taken from the latter by Guy, count of Forez." During the reign of Honorius, it was ceded by Stilicho to the Burgundians, who made it the capital of their kingdom. About the year 532 it came into the possession of the kings of France, who in 955 ceded it to Conrad, king of Burgundy beyond Jura (*Burgundia Transjurana*.) On the division of the kingdom of Burgundy after the death of Rodolph III., the archbishop of Lyons and the counts of Forez long disputed the possession of the city. The latter finally prevailed and retained it until 1173, when Guy II. and Guy III. ceded it to the archbishop Guichard and the chapter. Finally, the temporalities of the city were surrendered to Philip the Fair, who already possessed the sovereignty, by the archbishop Philip of Savoy, (A. D. 1307.) Moreri.—P.

ⁱ "It was at the general council held at Lyons in 1245, for the purpose of renewing the crusades,* that pope Innocent IV. for the first time invested the cardinals with the purple." Innocent IV. conferred the red hat on the cardinals, at the council of Lyons 1245, and Paul II. the red garment in 1464. Moreri.—P.

* The eighth crusade, conducted by St. Louis.

not fewer than 18,000 looms, which were annually supplied with 12,000 quintals of raw materials. In consequence of the acts of the convention, the population was greatly diminished, and in 1802 the number of looms was reduced to seven hundred. When France by colossal strides extended her frontiers from the Tiber to the Elbe, Lyons became again an important manufacturing town; still, however, the population is not so great as it once was, for with the suburbs of Vaise, La Croix Rousse and La Guillotiere, it amounts only to 172,000 persons; but it may be observed that the manufactures have become more extensive than they were even during the period when silks were generally worn. The number of looms at present is equal to nearly twenty thousand; manual labour has been abridged by improved machinery, and the products of each workman are greater. Thus, with a diminished population it manufactures more than it did forty years ago, and as the inhabitants consume much more, the revenue has increased in proportion; according to the last accounts, it is not less than 3,120,000 francs, or about L.130,000.

The Lyonese allow that their town is very dirty, but they insist that some of the edifices are very magnificent; as if fine buildings were in good keeping with filthy streets. The time in which the cathedral^a was founded, has not been ascertained; it may be admired for the imposing simplicity of the interior, and the richness of the portal. The palace of the archbishop was built in the reign of Louis the Thirteenth; in point of size it might serve as a residence for kings. Two fine edifices, namely, the Great Theatre, which reflects the highest credit on the architectural talent of the celebrated Soufflot, and the town-house, which, with a single exception, may be allowed to be the finest in Europe, are situated at no great distance from each other, in the quarter of St. Clair, the most fashionable part of Lyons. Within the chamber of commerce and the arts are the exchange together with the collections of paintings and antiquities,^b an union descriptive of the character of the people, who estimate the arts and sciences only inasmuch as they may be made subservient to trade and industry. The ancient convent of the Trinity has been changed into a royal college; it contains the most valuable provincial library in France, a library consisting of a hundred and six thousand volumes and eight hundred manuscripts in different languages.

In Lyons, as well as in other places, the desire of knowledge has increased of late years; it is to be hoped that it may become still more general, and that it may extend to every class of the community. The wealthy by diffusing the blessings of education, have it in their power to confer the greatest benefits on the poorer citizens, and to secure the prosperity of their town, for the concomitants of diffused knowledge are additional industry, improvements of every sort, public tranquillity and public happiness. There are at present five scientific societies in Lyons, namely, the royal academy of sciences, arts and belles lettres, the Linnæan

society, the society of agriculture and natural history, and those of medicine and pharmacy. Among the places of education, we may mention the school of rural economy and the veterinary art, that of arts and trades, and that of drawing;^c public lectures are besides delivered on natural history, chemistry, geometry and physics. A botanical garden and a royal nursery may be also enumerated among its useful establishments.

The beneficent institutions attest that in Lyons at least, philanthropy is not an empty sound, a word void of meaning. The infirmary^d is the best institution of the kind in France. Fourteen hundred children are admitted every year into an hospital, in which four times that number are educated and maintained.^e A religious house has been set apart for such as are afflicted with the loss of reason, and in another building the best means are provided for the instruction of the deaf and dumb;^f in addition to these places may be mentioned a savings-bank for the whole department, together with different friendly and benevolent societies.

The names of the distinguished men that have been born at Lyons from the earliest times to the present period, might form a long list. Germanicus, Claudius, Marcus Aurelius, Caracalla, Geta, the bishop Sidonius Apollinaris, Peter Valdo the reformer,^g Philibert Delorme the architect of the Tuilleries, Coustou and Coysevox the celebrated statuaries, Anthony de Jussieu the botanist, Morellet the political economist, Rozier, a writer on agriculture, Patrin the mineralogist, and Marshal Suchet, are the most remarkable persons whose names occur at present to our recollection.

The minute description which such a city as Lyons requires, may be apt to make us forget that there are other places in the neighbourhood. The people of St. Genis-Laval manufacture oil, different colours and banners; the pictures with which they supply several churches, may with equal accuracy be denominated *manufactures*.^h Arbresleⁱ is situated at the confluence of the Brevanne^k and the Tardine; the town was completely destroyed by inundations in 1715, but it was soon afterwards rebuilt; the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in hemp.

The course of the Rhone on the east and the south, and that of the Saone on the west, form the limits of the department^l which the Ain traverses from north to south. The last river divides it into two regions: the western on the right consists of an undulating plain,^m in which the lands are argillaceous and in many places humid and marshy; the eastern on the left is covered with heights about 2,600 or 3000 feet in elevation,ⁿ which are attached to the Alps by the chain of Jura. The same country is watered by impetuous torrents, and intersected by deep vallies, almost all of which extend from north to south. In the first region, agriculture forms the principal occupation of the inhabitants, and the harvests are sufficient for the consumption; the only mineral productions are peat and coal. The people in the second cultivate fruitful vallies, rear a great number of sheep

^a The church of St. John. M. B.

^b "The palace of commerce and the arts, which contains the exchange and the museum of paintings and antiquities.—" The building of St. Pierre, (formerly the monastery of St. Pierre,) forming the principal facade of the Place des Terreaux. It contains a school of design, a chemical laboratory, a physical cabinet, the collection of pictures, and the museum of antiquities. The various societies also hold their meetings in the same place. Ed. Encyc.—The Academy of Fine Arts.—P.

^c The school of design.—P.

^d "Hotel-Dieu—founded in the reign of Childbert I."—The present building was erected from the designs of M. Soufflot.—P.

^e "The hospital of La Charité receives annually 1400 children, and provides for the support and education of four times that number."

^f "An institution for the deaf and dumb, and a religious house for the reception of lunatics."

^g The leader of the Waldenses—born at the village of Vaux (Vaud) in Dauphiny, on the banks of the Rhone near Lyons; became a wealthy merchant in that city.—P.

^h "St. Genis-Laval, where they manufacture oil, colours, pictures for churches, and standards (*bannières*)."

ⁱ L'Arbresle.

^k Brevenne.

^l Department of the Ain.

^m "Plateau"—elevated plain or table-land.

ⁿ "—mountains, from 700 to 900 toises in elevation."

and horses,^a and work iron mines and different quarries, the last of which afford excellent materials for building, and the best lithographic stones in France.

Few towns of any importance are situated in the department. Trevous, built like an amphitheatre on the left bank of the Saone, is the capital of a district,^b in which the principal places are Montluel, a town of three thousand eight hundred inhabitants, many of whom are employed in manufacturing cloth, and Thoissy,^c the birthplace of the celebrated anatomist Bichat. The small but neat town of Pont de Vaux on the banks of the Ressouse, communicates with the Saone by means of a canal; the inhabitants have erected a fountain in the form of a pyramid to the memory of General Joubert, their townsman. Bourg en Bresse, so called from the name of the ancient province of which it was the capital, is at present the chief town in the department. It rises on the site of *Tannus*, which was founded about the end of the fourth century;^d it is well built, watered by fountains, and embellished with agreeable walks on the Ressouse and the Veyle;^e its commerce might be greatly improved if it were within reach of navigable rivers. It has given birth to two distinguished men, namely, Vaugelas the grammarian, and the astronomer Lalande.

The territory between the Rhone and the Ain, constituting the districts^f of Belley and Nantua, was formerly called Bugey, a country connected with ancient recollections, and abounding in picturesque sites. Polybius was of opinion that this small region might be termed the Celtic Delta, a name to which it is still entitled from its triangular form. Belley,^g the capital, existed at the time that Brennus undertook his expedition against Rome, and was destroyed by the people, who fled at the approach of the fierce Gaul; it did not become again a place of importance until after the country was conquered by the Romans. The ancient names of Belley were *Bellitium*, *Bellicum* and *Bellica*.^h Alaric burnt it in the year 390; twenty years afterwards it was rebuilt and enlarged by his nephew Wibert.ⁱ It was destroyed a second time by fire in 1385; but Amadæus the Seventh, count of Savoy, again rebuilt it and encompassed it with walls. The small village of Frebuge near Nantua, is the *Forum Sebusianum*, once the principal city of the *Sebusiani*, which has been erroneously confounded by some authors with Bourg en Bresse. Nantua derives its name from the *Nantuates*; it is situated in a narrow valley bounded by steep rocks, near a small lake shaded with trees; the banks of the latter form an agreeable walk, and the waters abound in excellent trout; the inhabitants manufacture linen and paper.^k Oyonnax,^l a burgh at no great distance from Nantua, contains fifteen hundred inhabitants; they carry on a

trade in the same kind of goods.^m An author who has favoured the world with his etymological researches on Bugey,ⁿ maintains that Oyonnax was founded by the Rhodians three centuries before the vulgar era. The people who inhabited the country of Gex, having encouraged the invasion of Gaul by their neighbours the Helvetii, Cæsar, after he had subdued the invaders, united the territory of Gex to that of the *Sebusiani*. The town of Gex is ill built and difficult of access; a terrace that rises above the principal street commands an admirable view of the lake of Geneva, and of the mountains of Savoy grouped round the majestic Mont-Blanc. From the same terrace may be seen Fernex or Ferney in an agreeable valley; it was only a hamlet of fifty inhabitants when Voltaire made it the place of his residence, but that great man introduced there a new branch of industry, and at the time of his death, Ferney contained more than eight hundred watchmakers; their number at present does not exceed a thousand.^o

The department of the Saone and Loire is separated from the last department by the Saone. Fruitful in corn and wine, and in other agricultural products, abounding in coal, lead, iron and manganese, intersected by roads, canals and navigable rivers, and peopled by industrious inhabitants, it may be reckoned among the wealthiest departments in France. Macon,^p the capital, is situated on the right bank of the Saone, and on the frontier of the department. The position may be favourable for the trade in wine, but a worse one could not be selected for the seat of the principal authorities. The town was called *Matisco* by Cæsar, who strengthened it with fortifications, and rendered it a depot for military supplies.^q Several ancient ruins are contained in it, and an old bridge which still remains, is supposed to have been erected by the Roman general. The houses are by no means elegant, and the streets are narrow and ill paved, but the quays are broad and well built. The sanguinary St. Point, who flourished in the sixteenth century, and rendered himself infamous during the religious wars by the atrocities that were then termed the *Sauteries of Macon*, was a native of the town.^r The fine cathedral was destroyed by the revolutionists, but they spared the former episcopal palace.^s The village of Romanèche contains two thousand inhabitants, and the country in the neighbourhood is famous for its wines.^t Cluny,^u a town of four thousand souls, and a place of considerable trade,^x was formerly celebrated on account of a magnificent abbey belonging to the Benedictines. The convent has been changed into a college, and it contains besides other useful institutions.^y The town was the birthplace of Prudhon the painter. Greuze, not less celebrated as a painter, was born at Tournus; the mon-

The translator probably supposed that the last phrase meant two hundred more!—Population of Ferney 720 (Alman. Royal. 1822.)—P.

^p French orthography, *Mâcon*; formerly, *Mascon*. The name of the town exhibits a fair example of the transition from ancient to modern names. Lat. *Matisco*, by inversion *Mastico*, abl. *Masticone*, whence *Masticon*, *Mastcon*, *Mascon*, *Mâcon*.—P.

^q “qu’il rendit importante par ses approvisionnement militaires” —rendered it important for victualling his army.—Q. Tullium Cicronem, et P. Sulpicium, Cabiloni et Matiscone in Æduis ad Ararim, rei frumentariæ causa, collocat. Cæsar. Commentar. Lib. VII. § 63. This is all the mention made of it by Cæsar.—P.

^r “In the 16th century, it had its Carrier in St. Point, who rendered himself infamous during the religious wars, by the atrocities called *Sauteries de Mâcon* (Macon leaps).”

^s The bishopric of Macon has been suppressed.—P.

^t “The wines of Moulin à Vent and of Tournis are produced in its neighbourhood.”

^u Cluni.

^x “—a wealthy manufacturing town.”

^y “The convent contains a college and other useful establishments.”

^a “—rear oxen, sheep and horses.”

^b “Arrondissement.” ^c Thoissy.

^d “It is known to have existed about the end of the fourth century, when it was called *Tannus*” (*Tannum*, Moreri—*Tannum*, Vosgien.) Bourg is mentioned in the legend of St. Gerard, bishop of Macon, who lived in 900. Moreri.—P.

^e “—embellished with promenades, and agreeably situated on the Ressouse and near the Veyle.”

^f “Arrondissements.” ^g Beley, Bellay.

^h *Belica*, Rees’ Cyc.

ⁱ “Wibert, his nephew, rebuilt it in 412.”

^k “It contains spinning mills (*filatures*), and manufactories of horn combs and paper.” It is the principal manufacturing town in the department. (Peuchet).—P.

* *Filatures* for cotton and silk (Vosgien.)

^l Oyonnaz—three leagues N. W. of Nantua (Vosgien).—P.

^m “It is equally noted for its combs.”

ⁿ M. P. Bacon, Recherches sur les origines Celtiques du Bugey, tome i.

^o “It contains at present 200 at the farthest (*deux cents au plus*).”

ument which has been raised to his memory, is certainly the greatest, perhaps the only ornament that can be found in the town.^a The population amounts to five thousand individuals; the principal manufactures are hats and coverlets.

Charolles was formerly the chief town in the small province of Charollais;^b it is at present the capital of a district^c which possesses several manufactories and five or six iron works. Bourbon-Lancy contains two thousand five hundred individuals; it is still frequented on account of its mineral waters; the baths were constructed by the Romans;^d the town bears the name of *Aqua Misine*^e in the Theodosian table. It is unnecessary to go out of the road to examine Louhans^f on the left bank of the Seille, for it consists only of some old houses that project into the streets.^g Chalons sur Saone^h rivals Macon in commerce and industry.ⁱ An old bridge that leads to the suburbs^k may recal an act of cruelty committed by Lothaire; that prince in order to satisfy the hatred he bore the sons of the count of Toulouse, ordered their sister, the fair and virtuous Gerberge, to be dragged at a horse's tail^l along the bridge, and afterwards to be put into a cask, and thrown into the Saone. The town is well built, a fine quay has been constructed along the river, and a lofty obelisk serves to adorn a public walk. Chalons was an important military station in the time of Cæsar, by whom it is called *Cabitolium*,^m but as Danville remarks, there are few places in France, of which the ancient name has been written in so many different ways.ⁿ Denon was a native of Chalons.

The small town of Montcenis rises on a hill between two mountains at some distance to the west of the Central Canal;^o coal and iron mines are worked in the neighbourhood. The burgh of Creusot is a place of considerable trade; it exports glass and crystal to most parts of France; it has its cannon founderies and iron works.^p Autun rises at the confluence of the Arroux and the Creusevaux; it was the *Bibracte* of the *Ædui*, but it received the name of *Augustodunum* during the empire. Triumphal arches, the ruins of temples and amphitheatres, and the extent of the old walls, attest that it was much larger and without doubt much more populous in ancient times than at present. It stands on an

^a "The only remarkable construction in his native town"

^b Charolais, Charolois. ^c "Arrondissement."

^d The great bath, surrounded with circular walls, and paved with marble, is a work of the Romans. (Encyc. Meth.)—It contains a large edifice paved with marble, called the Great Bath—a work of the Romans. (Vosgien.)—P.

^e *Aqua Nisincii*, D'Anv.—*Aqua Nisineæ*, Encyc. Meth. Geog. Anc.—P.

^f Louans, Loans.

^g "—which still contains some old houses (*de vieilles maisons*) that project into the streets."—One may pass under cover through the whole town, owing to the projection of the second story in all the houses. Encyc. Meth.—P.

^h Châlon sur Saone.

ⁱ "—and population."—Population of Chalons 10,609—of Macon 10,965. (Statistical Tables.)

^k "The bridge that crosses the river."—St. Laurent les Chalons, a suburb of Chalons, is situated on an island in the Saone, opposite the town, with which it is connected by a bridge that crosses the two arms of the river. Before the revolution, it was considered a separate municipality. (Encyc. Meth. Vosgien.)—P.

^l "—by the hair (*per les cheveux*)."—

^m This is probably a mistake. The word is twice used in Cæsar's Commentaries (Lib. VII. § 40, *ex oppido Cabillono*; § 83, *Cabiloni et Maticone*.) in which it is written *Cabillonum* and *Cabilonum* in several different copies referred to, including the Elzevir edition 1635, *ex emendatione Jos. Scaligeri*. It is written *Cabillonum* in D'Anville, Moreri, Encyc. Meth. (Geog. Anc.) and Vosgien. The translator has altered the original to *Cabitolium*.—P.

ⁿ Ptolemy calls it *Caballinum*; Strabo, *Cabylinum*; and Ammianus Marcellinus, *Cabillo* in the Itinerary of Antonine, it is called *Cabel-*

eminence above an ancient *Campus Martius*, which has been transformed into a fine walk shaded with trees.¹

The nature of the country has pointed out two different occupations to the people in the department of the Cote d'Or;² the one consists in cultivating the ground, and the other in working metals.³ With more roads than the average number in other departments, it is comparatively thinly peopled; but it may be urged that the occupations in which the inhabitants are engaged do not require so many hands as other branches of industry. If the vineyards be excepted, the country is not well cultivated; under better management, a number of oxen and sheep sufficient for the consumption might easily be reared.⁴ The course of the Ouche divides the department into two distinct regions; the one on the south, through which the small chain of the Cote d'Or extends, is admirably adapted for the culture of the vine, while the one on the north, which includes part of the plateau of Langres, may be styled the region of iron, where Vulcan seems to reign.

To judge of the richness of the southern region, it is only necessary to travel the road which leads from Chalons sur Saone to Beaune and Dijon. The burgh of Nolay, situated not far from Beaune, and the birthplace of the celebrated Carnot, is encompassed with the vineyards of Mont-Rachet.⁵ The different growths of Meursault rival each other, while Pomard and Volnay⁶ are equally famous for their light wines. The vineyards of Richebourg, Romanée and Clos-Vougeot⁷ encircle the small but picturesque town of Nuits. Beaune is situated in the middle of the same rich country, and its successive embellishments may be attributed to an improving trade. The most remarkable edifice in the town, is the hospital founded in 1443 by Rollin, chancellor to Philip, duke of Burgundy.⁸ It is well known that the same chancellor imposed very heavy taxes on the people; "as he has reduced many to poverty," said Louis the Eleventh, "he is right to build a house for them."⁹ Monge, the philosopher, and one of the founders of the Polytechnic school, is one of the few great men that Beaune has produced. The vineyards in the adjoining territory extend on the right of the Saone to the small town of Jean de Losne,¹⁰ a place of sixteen hundred inhabitants, and one that holds no mean

lio; in the Imperial Tables,¹¹ *Caballodunum*; and in the Table of Peutingier, *Cabilio*.

* "Notice de l'Empire" (*Notitia Imperii*.)

^o Canal of the Centre (*canal du Centre*.)

^p "Creusot contains forges and iron works (*usines*), founderies for cannon and bullets, and the celebrated royal manufactory of crystals" (crystal glass.)

^q "It is situated on an eminence, and its Champ de Mars, which is planted with several rows of trees, commands a magnificent prospect."—The Champ St. Lazare is the largest square in Autun. (Moreri.)—P.

^r So called from the Cote d'Or, a chain of low mountains or hills, extending from Dijon, by Nuits, Beaune and Chalons, to Macon, which derives its name from the excellence of the wines it produces.—P.

^s "—travaux des usines" (iron works.) There are iron mines and numerous forges in the department (Peuchet. Vosgien.)—P.

^t "It does not rear a sufficient number of oxen and particularly of sheep for the consumption of the inhabitants."

^u Montrachet.

^v Vollenay.

^w La Romanée—Le Clos de Vougeot (the enclosure of Vougeot—Voujault or Vougeot, a village near the source of the Vouge, one league from Nuits. Vosgien.)—P.

^x Nicholas Rolin, born 1419, died 1461. Beauvais.—P.

^y "Louis XI. said of him, that he had made so many poor by his exactions, that it was just he should build them a house." A similar repartee is related of Francis I. Cardinal Duprat had ordered an addition to the Hotel Dieu at Paris, called the Legate's Hall, to be erected at his own expense. "It will be large enough," said the king, "if it will hold all the poor he has made."—P.

^z St. Jean de Losne—Lône—Laune. (Lat. *Fanum Sancti Johannis de Lodonâ*.)—P.

celebrity in the military annals of France. It was besieged in the year 1636 by the grand duke Galeas^a at the head of sixty thousand men; it was defended by eight pieces of cannon, fifty soldiers^b and four hundred inhabitants, determined to die rather than to surrender; among the latter were Peter Desgranges and Peter Lapre, two magistrates whose admirable example was imitated by the citizens. The town supported two assaults, during which the women fought at the side of their brothers and husbands. A fall of rain that lasted twelve hours, afforded the besieged some respite from continued labour; in that interval they resolved to spring their houses and to perish in the ruins; but on the ninth day the imperial army, daunted by their heroic efforts, raised the siege.^c A few hours afterwards, a body of French troops came to the assistance of the town. Louis the Thirteenth offered titles of nobility as a reward for so great heroism, but the inhabitants had the spirit and good sense to refuse them.

The vineyards in the neighbourhood of Beaune meet others near Dijon; the different growths of Brochon, Chenove, Beze and Chambertin near Gevray,^d are so well known that the reader may form some notion of these villages from the commercial importance of their products. Dijon stands in the middle of a pleasant and fruitful plain, terminated by verdant hills. The streets are broad and straight, and the houses are large and well built; the Ouche and the Suzon meet in the town,^e and the ramparts that surround it, are shaded by lofty trees. A Gothic castle built by Louis the Eleventh, and flanked with massive towers, is all that remains of the ancient fortifications. The front of the ancient palace that belonged to the dukes of Burgundy, adorns the Royal square,^f the finest of the fifteen squares in Dijon. In the same edifice are contained a library of forty thousand volumes, together with valuable collections of paintings, statues, antiquities and natural history;^g the old tower that surmounts it, serves as an observatory. The cathedral is a Gothic building, of which the boldness cannot be too much admired; the portal of St. Michael may be mentioned as a specimen of finished workmanship; while the church of St. Benigne is surmounted by a steeple,^h three hundred and seventy-five feet in height. The park, a public walk, communicates with the town by a road or avenue formed by four rows of trees. Science and literature have been long cultivated and honoured at Dijon; in proof of this assertion, it is hardly necessary to mention the college, the schools of philosophy, law and medicine,ⁱ or the names of Bossuet, Crebillon, Piron, Freret, Rameau, Saumaise, Daubenton

^a Matthias Gallas (Galas or Galasso,) field-marshal in the imperial service.—P.

^b 150 soldiers (Encyc. Meth.)—100 soldiers (Vosgien.)—P.

^c "A rain of twelve hours' duration, which discouraged the besiegers, and the determined resolution of the inhabitants to blow up their houses and perish in their ruins, at last induced the imperial army, after nine days of unheard of efforts on the part of the besieged, to abandon their enterprise and retire."

^d "The different vineyards (*clos, enclosures*) of Brochon, that of the king (*du Roi*) at Chenove, and those of Beze* and Chambertin, near Gevray†—"

* Baise.

† Gevrey.

^e It is situated between the rivers Ouche and Suzon, the first of which rises to the south of the town, while the latter flows past it on the north. Ed. Encyc.—P.

^f Place Royale.

^g "—a museum of paintings, sculpture, antiquities and natural history"—The Museum of Dijon.—P.

^h "—by a pyramidal spire"—The spire—has only a small diameter, but it rises to the height of 375 feet. Ed. Encyc.—P.

ⁱ "The college, the faculty of sciences, the schools of law, medicine and the fine arts, the agricultural society, and the academy of sciences and letters."—In the organization of public instruction, Di-

jon has an academy, faculties of law, sciences and letters, and a royal college. (Alman. Royal. 1822.)—P.

^k Freret was born in Paris, Daubenton at Montbard, and the celebrated Claude de Saumaise (*Salmasius*) at Semur en Auxois. Pure Saumaise, a relation of the preceding, and one of the fathers of the Oratory, was born in Dijon.—P.

^l It was built by order of Margaret of Bavaria, duchess of Burgundy.

^m "—a fine bridge over the Saone, terminated by a levee in masonry, 2400 paces long, constructed in 1505 against the inundations of the river."—The stone causeway (*levée de pierre*), at the end of the bridge, is 2350 paces long, and was constructed in 1505, by order of Margaret of Bavaria, duchess of Burgundy. It has twenty-three arched openings (*arcades*) to allow free passage to the waters of the river during inundations. Encyc. Method.—It is in fact a raised road leading from the bridge across the low lands bordering the Saone.—P.

ⁿ "It possesses a furnace, which is employed in casting wheels for machinery."

^o Montbar.

^p "Arrondissement."

^q "Its castle contains several manufacturing establishments (*éta blissemens d'industrie*)." ^r Department of the Yonne. ^s "Wheat and oats"

Department of the Yonne.^r Dijon was founded before the Roman conquest; it was then called *Dibio*; Marcus Aurelius was the first who encompassed it with walls and thirty-three towers. Gregory of Tours informs us that the emperor Aurelian adorned it with temples, and rendered it an important fortress; much about the same period, it was known by the name of *Divio*.

If there are other important places in the same department, it may be attributed not to vineyards and wine presses, but to forests, forges and iron works. The town of Auxonne consists of well built streets, and is surrounded by ramparts forming pleasant walks; it has a fine bridge across the Saône, bounded on one side by a stone embankment two thousand four hundred yards in length, a work which was completed in the year 1505 to defend the town against the inundations of the river;^l ^m it contains besides an arsenal and a royal foundry. Fontaine-Française, a populous and wealthy burgh, may be mentioned on account of a monument which was erected to commemorate the victory that Henry the Fourth gained over the duke of Mayenne and the Spanish troops; it possesses several furnaces, and exports wheels for machinery.ⁿ

Saulieu, a town of three thousand inhabitants, and the birthplace of the celebrated Vauban, is situated on the west of the canal of Burgundy; it carries on a considerable trade in fire-wood and in timber. The Armançon flows below the neat and small town of Semur en Auxois, which is built on the summit of a granite rock. Montbard,^o a town of 2000 inhabitants, rises like an amphitheatre above the canal of Burgundy; it is commanded by the castle where Buffon was born; the forges and furnaces that were erected by the great naturalist may be seen in the neighbourhood. There are not many iron works in the district^p of Semur, but there are more than thirty in that of Chatillon sur Seine. The town from which the last district^p takes its name, was an important stronghold during the twelfth century; it was the scene in 1814 of the fruitless negotiations between Napoleon and the allied powers. Different articles are now manufactured within its ancient castle.^q

The department watered by the Yonne^r is less populous than the last, but it produces more grain^s than the inhabitants consume. The woods and forests cover a great extent of surface; the vineyards are not only valuable from the quality of their produce, but they yield nearly twice as much wine as those of the Cote d'Or. Agriculture, however, has not attained the requisite degree of perfection, for in proportion to the surface, fewer oxen and sheep are reared

than the last, but it produces more grain^s than the inhabitants consume. The woods and forests cover a great extent of surface; the vineyards are not only valuable from the quality of their produce, but they yield nearly twice as much wine as those of the Cote d'Or. Agriculture, however, has not attained the requisite degree of perfection, for in proportion to the surface, fewer oxen and sheep are reared

than the last, but it produces more grain^s than the inhabitants consume. The woods and forests cover a great extent of surface; the vineyards are not only valuable from the quality of their produce, but they yield nearly twice as much wine as those of the Cote d'Or. Agriculture, however, has not attained the requisite degree of perfection, for in proportion to the surface, fewer oxen and sheep are reared

than the last, but it produces more grain^s than the inhabitants consume. The woods and forests cover a great extent of surface; the vineyards are not only valuable from the quality of their produce, but they yield nearly twice as much wine as those of the Cote d'Or. Agriculture, however, has not attained the requisite degree of perfection, for in proportion to the surface, fewer oxen and sheep are reared

than the last, but it produces more grain^s than the inhabitants consume. The woods and forests cover a great extent of surface; the vineyards are not only valuable from the quality of their produce, but they yield nearly twice as much wine as those of the Cote d'Or. Agriculture, however, has not attained the requisite degree of perfection, for in proportion to the surface, fewer oxen and sheep are reared

than in the rest of France; indeed if it were not for the number of roads and navigable rivers, which enable the inhabitants to carry on their commerce, it would be one of the poorest departments in the kingdom, notwithstanding its fertility.

In a district^a situated on the right of the road that passes through the principal towns in the department, are united the romantic beauties of Switzerland, and the fertility which characterizes the vineyards of Burgundy. Avallon,^b the chief town in the district,^a is mentioned by the name of *Aballo*, in the Itinerary of Antonine, and as an important fortress, in the capitularies of the French kings. It is known, however, that it was besieged and taken in the year 931 by Emma, the wife of king Raoul. Seventy-four years afterwards, king Robert, coveting the fair country of Burgundy, made himself master of the town; but no sooner had his son Henry the First ascended the throne, than it was taken from him by his brother Robert who retained it with the title of duke.^c The houses are well built, and the situation is very romantic; the walk called the *Petit Cours*,^d owes its chief charm to its position above the steep banks of the Cousin, a small river that winds through a deep and sequestered valley, partly enclosed by precipitous rocks, towering above verdant woods or gardens that seem to hang in the air; in another direction the same valley leads to fruitful fields and extensive forests.^e

The town of Vermanton contains about three thousand inhabitants; it carries on a trade in wine and timber; on the road that leads to it, and at no great distance above the village of Arcy sur Cure, are situated the extensive grottos which were formerly considered the greatest natural curiosities in the province. They consist of a great many halls that communicate with each other by narrow passages, so low in some places that it is necessary to stoop^f in order to pass through them; one of them encloses a small lake of which the depth has never been measured. All of them are lined with stalactites, which have the appearance of festoons, immovable cascades, organs or colonnades, and which

when lightly struck emit sounds that are several times echoed with different modulations. Beyond the confluence of the Cure and the Yonne, and on the left of the last river, may be seen the hills, which have given to Coulanges the surname of *la Vineuse*.^g Chablis, a town of two thousand five hundred inhabitants, and famous for its white wines, is situated on the right, near the Seray: in the vicinity are the remains of a Roman way which led from Langres to Auxerre.

The vineyards of Ligny le Chatel, Seignelay, Toucy, and other places equally celebrated in the country, surround the former capital of Auxerrois;^h it might be difficult to determine its ancient name with scrupulous accuracy, but antiquaries may choose between *Altissiodorum*, *Autissiodorum* and *Antissiodorum*.ⁱ It is certain, however, that the Romans made it the chief town of a *Pagus* by rendering it independent of *Senones*.^k Some wealthy wine merchants who have become collectors of antiquities, possess medals and coins which were found in the town, and which prove that money was once struck there. It was desolated at different times by the Huns, the Normans, the Saracens and the English, and it was more than once pillaged during the religious wars in the sixteenth century;^l but the courageous resistance of one man preserved it from the crimes and horrors of St. Bartholomew. The inhabitants of Auxerre had been included in the proscribed lists which preceded the massacre; a magistrate, afterwards president Jeannin, whom historians call the *most virtuous minister* of Henry the Fourth, had the glory of saving his native city. Amyot holds the first rank among the learned men that were born in Auxerre;^m it has also given birth to John Duval, an able antiquary, to Royer de Pilles, the author of the lives of the painters,ⁿ to the Abbé Lebœuf, who has left many valuable writings concerning the history of Paris,^o to St. Palaye, known by his memoirs of chivalry,^p to Retif de la Bretonne, whose familiar style is well adapted for the task he undertook—a faithful picture of the burgesses and manners of his day,^q and lastly, to Sedaine, a dramatic writer of an inferior

^a Arrondissement.

^b Avalon.

^c Robert, king of France, nephew of Eudes the last duke of Burgundy of the first race, who died without children in 1001, took possession of the dutchy as his heir, and gave it as an appanage to Robert his third son, first of the dukes of Burgundy of the second race. Robert, king of France, died in 1031, and was succeeded by Henry I. his second son. (Moreri.)—King Robert made himself master of Avallon, after three months' siege, in 1005; his son Robert, afterwards duke of Burgundy, took it in 1031, and kept it with the dutchy. (Encyc. Meth.)—P.

^d Little Corso.

^e "—a small river that winds through a valley a hundred feet in depth, bordered by precipitous declivities, along which pointed rocks rise amidst verdant thickets, and above which gardens seem suspended in the air. The view along this narrow valley is at last terminated by fertile fields and extensive forests."

^f "To crawl on the hands and knees (*à plat ventre*.)"

^g Colanges or Coulanges les Vineuses (*Colonia Vinosa*), so called from the excellent wine produced on the adjoining hills. Encyc. Meth.—P.

^h Auxerre.

ⁱ Ancient names of the town, according to different antiquaries and the Itinerary of Antonine. M. B.—*Autissiodorum*, D'Anv.—*Altissiodorum*, *Autissiodorum*; according to the Table of Peutinger, *Antessiodorum*; and according to the Itinerary of Antonine, *Autissiodorum*. Encyc. Meth. art. Auxerre.—No less than thirteen Latin names of the town are enumerated by Moreri.—P.

^k "—by detaching it from the territory of the *Senones* (cité des *Senones*"—*civitas Senonum*.) The Roman provinces consisted of states (*civitates*), which were subdivided into *pagi*. (Omnis civitas Helvetia in quatuor pagos divisa est. Cæsar. Comment. Lib. I. § 10.)—P.

^l "It was disturbed (*troublée*) during the religious wars of the 16th century." The Huguenots pillaged it in 1567. (Moreri.)—P.

^m "It owed to the courageous resistance of president Jeannin its deliverance from the horrible massacre of St. Bartholomew; that magistrate, who became one of the worthiest ministers of Henry IV., could not forget during that horrible proscription, his own native place, and the town that gave birth to Amyot." This sentence, pretty closely rendered from the original, is not very definite, but appears to contain some historical inaccuracies. The president Jeannin, then a simple advocate in the parliament of Dijon, but chosen by the states of Burgundy to manage the affairs of the province, resisted the execution of the orders for the massacre of St. Bartholomew, at Dijon, not at Auxerre. He was a native of Autun, where he was born in 1540. Amyot was a native of Melun, but was appointed bishop of Auxerre, where he died in 1593. Moreri. Beauvais. Dict. Hist. Caen, 1804. Encyc. Meth. Geog. Mod.—P.

ⁿ "—auteur de la *Vie des peintres*"—Roger de Piles, born at Clamecy, 1635; author of several works on painting, among others, of a compendium of the lives of the painters (*Abregé de la Vie des Peintres*.) Beauvais. Dict. Hist.—P.

^o "—author of many writings on the history of the environs of Paris."—Jean Le Beuf, born at Auxerre, 1687. The list of his writings, all on different subjects of French history, amounts to not less than 173. Among them are, Dissertations on the ecclesiastical and civil history of Paris, 3 vols. 12mo., and a History of the city and diocese of Paris, 15 vols. 12mo.—P.

^p J. B. de la Curne de Sainte Palaye, author of a work on the institution and early state of chivalry (*Mémoires sur l'Ancienne Chevalerie*.)—P.

^q "Retif de la Bretonne, an author whose trivial style paints with much fidelity the manners of the lower class of citizens (*la petite bourgeoisie*) during the period in which he wrote."—Retif de la Bretonne, born at the village of Sacy in Burgundy, 1734—died at Paris, 1806—author of numerous works of a light and indelicate character, and at one time the would-be rival of Rousseau. Beauvais.—P.

order, but one who understood at least what has been since termed stage-effect.^a There are many well-built houses in Auxerre, but the cathedral is the only edifice which attracts attention; it is adorned with a magnificent portal and finely painted windows. The marshal of Chastelux,^b after having taken Cravant from the English, restored it in 1423 to the chapter of Auxerre; for this service the chapter granted a canonry in perpetuity to the eldest sons of the Chastelux family. They took possession of it in boots and spurs, armed with a sword, and covered with a surplice, bearing the canonical amice on the left arm, with a hawk perched on the fist, and holding a hat with feathers in the right hand. It happened in the year 1683 that one of the descendants of the family appeared in this singular costume in the cathedral before Louis the Fourteenth and his court, when some of the young nobles could not refrain from smiling; the king reproved them by asking if they would not wish to have such a proof of an ancestor's valour.^c

Joigny was founded about the year 1000; it must have been a wealthy and commercial town less than three hundred years afterwards, for the inhabitants paid a very large sum of money during the thirteenth century to free themselves from the authority of their counts; it rises like an amphitheatre above the banks of the Yonne, and is commanded by an old castle.

Sens is situated on the right bank of the Yonne; the ramparts may be seen from a great distance; there is reason to believe that they were founded before the time^d that Julian maintained in *Agedincum* or *Senones*, a successful siege against the Germans. The same town became the capital of the Fourth Lyonnaise during the reign of Valens; it rose afterwards to greater importance, for Theodosius the Great made it the seat of an archiepiscopal see, of which the prelates styled themselves primates of Gaul and Germany; but the archbishop of Lyons claimed the first part of their pompous title. As the population of Sens has been long almost stationary, it may be inferred that industry has made little progress. In the year 1788, the number of inhabitants amounted to 7000; at present it does not exceed 9000.^e Several councils have met at Sens, of which the most celebrated is the one which was held about the beginning of the year 1140; it was there that St. Bernard, influenced by personal hatred, brought about the condemnation of Abeilard, but that celebrated theologian, not supposing his tenets *dammable*, appealed to the pope. The cathedral has an imposing effect; it occupies the centre of the finest square in the town. The mausoleum of the Dauphiness and of the Dauphin, father of Louis the Sixteenth, Louis the Eighteenth, and Charles the Tenth, has been restored since the return of the

Bourbon family; it consists of many allegorical figures, the work of Coustou the sculptor. A basso-relievo behind the choir, represents the martyrdom of St. Savinian, the first bishop of Sens. The painted windows attest the genius of John Cousin, one of the earliest French painters and a native of Soucy, a village in the neighbourhood. There are not more than six thousand volumes in the public library; one of the manuscripts, which has been removed to the town-house, is a folio containing the *Officia Stultorum*, as they were formerly celebrated in the cathedral of Sens,^f and also a poetical panegyric of the Ass,^g which used to be repeated or chaunted in some of the churches. The binding of the manuscript is studded with ivory figures representing different subjects connected with the sacred bacchanals of an ignorant and corrupt age, which some have been pleased to style *the good old time*.

The festival of fools held the first rank among those in which sacred, profane and obscene exhibitions were united. It was celebrated about the beginning of the year, in some places on the day of the Circumcision,^h and in others on the day of the Innocents.ⁱ Priests, deacons and choristers elected a bishop or pope for the occasion, who appeared with the pontifical robes and the mitre, followed by a number of ecclesiastics, clad as kings, princes and dukes; there were besides many individuals in various disguises, some as women, and others as different animals, or representing Bacchus, satyrs and heathen divinities. To this motley group his holiness pronounced the benediction; the priests then danced round the choir, assisted in leading an ass covered with a magnificent cope, sung the eulogy of the same animal, and obscene songs, to which all the people brayed by way of response. While the pope or bishop was offering prayers at the altar, the other persons in the church sat down to a feast, got drunk, played at dice, burnt old leather in the censers, and committed every sort of impiety. The songs which were sung on these occasions, have been attributed to Peter De Corbeil, an archbishop of Sens, who died about the beginning of the thirteenth century. The cathedral has not been stained with these pollutions since the year 1530.^k The festival of fools, however, was not the only one of the kind; others of a similar nature were celebrated on the anniversaries of St. Stephen and St. John the Evangelist.^l

Tonnerre is situated on the left of the canal of Burgundy and of the Armançon, a feeder of the Yonne; antiquaries consider it a very ancient town, indeed it is not improbable that it was inhabited long before the Roman invasion.^m The houses are well built, and the neighbouring country is famous for vineyards, of which the wines are exported to most parts of Europe. A spring issues from

^a "Sedaine, a dramatic writer, who had no other merit than his knowledge of stage effect"—M. J. Sedaine, born in Paris 1719, son of an architect, and himself originally a stone cutter. He first wrote for the Comic Opera, to which he gave a great vogue, and then for the Italian Opera and the *Theatre Française*. His dramatic pieces amount to 32 in number, some of which had a very great currency (—one of them (the Deserter) was repeated a hundred times;) they show a perfect knowledge of stage effect, but the language, although easy and natural, is full of inaccuracies. Dict. Hist. Caen. 1804.—P.

^b Claude de Beauvoir, marshal of Chastellux (Chastelus. Moreri).—P.

^c "There is not one of you, said the king, who would not, for the same price, be ambitious of such a privilege"—i. e. who would not consider the canonry worth the oddity of the installation.—P.

^d "—they were probably founded about the time (dont les fondations dotent probablement de l'époque—)"

^e "—does not contain 9000."—Population in the Statistical Table, 8,685.—P.

^f "The fools' service ("office des fous," *Officium Stultorum*.) such as it was formerly celebrated in the cathedral of Sens.—"

^g "It (the service) contains, besides a collection of prayers and chants suited to the occasion, a rhymed prose* in praise of the ass—" The manuscript contains at the beginning a rhymed prose on the ass, while the remainder consists of the prayers of the church mixed together in confusion. Encyc. Meth.

* *Prose*, a Latin composition in rhyme, in which only the number of the syllables is observed, without any regard to quantity—sung at the mass, on certain occasions, immediately before the gospel.—P.

^h January 1st.

ⁱ "—on the day of the Kings"—Epiphany, the adoration of the three kings (*magi*), Jan. 6.—The day of the Innocents is Dec. 28.—P

^k "This festival was celebrated in Sens as late as 1530."

^l See the Glossary of Ducange, and the *Traité des Jeux* by Thiers

^m "It is supposed to have been founded in the time of the Romans."

a rock in one of its suburbs, the waters of which are so copious as to turn several mills a short distance from their source. Tonnerre possesses a college and a school of some celebrity, in which lectures are delivered on the application of geometry to the arts.^a It was the birthplace of Chevalier D'Eon de Beaumont, a person who rendered important services to his country, both as a diplomatist and a general.

It is necessary to pass through part of the country which has been described, and to cross the Upper Saone, in order to examine the frontier departments in Franche-Comté and Alsace. Before proceeding to the latter, the department of the Upper Saone requires a brief description. The heights and vallies between the Saone and Oignon extend in the direction of those two rivers. Vineyards which produce only weak and ordinary wines, are situated nearer the banks of the second than the first; they cover a fortieth part of the whole surface: the woods and forests in different parts of the country occupy about a third part, arable lands rather less than a half, meadows not more than a tenth, and waste lands nearly a fifteenth part of the whole. Although agriculture has made great progress within the last twenty-five years, it is not unreasonable to expect from the fertility of the soil, and from the number and extent of the roads in the department, that additional and important improvements in the same branch of industry may ere long be carried into effect. A great quantity of grain, however, is at present exported to the south, and the culture of the potato has become general; many oxen are reared, but sheep have been so much neglected, that the total number does not exceed forty-five thousand, or in other words, there is not more than one sheep for sixteen inhabitants.^b Coal and iron mines, iron-works, forges and furnaces furnish employment to 3500 individuals. The wages of labourers, overseers, and other expenses connected with these works, give rise to a circulation of L.400,000;^c the neat profit derived from the same source exceeds L.33,000.^d The wealth of the department may therefore be said to consist in its agriculture, in the works already mentioned, in the products of distilleries and different manufactories.^e

The district^f of Lure, the most industrious of the three into which the department has been divided, is situated at the western extremity. The burgh of Hericourt exports cotton stuffs,^g and Vylès-Lure possesses a muslin manufactory, in which nearly five hundred workmen are employed. St. Bresson has been noted for its paper since the year 1660; it supplies the Parisians with the finest vellum paper that is sold in the capital.^h The value of

^a "—a college and a course of geometry applied to the arts"

^b This assertion does not agree with the population in the Statistical Tables, 326,641.—P.

^c "Nearly 10 millions francs."

^d "About 800,000 francs."

^e "Agriculture and the works just mentioned, together with distilleries, cotton mills (*filatures*), and manufactories of hardware, form the principal sources of wealth to the department."

^f "Arrondissement."

^g "—contains several manufactories of cotton stuffs (*cotonnades*)."
^h "St. Bresson contains one of the finest paper mills in France, founded in 1660; the greatest part of its fine vellum paper is sent to Paris."

ⁱ "—amounts in some years to 400,000 francs."—Faucogney and Luxeuil are also noted for their *kirschwasser*. (Vosgien).—P.

^k "Hardware (*quincaillerie*)."

^l "A manufactory of tinned iron at the village of Magnoncourt"—

^m *Lixovium*, D'Anv. Encyc. Meth. Geog. Anc.—P.

ⁿ The inscription was discovered on the 23d of July 1755, among

the *kirschwasser*, which the people of Fougerolles send to the same place, varies from fifteen to twenty thousand pounds.ⁱ St. Loup, a town of two thousand inhabitants, is situated on the right bank of the Angrone; it carries on a trade in straw hats, woollen stuffs, horse-combs and bird-lime. Different articles of cutlery^k are manufactured in Plancher les Mines, which derives its name from a mine of argentiferous lead that is still worked. The white iron works near the village of Magnoncourt^l afford constant employment to more than two hundred and fifty workmen. Few other places of any consequence can be mentioned in the same part of the country; it may be remarked, however, that good hones are exported from Faucogney and Champagney, and that granite quarries might be worked with profit near Melisey and Chateau-Lambert, the latter a village well known for its excellent cheese.

The ancient town of Luxeuil or Luxeu stands in a fine situation on the confines of a large and fruitful plain, watered by the Brouchin and the Lanterne, two rapid rivers abounding in fish; hills covered with lofty woods rise at no great distance from the town. The present name appears to have been derived from *Lug* and *Sui*, two Celtic words which signify warm water; it is certain, however, that the place was called *Lixovium*^m by the Romans. It appears from an inscription, that the baths were repaired by Labienus in conformity to the orders of Cæsar;ⁿ the most of them are now in ruins, but the ruins are not unworthy of the ancients; so long as the waters were held in repute, the inhabitants spared no expense to render the town agreeable to strangers.^o Lure, which is also considered a place of great antiquity, was formerly celebrated for an abbey, founded by St. Deicole in the reign of Clotaire the Second. The chief of the monastery, which afterwards adopted the rule of St. Benedict, took the title of prince of the Holy Empire;^p the building which he occupied serves at present as a residence to the subprefect.

According to the learned dissertations of certain antiquaries whose labour in illustrating the language and manners of the Celts, merited better success, the name of Vesoul comes from two Celtic words, *ves*, tomb, and *houl*, sun; by a process of reasoning as ingenious as it is hypothetical, it has been discovered that the tomb of the sun was connected with an important part of the druidical worship. If the etymology be correct, the town must have existed at a very remote period; it happens unfortunately, however, that it was unknown to the ancients.^q No notice of it can be found in the history of France before the tenth century, and it is only mentioned as the theatre of two important events in the annals of Franche Comté. About

the ruins of the ancient *thermæ*, and is now preserved in the town-house. *LIXOVII THERM. REPAR. LABIENUS JUSS. C. JUL. COES. IMP.*

^o "Those which exist are worthy the magnificence of the ancients. In the watering season, the inhabitants spare no pains to render their town agreeable to strangers." Luxeuil is, in fact, and long has been, a noted watering place—It has five baths, viz. the Benedictines' bath, the Ladies' bath, the Great bath, the Little bath or Poor's bath, and the Capuchins' bath. Encyc. Meth. 1784.—P.

^p The abbot of Lure (Lat. *Luthra, Ludera*; Germ. *Ludders*) has the title of prince of the empire. Encyc. Meth. 1784.—P.

^q "According to the learned dissertations of the antiquaries who investigate the language and antiquities of the Celts, in order to discover the etymologies of the names of our ancient towns, that of Vesoul comes from two Celtic words, namely, *rez*, tomb, and *houl*, sun; this appellation (*tomb of the sun*) is also considered by them a precious relic of the druidical worship. According to the above etymology, the town must have existed at the remotest period of antiquity; it does not appear, however, to have been known to the ancients."

the middle of the sixteenth century, a German army returning destitute of provisions and money from an expedition against Bresse, resolved to plunder Vesoul. The general had called a council of war, in which it was agreed that an attempt should be made to scale the walls, but after a fall of rain that lasted twenty-four hours, the plain was covered with water, and the terrified Germans attributing the phenomenon to an interposition of providence, fled from Vesoul, leaving behind them their baggage and artillery.^a The flight of the Germans was occasioned by a natural cause, and the waters of Frais-Puits^b had the merit of saving the town. The bed of a torrent may be observed about the distance of a league from Vesoul; the same bed remains dry the greater part of the year, and the ravine through which it extends, terminates in a gulf not less than fifty feet in depth by sixty in diameter; it too in ordinary seasons is almost dry, but after heavy rains a great quantity of water is suddenly discharged from it, which inundates the neighbouring meadows, reaching even to the lower part of the town, and changes into a sort of lake the country inclined towards the Saone. This phenomenon continues sometimes for three days, after which the waters retire, the gulf empties itself, and the torrent ceases to flow.^c The siege, that has been mentioned, was by no means creditable to the baron of Polwillers, who ought to have respected a neutral territory, but in the same annals the name of Turenne is associated with an act of bad faith. No sooner had that hero presented himself in 1644 before the gates of the town than it surrendered; the conditions of the capitulation were hardly signed, before it was given up to pillage; the convent of the Annunciates,^d where the inhabitants believed their wives, children and most precious effects to be safe, was not considered inviolable; the town-house was demolished and the archives were destroyed. It is added that it was necessary to pledge the sacred vessels and to sell many valuable articles,^e in order to pay the contributions, and redeem the hostages.

Industry and wealth have been diffused over Franche-Comté since it was united to France in the year 1678. Vesoul since the same period has been enlarged and embellished; the principal church, which may be remarked for the beauty of its altar, and also on account of an ancient sepulchre, was finished in 1745, the present town-house in 1766, the courts of justice^f in 1770, the market in 1772, the new walk in 1774, the barracks in 1777, and the prefect's palace in 1822. The public library has been placed in one of the halls of the college, it consists of more than twenty-one thousand volumes; in an adjoining apartment is a collection of natural history, to which valuable additions have lately been made.^g

^a "Preparations were made to scale the walls, when a rain of twenty-four hours' duration having covered the plain with water, the terrified Germans, attributing this sudden inundation to the sluices which the inhabitants had opened for their defence, fled from the town, leaving behind them their artillery and baggage."¹

^b "The spring called Frais-Puits."

^c *Annuaire du département de la Haute-Saône pour l'année 1825*, par MM. Baulmont et Suchaux.

^d "Annonciades"—Nuns of the Annunciation of the Virgin (*Annunziata*).—P.

^e "To sell the bells (*cloches*)."

^f "Palace of Justice."

^g "The public library, placed in one of the buildings of the college, contains 21,000 volumes; the physical cabinet and the collection of natural history are annually increasing."

^h "It employs annually in transporting its merchandise by land and by water, 86,500 horses."

Several places not unworthy of notice are situated in the neighbourhood of Vesoul. The grottos of Echenos les Molines, at a short distance from the walls, are remarkable for their extent; they also contain many bones of animals now extinct. The foundations of vast edifices, traces of ancient ditches, and the remains of the Roman ways, that have been discovered near Jussey, a town of two thousand six hundred inhabitants, serve to strengthen the tradition that it was built by a Roman colony in the third century. Corre is probably situated on the ruins of *Didatium*, a Gallic city; statues, basso-relievos and medals are found in this humble village, the only remains of an important town.

Gray rises like an amphitheatre above the banks of the Saone; it contained before the revolution, not fewer than eight convents; it carries on at present a great trade in grain, flour and iron. The number of horses employed in conveying the goods by land, and in dragging them along rivers, amounts nearly to 80,000.^h In one work, equal perhaps to any other of the same sort in Europe, are saw and oil mills, mills for tanning leather, and felting cloth, and also a mill in which twenty-four thousand and sixty-six quarters of corn are annually ground.ⁱ The streets are steep and crooked; the town is commanded by an old castle, which was inhabited by Philip the Bold, John the Fearless,^k Philip the Good, and Catharine of Burgundy, the widow of Leopold of Austria.

The lofty summits of Jura form part of the French territory; the chain has given its name to a very industrious department,^l richer perhaps in cattle than any other, abounding in woods, but ill provided with navigable rivers.^m The eastern part is the most mountainous; it may be said to consist of three ridges:ⁿ the highest, contiguous to Switzerland, is covered with snow six months in the year; the soil is comparatively sterile, but the inhabitants are laborious: in the second, fir trees, box and juniper bushes predominate, but there are besides some rich pastures and fertile valleys;^o the third, less elevated than the two others, is also less unfruitful. At the foot of these ridges, in which mines of iron, quarries of marble and saline deposits^p are worked, low hills covered with vineyards that yield good wine, occupy a surface twenty leagues in length; lastly, plains consisting chiefly of arable land form the base or arena of this natural amphitheatre.

The northern part of the plain is traversed by the Doubs, and extends below the forest of Chaux, a forest that covers several hills and a surface of 50,000 acres.^q Dole^r is situated on the banks of the river, at the foot of a hill^s planted with vineyards. The vast forest near the town, the Doubs and the canal of Monsieur, which bathe the walls and fertil-

ⁱ "Gray contains one of the finest works (*usines*) in Europe; it moves a saw mill, an oil mill, mills for tanning leather and fulling cloth, and also a flour mill which grinds 70,000 hectolitres of wheat *per annum*."

^k "Jean Sans-peur."

^l Department of Jura.

^m "—to one of the most industrious and best wooded departments, as well as one of the richest in cattle and one of the poorest in navigable streams."

ⁿ "Plateaus"—table-lands.

^o "The second, covered like the preceding with the fir, the box and the juniper, contains also many pastures and some fertile valleys."

^p "Salines."—See the account of Salins, p. 967.

^q "20,000 hectares."

^r Dôle (Enc. Meth. art. Fr. Comté. Alm. Royal.) Dôle (Lat. *Dola*) (Moreri. Enc. Meth. *in loco*).—P.

^s "On the declivity of a hill (*sur un coteau*)."

ize the fields, the Loue,^a the Cuisanee and the Glantine, that wind at a distance, the curtain formed by the mountains from which the three latter rivers take their source, and the double summit of Mont-Blanc, the most distant object in the picture, are all seen from the *Cours* or highest part of Dole.^b The town might be much improved if the streets were better paved, if the houses were more regular; according to the expression of a flowery writer,^c "it might then look like a nymph in the middle of a grove;" at present, however, it has certainly the appearance of a faded belle. It is very doubtful that Dole was ever a place of much importance; antiquaries may affirm the contrary, but it does not follow from a few medals, some remains of pilasters, some traces of Roman ways, or even from the ruins of an amphitheatre, that the town stands on the site of *Didatium*, besides it might be shown that *Didatium* was an inconsiderable city, although mention is made of it in the geography of Ptolemy.^d The antiquity of Dole may be very probable, but it ought not to be forgotten that no traces of its ancient name have hitherto been discovered, and also that the surrounding country is well adapted for antiquarian research, since there is hardly a village that does not possess a monument of the Celts or Romans.^e Several charitable institutions, a prison that is said to be too elegant and too commodious,^f two or three manufactories,^g public walks and romantic views may enable the reader to form some notion of its edifices, position and industry.

To prove the antiquity of Poligny,^h it has been said that it derives its name from *Polis Solis*, the city of the sun;ⁱ This important discovery and many others of the like kind, made by the antiquaries of Franche-Comté, may be the results of a creative imagination, certainly not of patient research.^k The position of *Castrum-Olinum*, as it is indicated in different itineraries, accords with that of Poligny.^l Although at present merely the residence of a subprefect, it was inhabited in the time of the Romans by the lieutenant of the Great Sequanaise, and it became under the dukes of Burgundy, the summer residence of those princes; it rose then on the height which now commands it. The houses

^a Louve. (Enc. Meth. Vosgien.)—P.

^b "—form a rich landscape, when seen from the highest point of the promenade called the *Cours*" (Corso.)

^c M. Dusillet, mayor of the town.

^d "If the streets were better paved (*moins inégales*), and the houses more elegant and regular, it might, according to the poetical expression of an elegant writer, be said to resemble a nymph in the midst of a grove; but it is not even a superannuated beauty. Dole has never been beautiful; it has never even been a residence of importance, and notwithstanding the dissertations of antiquaries, a few medals, a few remains of pilasters, some traces of Roman roads, and some vestiges of an amphitheatre, formerly discovered in its neighbourhood, do not prove that it has ever occupied the site of *Didatium*, a city besides of little importance, although mentioned by Ptolemy."

^e "Its territory is one of those on which the sagacity of the learned may be very easily employed; there are few villages, where in excavating the soil, some ancient remains may not be discovered."

^f "A prison whose only defect is its elegance."

^g "An important manufactory of chemical products."

^h Poligni.

ⁱ See the "Annuaire du Jura" by M. Bruand.

^k "In order to prove the antiquity of Poligny, the antiquaries of Franche Comté have affirmed that it was formerly called *Polis Solis*, the city of the sun, an opinion which we are far from adopting."

^l "The *Notitia Imperii* makes mention of a residence called *Castrum Olinum*, the position of which agrees very well with that of Poligny."—The ancient *Castrum Olinum* of the *Notitia Imperii*, in which the lieutenant of the Sequanaise (*Provincia Maxima Sequanorum*) resided. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Mod. art. Poligny.)—P.

^m "The canon Jean Molinet, who made a prose translation of the poem of the Rose." J. Molinet, a French poet of the fifteenth century, born at Desureennes, a village in the diocese of Boulogne in Picardy, was almoner and librarian to Margaret of Austria and canon of the

cathedral of Valenciennes, where he died, 1507. He made a prose translation of the Romance of the Rose by Jean de Meung, and was the author of many other works, both in prose and verse, among others of a chronicle of the Low Countries. (Beauvais. Nouv. Dict. Hist. Caen, 1804.)—P.

ⁿ "First president of the court of exchequer (*cour des comptes*)."—Jacques Coytier or Coetier (chancellor of Louis XI.) Dict. Hist. Caen, 1804.—J. Coythier. Beauvais.—J. Coytier or Cottier. Moreri.—In allusion to the last orthography, after he was driven from the court, he placed over the gate of his residence in Paris, an apricot tree (*abricottier*.) with the motto "*a l'abri Cottier*," Cottier in security.—P.

^o 12 o'clock P. M. Christmas Eve.—P.

^p "The neighbourhood of Poligny is rich in ancient monuments: two druidical stones are still held in veneration by the peasantry, who believe that they turn round on themselves, every year, at the moment of the midnight mass; vast Roman constructions, the design of which is unknown, and which the people call the *Chambrettes* (little chambers,) because the traces of a great number of apartments may be still distinguished, promise to repay the trouble of excavation, if we may judge from a specimen of mosaic, which the Count de Caylus regarded as one of the finest of the kind, but which is now concealed under several feet of earth, in the midst of a cultivated field."

^q "The territory of Poligny derives its principal wealth from its wines; it is needless to boast of the vineyards of Arbois"—Wine is made in considerable quantities in the department of Jura; and the wines of Arbois and Poligni, particularly the former, are much esteemed. (Ed. Encyc.)—Arbois is situated two leagues from Poligny and in the same arrondissement.—P.

^r "Do not these old traditions derive their origin from a cruel act of charity committed by Mahaut d'Arbois, countess of Burgundy, who during a dreadful famine, finding it impossible to feed the multitude of poor people who had taken refuge with her, ordered them to be burnt in a barn (*grange*) in which she had collected them."

are well built, and the streets are kept clean by the waters that flow from several fountains. It has given birth to some celebrated men in their time; we may mention the prebend John Molinet, who translated the poem of the Rose,^m James Coitier,ⁿ physician to Louis the Eleventh, and president of the court of exchequer, and lastly, Nicholas Rollin, chancellor to Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy. Many ancient monuments are situated in the neighbourhood; two druidical stones are still held in great veneration by the peasantry, who believe that they turn round of their own accord every year, precisely at the time of the midnight mass.^o The ruins of Roman edifices are situated in different directions, but the purpose for which they were built, has not been determined. The people call them the *Chambrettes*, the traces of many halls or chambers are still apparent; little attention has hitherto been bestowed on them, it might be worth while, however, to make excavations in the vicinity; at least if we may judge from a large piece of mosaic, which the count de Caylus considered the finest specimen of the kind, and which lies at present some feet below the surface of a cultivated field.^p

The products of the vineyards form the principal wealth of the country round Poligny, but the best sorts are those near Arbois,^q a neat and well-built town, the birthplace of general Pichegru, and a place of some celebrity from the remains of Celtic monuments and Roman edifices. The ruins of the ancient castle are imposing; the people relate the nocturnal visits of the evil spirits that haunt them; it is believed by them that the fairy *Melusina* resides often in the highest and largest of its black towers. If these old traditions have not originated from an act of cruelty committed by Mahaut of Arbois, countess of Burgundy, they were at all events strengthened by them; during a severe famine, a great many poor people fled to the countess for refuge and subsistence, finding it impossible to provide for them all, she confined them in a large building which, together with the inmates, was burnt by her orders.^r

Situated at the entrance of a narrow mountain pass, watered by the Furieuse, a small river, and commanded by

the ruins of several old castles, Salins derives its name and wealth from its salt springs, which were found to be very profitable at so early a period as the sixth century, when St. Sigismond, king of Burgundy, ceded them to the monks of the abbey of St. Maurice d'Againe. These monks worked the springs with so much zeal and intelligence, that in a few years a large burgh rose in the neighbourhood of their abbey. Such was the origin of a town which has produced several distinguished men, among others, Fenouillot de Falbaire, the celebrated dramatist.^a ^b A destructive fire that lasted three days, laid Salins in ashes in the month of July, 1825. The hospital and the salt works were the only buildings that remained: the first was too small to afford shelter to the numerous victims of the calamitous event; the second, although important, employed only a small number of hands; still these must have been the only resources of the ruined inhabitants, had they not appealed to the generosity of their countrymen. Subscriptions were opened in every town, and the money given by the benevolent and the charitable, amounted to £.100,000, it was laid out in rebuilding the city.^c A spectacle was then exhibited, that afforded a signal proof of the eagerness with which even the lowest classes of the French receive instruction whenever it is offered to them: the workmen flocked every evening round a former pupil of the Polytechnic school, who applied his knowledge of geometry and mechanics to teach them the best and most economical method of rebuilding their houses.^d

The territory of Lons le Saulnier formed in the middle ages the greater part of Scoding or Sco-d'In, literally the country on the Ain,^e the inhabitants of which were distinguished then, as they are now, by their courage. The people in the high country that extends to the east of the town, are said to be more active and intelligent than their neighbours in the west, who prefer agricultural labour to manufacturing industry. Lons le Saulnier was founded in the fourth century;^f the name of the town signifies a measure of salt,^g and it is to the salt springs in its vicinity, that its origin may be attributed. It is traversed by two small rivers, the Valiere and the Solvan, which flow through an agreeable valley, surrounded with vineyards that yield excellent wine. The ruins of two strong castles, those of Montmorot and Pymont, crown the two hills that command the town. The Franciscan church, which was built in the year 1250, that of St. Desiré, still more ancient, a large hospital, in which more than a hundred and fifty patients

may be accommodated, and lastly, the salt works, of which the annual produce is not less than twenty thousand quintals, are the most remarkable buildings in Lons le Saulnier, the birthplace of general Lecourbe, of the lyric poet Rouget de Lisle, and of Roux de Rochelle, the author of the Three Ages.^h About two leagues northwards, and at no great distance from the village of Beaume, the sources of the Scille issue in large volumes from the crevices in a calcareous rock, which forms a frightful precipice not less than four hundred feet in height, and on which pieces of ice may be seen even in the fine days of spring.

St. Amour, a town of three thousand inhabitants, is situated near the western frontier of the department; several customs and ceremonies are preserved by the inhabitants, which appear to have been handed down from a very remote period. The evening of the first Sunday in Lent, or as the people call it, the evening of the *Brandons*,ⁱ is observed with the greatest solemnity; all the village girls leave their cottages, and illumine the neighbouring hills with a thousand torches.^k It is not unlikely that the custom originated from a festival to commemorate the story of Ceres seeking her daughter Proserpine.^l If children lose their father, if a wife becomes a widow, the relatives meet in the house of the deceased, and partake of a repast; the women may minister consolation, but the men are only admitted to the feast, and one of them with a glass in his hand pronounces a sort of funeral oration.^m The burgh of Arinthodⁿ rises on the ruins of a Celtic temple dedicated to *Mars Segomon*, as is proved by an ancient inscription discovered there in honour of that divinity, to whom the *Segores*, a powerful tribe in Bresse,^o consecrated part of the spoils which they took from their enemies. The ruins of the ancient castle of Olliferne, near Condes on the Ain, crown an almost inaccessible mountain, the only one in Jura which affords shelter to bears. The castle was destroyed by the French in the sixteenth century, and on account of its obstinate resistance, all those who had fled to it, were killed by the assailants. According to tradition, three noble ladies were put into a cask,^p and precipitated from the summit of the mountain into the river. There are few peasants in that part of the country who have not met these noble dames during the night, or who have not seen the lord of Olliferne and his attendants hunting in the neighbouring woods.

Several industrious towns and villages are situated in the district^q of St. Claude. Septmoncel is equally noted for its toys and cheese, neither ought it to be forgotten that more

^a "Fenouillot de Falbaire, author of the *Honnête Criminel* and the *Deux Acares*."—He wrote a great number of dramatic pieces, published collectively under the title: *Œuvres de Falbaire*, 2 vols. 1787. The most remarkable are: *L'Honnête Criminel*, *les Deux Acares*, *L'Écrite des Mœurs* and *les Moines Japonaises*. (Beauvois).—P.

^b The best pieces of Falbaire are *L'Honnête criminel* and the *Deux Acares*.—Tr.

^c "Subscriptions were opened even in the smallest villages, and the money thus collected, amounting to more than 2,000,000 francs, furnished the means of rebuilding the town."

^d M. Charles Dupin, *Forces productives et commerciales de la France*: in which the author has inserted the discourse pronounced on that occasion, in the introductory lecture to his course at the Conservatoire Royal des Arts et Métiers.

^e M. Chevalier, *Hist. de Poligni*. (Enc. Meth. art. Scoding).—Le Scoding, *Pagus Scodingorum*. (Enc. Meth.)—If the etymology of M. Chevalier be received, may not *Sco* be equivalent to the German *Gau*, a territorial division of Swabia in the middle ages, corresponding to the Latin *Pagus*. (Büsching, *Erdbeschr. Schwab. Kreis*, Einleit. §1X).—P.

^f "—dates from the fourth century."—According to Gollut and Chifflet, it was already very populous in 332. It was then more than two leagues in circuit, and extended to the east over the heights of

Richebourg, where the vestiges of ancient buildings may be still discovered. (Encyc. Meth.)—P.

^g According to Gollut, an author who has written more than one valuable work on the early history and antiquities of Franche Comté, the *long* is a measure of salt, equivalent to 24 bushels. ["According to Gollut, *an author who gave much attention to the history of Franche-Comté, the *long* is a measure of salt water, containing 24 muids."]

^h Author of *Mémoires historiques de la république Séquanaise et des princes de la Franche-Comté de Bourgogne*, 1592.—P.

ⁱ "Author of a poem, the Three Ages."

^j Torches.—*Brandons*, a wisp of straw lighted.—P.

^k "The hills shine with the light of a thousand torches, borne by the young villagers (*villageois*, masc.) as they traverse the fields."

^l "This custom is a relic of the ancient festivals celebrated in honour of Ceres, in search of her daughter."

^m "At the death of the master of a family, all the relations of the deceased assemble in the principal apartment of the mansion, where a repast is provided; the women console the widow, the men alone partake of the banquet, and it is with glass in hand that the funeral oration is pronounced."
ⁿ Arinthod, Vosgien.

^o "The *Segores*, one of the tribes in Bresse."

^p "The three principal ladies of the castle were put into a cask pierced with nails—"
^q "Arrondissement."

than twelve hundred persons find employment in making and cutting imitation gems. This village, which contains not less than three thousand souls, was wholly destroyed by fire in 1826; but in places remarkable for the industry of their inhabitants, such calamities are soon forgotten. Chateau des Prés supplies the neighbouring country with chairs, tables and different articles of household furniture.^a The burgh of Morez^b exports every year many clocks, watches, pendulums and spits.^c The people in Bois d'Amont, a small village in the neighbourhood, make wooden cases for clocks, and an immense number of props for the vine dressers in the department.^d St. Claude, a place of greater importance than any that has been mentioned, is the only one that remains to be described.

Two brothers, Romain and Lupicin, who are mentioned in different legends, founded an abbey within the territory of St. Claude about the beginning of the fourth century. The wealth and revenues of the abbey were augmented by the profuse donations of French kings and pious princes in different parts of Christendom; indeed in a short time the abbots of the monastery became lords of all the country, proprietors of all the lands, and sovereigns over all the inhabitants. The people allowed themselves to be divested of their privileges one after another; every individual who had resided in the country during a year, was enrolled among the vassals of the monks, by whose influence and example the inhabitants became inhospitable, indolent, cruel and superstitious. A law was passed that completed their degradation, the wife or children of a vassal could not succeed to his house, household furniture or moveable goods, they were sold for the benefit of the abbey; that iniquitous custom, against which Voltaire employed all his eloquence in vain, was not abolished before the reign of Louis the Sixteenth.^e St. Claude was originally known by the name of Condat; ^f extensive ruins in the vicinity induce us to believe that it was a place of some celebrity in the time of the Romans; it was afterwards called St. Oyant from one of its abbots; at a later period it took the name which it bears at present, but which was changed during the revolution for that of Condat-Montagne. It was completely destroyed by fire in the year 1799, but the sum of 750,000 francs, granted by the consular government, and subscriptions collected in every part of France, enabled the inhabitants to rebuild it according to an improved and more regular plan. It is situated in a low sequestered valley, bounded on one side by mountains covered with forests, and on the other by arid heights. There are twelve works, in which five hundred persons are employed; it exports clocks and watches, musi-

cal instruments, nails, pins, snuff-boxes, chaplets and toys.^g It possesses an hospital, a large college and several other useful institutions.

The mountains that cover a portion of the department of Jura, extend into that of the Doubs, which, like the former, may be divided into three regions, namely, the higher, the middle and the lower. The first is overspread with lofty calcareous rocks, the summits of which are covered with snow during seven or eight months in the year, and are for the most part destitute of vegetation; but on the southern declivities, there are excellent pastures and fine valleys shaded with forests of fir. The houses are scattered at great distances from each other; the inhabitants are hospitable, and they have preserved that simplicity of manners which distinguishes the people in mountainous countries. The second or middle region is under the influence of a milder temperature than the preceding; wheat is cultivated, and the vine grows on some of the heights. But the highest hills are covered with forests of oak or beech, which are in some places mixed with fir, a tree that disappears in the lower part of the country. The lower region, or the plain, stretches along the base of the mountains, and commences at the altitude of a thousand feet^h below their summits. No other region in the department is so populous, none so fertile, and none so abundant in corn and wine. Most of the high plains (*plateaus*) in the two other regions are covered with marshes which seem to be the natural reservoirs of the principal rivers that rise at the foot of the mountains. Among these rivers are the Doubs, which bounds France and Switzerland, but falls first from a precipice eighty feet in height, into an abyss that has never been fathomed; the Loue,ⁱ which puts in motion several mills at no great distance from its source; the Dessoubre, noted for its trouts; and the Lison, which forms a cascade near a fruitful valley, and escapes through crevices in the rocks into a different part of the country.^k Lakes and large marshes, subterranean labyrinths, grottos in the form of glaciers,^l coal mines^m and mineral springs are situated at the base of the mountains.

Pontarlier rises on the Doubs at a short distance from a pass across Jura, between France and Switzerland; as the same pass was known to the ancients, and is still defended by a fort on Mount Joux, a name probably derived from *Mons Jovis*, it may be readily believed that the town is a place of great antiquity. D'Anville supposes it the ancient *Ariolica*, which is mentioned in the Itinerary of Antonine; but Drotz, the erudite historian of Franche-Comté,ⁿ has shown that the opinion of the celebrated geographer is at least doubtful. In the most ancient documents, it bears the names

^a "Château des Prés is noted for manufacturing chairs, buffets and different articles of furniture from fir." ^b Morey. Vosgien.

^c "—many clocks (*horloges, pendules*) and jacks (*tourne broches*)." ^d "Bois d'Amont manufactures in wood, clock-cases, pails, boxes, and vine props."

^e "The domains of the abbey, enlarged by the immense donations of the kings of France, of different princes, and of all the faithful, became so important that the abbots of the monastery finally became lords of the whole country, proprietors of all the lands, and possessed of the power of life and death over all the inhabitants. Whoever had resided a year in the country was inscribed in the list of their vassals (*slaves*), and in whatever place his property was found, it was torn from his wife and children, and sold for the benefit of the abbey. This monstrous custom, which was strenuously opposed by Voltaire, was not entirely abolished till the reign of Louis XVI."—The exertions of Voltaire were not in vain. The affair was brought by him before the King's Council, who referred the decision to the parliament of Burgundy, by whom the authority of the monks was greatly abridged, and ultimately in consequence of his representations, it was entirely abolished. So far had the privileges of the abbey been abused, that the property of French merchants, who had only rented

a house for a year within their territories, and who had afterwards lived and died in other parts of the kingdom, was after their death taken from their families, and sold in the name of the abbey. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^f Latin, *Condate, Condatistum*. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^g "It contains 12 establishments for turnery, which employ more than 500 workmen; also manufactories of clocks and watches (*horlogerie*), musical instruments, cords, nails, pins, snuff-boxes, beads, and toys for children." ^h "300 metres."

ⁱ Loue. See note ^a, page 966.

^k "—the Lison, which just before it enters (*près d'arroser*) a pleasant valley, issues in a fine cascade, from a cave in the rock."

^l "Grottos that form natural ice-houses (*glacières*);" i. e. in which ice is preserved throughout the year.—The chain of Jura contains no glaciers; but blocks of ice, and columns of snow, are found in some deep caverns. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^m "—a coal mine (*une houillère*)." ⁿ "Drotz, a learned writer, to whom we owe a history of Franche-Comté, his native country"—Fr. N. E. Droz, born at Pontarlier, 1735, author of a history of Pontarlier (*Mémoire pour servir à l'histoire de Pontarlier*, 1760. (Beauvais.)—P.

of *Pontalia* and *Pons Aelii*. The streets are regular, and the houses are well built; the industry of the inhabitants and the trade they carry on with Switzerland has doubled the population within the last forty years. It exports annually a great quantity of wormwood wine; it possesses steel and copper foundries, iron works and five tanyards.^a General D'Arson, the person by whose advice floating batteries were employed at the siege of Gibraltar, was a native of Pontarlier.^b There are nineteen works or manufactories in the district of which it is the capital; the most important are three of cotton, two of paper, and one of glass.^c

The district of Besançon is twice as populous as the preceding, and, in proportion to its size, still more industrious. This city is the ancient *Vesuntio*,^d which Cæsar chose as a place of arms during his expedition against Ariovistus; it may therefore be reasonably inferred that it was no inconsiderable town at the time the conqueror of Gaul entered the country. Although devastated by the Burgundians in the fifth century, and by the Hungarians in the tenth,^e it retained its importance; Charlemagne ranked it among his principal strong holds; it became under the dukes of Burgundy, the seat of their courts of justice, and it was raised in the twelfth century, by the emperor Frederick, to the rank of an imperial city,^f a dignity which it preserved until Franche-Comté was united to France. The Doubs divides it into two unequal parts, and almost encompasses the larger or the upper town, winding at the base of the walls, according to the expression of Cæsar, in the form of a curve not unlike a horseshoe.^g A citadel erected on a steep rock commands the town and the neighbourhood. This rock is the ancient *Mons Cælius*; the two quarters of the town communicate by means of a stone bridge, of which the foundations were laid by the Romans. The promenade of *Chamars*, the most agreeable walk in the town, occupies the site of the *Campus Martius*. The *Black Gate*,^h a triumphal arch that was raised in honour of Crispus Cæsar, the son of Constantine, is perhaps the finest ancient monument in Besançon. Within the walls are the remains of an aqueduct, and beyond them the ruins of an amphitheatre; in short, eighteen centuries have elapsed, but Besançon retains its primitive form; it may be compared to an antique statue in a modern dress; it is, however, one of the best built towns in France. The public library and scientific

collections¹ are very valuable; the former contains more than fifty thousand volumes. The products of the manufactories are sent into most parts of the kingdom, one branch of industry, the making of clocks and watches, affords employment to eighteen hundred workmen; and the number is likely to be much increased as soon as the town communicates with the canal of Monsieur.^k It is sufficient to mention the names of Suard and Moncey, among the natives of Besançon, to show that it has contributed not a little to the literary and military glory of France. Ornans, a small place in the neighbourhood, is peopled by three thousand inhabitants; it contains extensive tan works, two paper mills and other manufactories;^l it was the birthplace of the Abbé Millot.

Five hills forming a group, rise on the right bank of the Doubs, about seven leagues distant from Besançon; the nearest is crowned by the ruins of what was formerly the most important fortress in Franche-Comté, and the small town of Beaume les Dames^m stands at its base. The town is supposed to be very ancient;ⁿ it derives its surname from an abbey of canonesses, in which there were not fewer than five nobles among the principal officers or attendants of the abbess.^o The columns that formerly supported the high altar in the church, have been removed to that of St. Genevieve in Paris. Beaume les Dames is at present the capital of a subprefecture; Leclerc,^p the author of a history of Russia, was a native of the town. The small town of St. Hippolyte is situated at the confluence of the Doubs and the Dessoubre, near the extremity of a valley enclosed by hills planted with vineyards, and overtopped by mountains covered with forests. The holy swaddling clothes, which the faithful in Turin kiss and adore, were formerly preserved with superstitious care in an old chapel at St. Hippolyte.^q The neighbouring valley may be mentioned on account of numerous iron works, from which clouds of smoke rise day and night.^r

Before leaving the country watered by the Doubs, we may cross the river to Montbelliard,^s the former capital of a principality,^t and at present the chief town of a district.^u The houses are well-built, and the streets are adorned with fountains; it is commanded by a castle, that was formerly the residence of its princes, but which now serves the double purpose of a barrack^x and prison. The market, and the

^a "It manufactures annually about 90,000 litres of extract of wormwood; it also contains an extensive forge for iron and steel, a copper foundry, and five tanneries."

^b J. C. E. L. D'Arçon, born at Pontarlier 1733, general of division and member of the National Institute, inventor of the celebrated floating batteries at Gibraltar. (Beauvais.)—P.

^c "In the arrondissement of Pontarlier, there are nineteen iron works (*usines*), three cotton manufactories (*fabriques des cotonnades*), two paper-mills, and one glass work."

^d *Vesuntio*. (Cæsar. D'Anv. Enc. Meth.)—P.

^e It was taken and destroyed by the Alemanni and the Marcomanni, near the close of the third century; about the year 413, it submitted to the Burgundians, and was destroyed a second time by Attila (leader of the Huns,) in 451 or 452. (Moreri.)—P.

^f It was made a free and imperial city by the emperor Henry I. in the tenth century. (Moreri.)—P.

^g *Flumen Dubis, ut circino circumductum, pene totum oppidum cingit.* Cæs. de Bell. Gall. I. 29.—The river Doubs, as if drawn round by a pair of compasses, almost entirely surrounds the town.—P.

^h *Porte Noire*.

ⁱ "Musées"—Museums, antiquarian and scientific.—P.

^k "It has numerous manufactories actively employed, and is the centre of an extensive manufacture of clocks (*horlogerie*), in which more than 1800 workmen are engaged; its commerce will increase rapidly, as soon as the Canal of Monsieur shall pass through the town."—Besançon possesses a manufactory for swords and fire-arms, and a large establishment for the manufacture of clocks. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

¹ "It contains seven valuable tanneries, a paper mill, a manufactory of wormwood [See note^a.] and a public library."

^m Baume (Alm. Royal.) Baulme (Moreri.) Baume les Nones (Vosgien.) Baume les Dames, les Nones, or les Nonains (Enc. Meth.)—P.

ⁿ "—to have been an ancient fortress."

^o M. Laurens, *Annuaire statistique et historique du département du Doubs*.

^p Nich. Gab. Clerc or Leclerc, born 1726, died 1798. (Beauvais.)—P.

^q "The chapel still exists in which they formerly preserved the holy shroud (*saint-suaire*), which receives at Turin the kisses of the faithful."

* The shroud in which the Saviour is supposed to have been buried, and which is said to retain the impression of his face and part of his body. Before the revolution, there was one at Besançon, which attracted a crowd of pilgrims twice every year. At that time, not less than seven of these relics were objects of superstitious devotion in the different Catholic countries of Europe. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^r "Cheese is made at St. Hippolyte, and the numerous iron works, situated in the valley, attest by the clouds of smoke that rise from them day and night, their activity and importance."

^s Montbelliard, Mombelliard; in German, Mumpelgard.—Situated at the foot of a rock, near the junction of the Allaine (Halle) with the Doubs, and to the north of the latter.—P.

^t The principality of Montbelliard, previous to the revolution, belonged to the house of Wirtemberg, (into whose possession it came by marriage with the eldest daughter of the last count of Montbelliard,) and was considered one of the immediate states of the German Empire. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^u "Arrondissement."

^x "Barrack for gendarmes."

church of St. Martin, in which a roof^a eighty feet long by fifty broad, is supported without pillars, are the only public buildings of any consequence. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade, which consists in watches, fine cottons and leather; these products of industry represent an annual value of £.50,000.^b

Some branches of Jura and the Vosges constitute on the south and the west, the mountainous region in the department of the Upper Rhine; the eastern part, bounded by the Rhine, and watered by the Ill, the Birse, and other small rivers, and by the canal of Monsieur, forms a long plain; in both regions there are forests, vineyards and fruitful fields. The number of horses and horned cattle corresponds with the richness of the country; but in some places more sheep might be reared, in others the quantity of oats and wheat is insufficient for the local consumption.^c The wealth of the department may therefore be chiefly attributed to the works of which the materials are supplied by its copper, iron and lead mines, to its forests and coal mines, and lastly to its manufactories of woollen and cotton stuffs.

A rock near the base of the Vosges is crowned by an old castle that has been called Bel-Fort on account of its position; a small town of the same name, which from usage is also pronounced and written Befort, rises at the foot of the rock; it was fortified by Vauban. Some of the streets are broad and straight; the barracks are large and well built; the Savoureuse, which washes the walls, turns a great many mills.^d A large cotton manufactory^e has been erected at Massevaux or Mamunster, a town of three thousand inhabitants. Cernay contains a population of five thousand individuals, who are employed in cotton works,^f print-fields and founderies.

The population and industry of Altkirch are of little importance; it need only to be mentioned as the chief town in a district.^g Huningen^h, on the left bank of the Rhine, was a well built town, fortified by Vauban, in the year 1814, when it contained seven thousand seven hundred inhabitants; the number at present does not amount to nine hundred. It was ruined by the invasion in 1815, a disastrous period in the history of France, but one that has been signalized by heroic and glorious achievements. Blockaded by twenty-five thousand Austrians, and defended by a hundred and forty men under the command of general Barbanegre, it was not until the defenders had lost nearly half their number, that the town capitulated with all the honours of war. The small number of the defenders excited the surprise of the

^a "Le plafond"—the ceiling.

^b "The town is enriched by its commerce with Switzerland, and by the manufacture of watches (*horlogerie fine*,) cotton spinning, and numerous tanneries, the products of all which represent an annual value of 1,200,000 francs."

^c "The territory, however, does not feed a sufficient number of sheep, nor does it produce a supply of corn and oats adequate to the local consumption."

^d "Usines."—Befort possesses forges and powder mills. (Vosgien.)—P. ^e "Filature de coton"—cotton mill. ^f "Filatures."

^g "Subprefecture"—arrondissement.

^h "Huningue." Fr.—The population and also the names of the towns, rivers, &c., in the eastern division of the department, including the arrondissements of Altkirch and Colmar, as well as in the department of the Lower Rhine, are German. I have in most instances preferred the original German orthography of the names, giving the French in a note.—P. ⁱ "Mulhouse," Fr.—Mühlhausen, Germ.—P.

^k "—is the centre of manufacturing industry."

^l "Thirteen establishments for spinning wool and cotton (*filatures*,) eleven manufactories of cloths, seventeen of muslins and cottons (*cotonnades*,) and fifteen of printed goods (*toiles peintes*,) besides morocco works, tanneries and founderies."

^m "—in its different manufacturing establishments (*ateliers*,)"

ⁿ Previous to the French revolution, Mulhausen constituted a

victor; not more than eighty soldiers passed before him, and of these thirty were wounded; no time, however, was lost in demolishing the fortifications, and as the tomb erected by Moreau, in 1803, to general Abbatucci, was not even spared, it seemed as if the Austrian wished to punish the dead for the noble resistance of the living.

Mulhausenⁱ is one of the most commercial towns^k in the department of the Upper Rhine; it possessed in the beginning of the year 1828, thirteen woollen and cotton manufactories, eleven of cloth, seventeen of muslin, seventeen of printed calico, several leather works and founderies.^l It contains fifteen thousand inhabitants, exclusively of six or seven thousand workmen who are employed in the town,^m but who reside beyond the walls. It is situated on an island formed by the Ill and the canal of New Brisach. The streets are for the most part regular, and it is adorned with several public buildings, the finest of which are the town-house and the reformed church.ⁿ

Seven or eight small towns, worthy of notice from the industry of their inhabitants,^o are situated in the district of Colmar. Kaisersberg^q is well built, and encompassed with walls; it was formerly an imperial city. Ribauviller^r is adorned with an old castle. Munster carries on a considerable trade in printed cottons and in kirschenwasser. Ruffach^s and Sultz^t may each of them contain four or five thousand inhabitants. Guebwiller^u may be mentioned on account of its sugar-works and cotton manufactory; it supplies different places with nails and hardwares.^v New Brisach^y forms a regular octagon; it was built by Louis the Fourteenth, and fortified by Vauban. St. Marie aux Mines is encompassed by metallic deposits, one of which only is worked. Some writers affirm that *Argentuaris*^z, a Celtic city mentioned by Ptolemy, was situated near Colmar,^{aa} but no traces of it^{bb} can be found either in the town or in the neighbourhood. Colmar, it is well known, was a mere hamlet during the reign of Charlemagne; the emperor Frederick the Second surrounded it with walls in 1220, but it was not raised to the rank of an imperial city before the year 1552. The population was never greater than at present, but the town has long been considered one of the wealthiest places in Alsace; the revenue amounted forty years ago to 100,000 francs;^{cc} it is now more than double. The court of justice may be the finest modern edifice, but it is inferior to an old building—the church of the Dominicans. Few provincial towns in France possess so valuable a library, it consists of more than sixty thousand volumes.^{dd} Martin

small republic, allied with Switzerland. It was originally a free town of the German empire, but being threatened in its liberties by the landgraves of Alsace, it formed an alliance of protection with the Swiss cantons, in the fifteenth century.—P.

^o "—from their manufactures (*fabriques*,)" ^p "Arrondissement."

^q "Kaysberg"—Kaysersberg (Enc. Meth. Vosgien.)—Kaisersberg.—P.

^r Ribauviller, Ribauvilléc (Alm. Royal.)—Ribauvilliers (Enc. Meth. Vosgien.)—Rappolzweiler (Germ.)—P.

^s "Rouffach"—Ruffac (Enc. Meth.)—Ruffach (Vosgien.)—P.

^t "Soultz"—Sulz (Germ.)—P. ^u Gebweiler (Germ.)—P.

^v "Guebwiller, besides its cotton mills (*filatures*) and manufactories of cotton stuffs (*fabriques des cotonnades*,) possesses a sugar refinery, and also manufactories nails and curry-combs."

^y "Neuf-Brisach"—Neu Brisach (Germ.)—P.

^z *Argentuaris*, Artzenheim. (D'Anv. Enc. Meth.)—P.

^{aa} "Half a league from Colmar."

^{bb} "No traces of the Roman period."

^{cc} "More than 100,000 livres."

^{dd} "It is the seat of a royal court; its construction [that of the edifice (*palais*)] is as beautiful, as its situation is commanding and picturesque. The church of the Dominicans is the finest of its older edifices, and its public library is one of the most important in the kingdom; it contains more than 60,000 volumes."

Schoen,^a the earliest engraver on metal, and Rewbell, one of the members of the Directory, were born in Colmar.

Bounded, like the preceding, by the Rhine on the east, and by a part of the chain of the Vosges on the west, the department of the Lower Rhine is covered with hills, forests, meadows, and fields of the greatest fertility. It joins to its agricultural and mineral treasures, the wealth it derives from different kinds of manufacturing industry, while its trade is greatly promoted, by its numerous roads and navigable water-courses.

Schelestat,^b the first town beyond the territory of Colmar, is situated on the banks of the Ill.^c The Vosges which rise on the left, the ruins of ancient castles on different heights, the vineyards that command many rich villages, the forests on the right bank of the river, and the fruitful meadows on the left, form a romantic landscape. The town, at present the metropolis of a subprefecture, was formerly one of the ten imperial cities in Alsace, and the third in point of importance. The antiquity of Schelestat cannot be denied; long the principal city of the *Tribocci*, it bore in ancient times the name of *Elcebus*, but although antiquaries assert the contrary, it may be doubted that the neighbouring village of Ell was so called from the ancient name of the town.^d It was no mean place under the Carlovingians; Charlemagne and his court celebrated the festival of Christmas at Schelestat in the year 776, and Charles the Fat chose it frequently for his residence. The decline of the town dates from the tenth century; it rose again into importance in the course of the thirteenth, but it suffered much during the thirty years' war, and from that period until Alsace was united to France; since the union it has continued to flourish; in 1802, the population amounted only to 5000; it is now nearly double that number. Martin Bucer, one of the ablest theologians in the cause of the reformation, was born in Schelestat; it was at the same place that the present method of varnishing porcelain was invented.^e The other towns in the district^f of which it is the capital, may be briefly mentioned. Barr, containing four thousand five hundred persons, stands in a pleasant valley surrounded by vineyards. Obernai,^g equal to it in the number of its inhabitants, is situated at the base of Mount Hohenburg, of which the summit is surmounted by the majestic ruins of the famous monastery of St. Odile. Rosheim,^h a town of three thousand seven hundred persons, consists of a single street; it was formerly a free and imperial city. The village of Klingenthal may be mentioned with these towns on account of the industry of its inhabitants, and also on account of a royal armory, in which swords are made that rival any in Syria.ⁱ

^a Martin Schoen, the earliest engraver on metal whose name we are acquainted with, was born at Culmbach in Franconia, 1420, and died at Colmar, 1486. (Ed. Enc. art. Engraving. Beauvais.)—P.

^b Schelestat (Vosgien.)—Selestat, Schelestat and Schlestat (Enc. Meth.)—The proper German orthography is Schlettstadt.—P.

^c "Schelestat is the first town that we pass through, after leaving the territory of Colmar, in following the course of the Ill."—It is situated on a canal that communicates with the Ill.—P.

^d "In the time of the Romans, it was one of the principal cities of the *Tribocci*, and bore the name of *Elcebus*,* of which we find the traces in the small village of Ell, situated at a short distance from its walls."

* *Helcebus* (Ell.) D'Anv.

^e "—that the method of glazing (*vernisser*) delft (*fatence*) was invented." ^f "Arrondissement."

^g Obernai (Alm. Royal.)—Oberehnheim or Obernai, situated near the Ehn (Vosgien.)—Oberehnheim or Obernheim (Germ.)—P.

^h "Rosheim."

ⁱ "After these towns, all of which are engaged in manufacturing industry, the village of Klingenthal may be mentioned for its royal

Mutzig and Molsheim, two small towns, each contain about three thousand individuals; the first is known for its fire-arms, and the second for its excellent blades and steel; but we may leave these places on the left, and proceed towards Strasburg.^k The lofty but light steeple of the cathedral is seen from a great distance; it rises to the height of four hundred and thirty-six feet, and consequently is higher than any other edifice in Europe; indeed it is only thirteen feet lower than the great pyramid in Egypt. The cathedral may be considered a model of Gothic architecture; the clock that decorates the interior, is perhaps the most complicated piece of machinery in France;^l it represents the motions of the constellations, and the planetary system. Seven gates lead into Strasburg; it is surrounded with fortifications, and defended by a citadel, which was built according to the plans of Vauban. It is traversed by the Ill, over which there are several bridges built of wood.^m The royal castle, at present the residence of the bishop,ⁿ is the finest edifice after the cathedral. The court of justice,^o the town house, the prefect's palace^p and the new theatre are not unworthy of so important a town. The church of St. Thomas was built in the seventh century; several elegant mausoleums adorn the interior, of which the most remarkable is that of Marshal Saxe, the work of Pigal.^q The arsenal, a large building, the barracks and the cannon foundry are such as correspond with a fortified town of the first class. The protestant academy^r is one of the best in France, and as a place of instruction it may rival the most celebrated in Germany; it possesses a good collection of philosophical instruments, a museum of comparative anatomy, in which all the articles are arranged according to the most approved methods, a chemical laboratory and a valuable collection of natural history. Each faculty has a separate library, but there are besides two others in the city, one belonging to the observatory, which contains a collection of antiquities, and another open to the public, consisting of 55,000 volumes; in the last are preserved the sword of Kleber, and the poniard of his assassin.

If it be recollected that the arts, sciences and letters have been long cultivated at Strasburg, it need not excite surprise that it has produced many eminent men. Kleber and Kellermann have distinguished themselves in the military art, Ramond in the physical sciences, Weyler and Manlich in painting, and the virtuous pastor Oberlin,^s by his enlightened humanity. If we do not enter into any details concerning the scientific and literary societies at Strasburg, it must not be imagined that they are unworthy of notice, or that the members who compose them are at all deficient in zeal and knowledge. The manner in which the charitable institutions

sword manufactory (*manufacture royale d'armes blanches*), in which damask blades (*damas*) are wrought, that rival those of Syria."

^k "Strasbourg."

^l "—is a work of surprising complexity."

^m There are eight bridges over the Ill, two of which are of stone, and also a large wooden bridge over the Rhine. (Büsching.)—P.

ⁿ The episcopal palace, built in 1741 by Cardinal Rohan, is a magnificent edifice. (Büsching.)—There is a royal palace (*maison royale*) at Strasburg. (Alm. Royal, 1822.)—P.

^o "Palace (*Palais*) of Justice." ^p "Hôtel de la préfecture."

^q J. B. Pigalle. (Beauvais. Dict. Hist. Caen, 1804.)—P.

^r The Academy of Strasburg—formerly the University of Strasburg, under the direction of the Lutherans. It at present consists of five faculties, viz.: one of theology for the Confession of Augsburg (Lutherans,) to which is attached a professorship of dogmatic theology for the Calvinistic Confession; one of law; one of medicine, with which is connected a special school of pharmacy; one of the sciences and one of letters.—P.

^s Pastor of Waldbach, in the Ban de la Roche (*Steinthal*, Stone Valley.)—P.

arc managed, is most creditable to their directors; the prison discipline that was adopted eight years ago, ought to have been imitated throughout France; if to effect the moral improvement of the prisoners be the great object of prison discipline, that object has been attained at Strasburg.^a

The island of Robertsau^b is the place of greatest resort in the neighbourhood, it rises on the south-east of the town, it is encompassed by the Ill and the Rhine.^c A neat village, several country houses and different works^d are situated on the island; but the agreeable is also united with the profitable, there are many fine gardens and walks shaded with trees.^e An obelisk to the memory of Kleber has been erected on a piece of ground near the town, at present a place for the exercise of artillery.^f Another obelisk in honour of Desaix rises behind the citadel, in the island opposite the village of Kehl.^g

Although the origin of Strasburg may be very uncertain, still the name of *Argentoratum*, by which Ptolemy designates it,^h and which is derived from a Celtic root, proves that it was anterior to the Roman conquest. Drusus enlarged it and made it an important fortress; much about the same time, the arms and armour made at Strasburg were highly valued.ⁱ In the time of Julian, who defeated the Germans under its walls, and took their king Chrodamaire prisoner, it was much frequented as furnishing a convenient passage from Gaul into Germany; from this circumstance, it was called *Strata-Burgus*^k in the fifth century, whence the origin of its present name.

The inhabitants of provincial towns follow the fashions of the capital; it is not therefore in such places that one can judge of a national costume. The peasants in the villages between Strasburg and Haguenau go to mass or to the reformed church^l in their best dresses. A square black coat is purposely left open to show a red waistcoat with gilt buttons; loose boots made of soft leather, or long gaiters are attached to black rateen breeches; a broad hat completes the costume.^m The dress of the women has been thought more graceful; it is certainly more showy; the hat does not conceal floating ringlets or ribbons of various colours,

^a "The prison (*prison civile*), in particular, has for the last eight years, furnished a model which ought to be imitated throughout France, above all for its complete success in the moral amelioration of the prisoners." ^b Ruprechtsau (Germ.)—Robert's meadow (Eng.)—P.

^c "The first object which attracts attention, in a north-eastern* direction from Strasburg, is the island of Robertsau, surrounded by the Ill and the Rhine."

* This is the true direction. See Map accompanying Philippart's Memoirs of Moreau.—P.

^d "Usines."

^e "Manufacturing establishments may be seen in every direction in the vicinity of Strasburg, but in the island of Robertsau, the agreeable is united with the useful; the whole landscape has the appearance of a beautiful English garden."

^f "Near the town, and in the opposite direction [from that of Robertsau,] an obelisk in honour of Kleber rises in the midst of an open space reserved for the exercise of artillery."

^g The promenades in this island are preferred to all others in the vicinity of Strasburg. M. B.—P.

^h —"by which it was first designated by Ptolemy."—Ptolemy is the first author who makes mention of Strasburg. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

ⁱ "The *Notitia Imperii* informs us that it was celebrated for its manufacture of arms."

^k *Strateburgus* (Büsching.)—Lat. *stratum*, plu. *strata*, a paved street, and *burgus*. German, *strasse*, a street, and *burg*, a castle or fortified town.—P.

^l "Prêche"—meeting, either of the Lutherans or Calvinists, both of whom prevail in Alsace. The term *reformed church* is applied to the Calvinists in M. B.—P.

^m "The square open black coat of the men shows beneath it a red vest with gilt buttons; large soft boots or long gaiters fastened to black rateen breeches, and a broad hat, complete the costume."

but the latter are only worn by the young, never by married women. Long gilt pins serve to fasten the hair, they rise in the form of a coronet; a black silk handkerchief covers the breast; the bodice is adorned with many ornaments, broad sleeves of white linen descend to the wrist, the petticoat is made of green serge, and bordered with red ribbons.ⁿ

Haguenau^o contains several manufactories, and a population of seven thousand five hundred individuals; it was founded by Frederick Barbarossa, and was included in the number of the imperial cities in Alsace. The sandy lands in the neighbourhood are very fruitful in madder, of which more than 2,000,000 kilogrammes are annually sent to different parts of France and England.

The small town of Saverne^p is situated near the base and on the lowest declivities of the Vosges; it is well built, and the heights round it are planted with vineyards. The hill^q that bears its name, rises on the west, while on the southwest are seen the ruins of Haut-Barr, a castle founded in the twelfth century. Bouxviller^r is commanded by a fine Gothic castle, surrounded with agreeable walks; it contains about three thousand five hundred inhabitants, and is situated, like the last, at the base of the mountains.

Two or three places may be mentioned in the most northern district^s of the Lower Rhine, which borders with Rhenish Bavaria. Sultz sous Forets,^t a town of two thousand inhabitants, carries on a trade in the best wines that are produced in the department; coal mines and a saline spring, that yields a great quantity of salt, are worked in the neighbourhood.^u Seltz does not contain a greater population than Sultz sous Forets, if it be better known, it may be attributed to the gaseous and mineral water, of which more than thirty thousand casks are annually consumed in Paris.^x Weissemburg or Wissemburg,^y a town on the Lauter, derives the importance which it possesses, from its position on the northern frontier. Its fortifications have been celebrated in the annals of war from the reign of Louis the Fourteenth to the year 1815. The inhabitants carry on a trade in linen, porcelain and leather; the population has quadrupled since the time that Alsace was united to France.^z

ⁿ "The dress of the women is richer and more graceful. Their headdress consists of a large straw hat, with a low crown, while floating tresses, terminated by knots of ribbons, are worn only by the unmarried. Instead of a hat, they often turn up their hair in the form of a crown, and fasten it with long gilt pins (*flèches d'or*). A black silk cravat falls over the breast. Their bodice (*corset*) is adorned in front with golden ornaments and ribbons; wide sleeves of fine white linen are fastened at the wrist, where they terminate in plaited cuffs, and a petticoat of green serge, bordered with a broad red ribbon, reaches only to the middle of the leg, and shows a tight white stocking and a high heeled shoe, fastened with a silver buckle."

^o Haguenau (Germ.)—P.

^p Zabern (Germ.)—called also Elsass-Zabern (Alsace Saverne), to distinguish it from Rhein-Zabern (Rhine-Saverne) in the former bishopric of Spire.—P.

^q "Côte"—ridge or long declivity.

^r Bouxviller (Alm. Royal.)—Bouxveiller (Vosgien.)—Bousseviller (Enc. Meth.)—Bischweiler, Büschweiler (Germ.)—P.

^s "Arrondissement"—that of Weissemburg.

^t Sulz-Unterwalden (Germ.)—P.

^u "Sultz sous Forets is noted for its wines, which are esteemed the best in the department, for its coal and bitumen, and particularly for the salt spring worked in its vicinity."

^x "Seltz, a town equal in population to the preceding, possesses a well known carbonated mineral spring (*source gazeuse*), from which every year more than 30,000 bottles* of water are sent to Paris."

* "Cruchons de grès"—stone bottles or flasks.

^y "Weissemburg or Wissemburg," Fr.—Weissenburg (Germ.)—P.

^z "Its only manufactures are those of leather, linen (*toiles*) and delft (*faïence*), but its commerce has always been flourishing since Alsace was united to France, and its population has nearly quadrupled."

BOOK CXLVI.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Kingdom of France.—Fifth Section.—Northern Region.

THE twenty-one departments in the northern region are formed by the ancient provinces of Lorraine, Champagne, the Isle of France,^a Normandy, Picardy, Flanders and Artois. Education is more general, and wealth is more diffused than in the rest of the kingdom; the population relatively to the surface is also greater, for the mean number of inhabitants to every square league is nearly equal to one thousand six hundred and forty. It surpasses the other regions in the extent of the forests, in the number of horses and oxen, in the industry of the inhabitants, and in the amount of the revenue.

The department of the Moselle is contiguous on the north to the possessions of Bavaria, Prussia and the Netherlands. Its length from east to west is equal to thirty-nine leagues, or to three times its greatest breadth from north to south. Its territory, although uneven and woody, yields twice as much corn as the inhabitants consume. It is well supplied with horses, and if more attention were paid to the breed, they might furnish a very valuable resource for the light cavalry. Although many oxen are reared, they are not sufficiently numerous; it is however in the supply of sheep, that the department is particularly defective. The abundance of timber enables the inhabitants to carry on many works or manufactories in which fuel is required, and to derive a considerable profit from their iron mines. The prosperity of the country may be attributed to the extent of the roads and navigable rivers, and to the aptitude for labour by which the lower orders (manufacturers as well as husbandmen) are distinguished.^b Agriculture is generally in a more advanced state than in the rest of France; the peasant,^c as indefatigable in labour as he is brave in war, adopts willingly every improvement, converts his old fallows into artificial meadows, raises a great variety of products, multiplies nurseries, and manages his fruit trees with much intelligence; the vineyards which he cultivates, particularly those on the left bank of the Moselle, do not yield much wine of a good quality, but it should be recollected that the exportation of wine is not encouraged, and the petty propri-

etors do not think it worth while to substitute the best vines of Burgundy for the inferior kinds of Lorraine.

Bitche,^d situated at the foot of the western declivity of the Vosges, contains two thousand seven hundred inhabitants; it is considered a strong hold of the fourth class, and is defended by an impregnable fortress on the summit of a steep rock of red sandstone; the Prussians attempted in vain to take it in the year 1792. Sarralbe^e derives its name from its situation at the confluence of the Albe and the Sarre; the number of inhabitants amounts to three thousand three hundred; the salt works in the neighbourhood yield annually a thousand tons^f of salt. Sarreguemines,^g of which the ancient German name, *Gemunde*,^h signifies a river's mouth (*embouchure*), is situated above the last mentioned place, at the junction of the Sarre and the Blise. The population has increased two-thirds since the year 1790.ⁱ The red porcelain made in the town, and generally used in the department, and the snuff-boxes made in the neighbourhood are the principal articles of trade; the yearly sale of the latter is supposed to produce a sum almost equal to £42,000.^k The houses are well built; a broad street extends through the whole length of the town, and terminates at the bridge over the Sarre. The road that communicates with the same bridge, leads to Forbach, a small town of three thousand inhabitants; it was there that Charles the Fifth encamped in 1552, when he determined to risk his military glory before the ramparts of Metz. In this town, which is situated at the foot of a hill, in an agreeable plain, a custom-house is established.

Bouzonville is the most important place in the country between Forbach and Thionville; the latter town was founded in the eighth century;^l as a strong hold, it belongs to the third class; part of the ramparts were constructed by the Spaniards, from whom it was taken by Condé after the battle of Rocroy. The riding-school is perhaps the finest building, but there are few edifices of any consequence; the wooden bridge, more remarkable for its clumsy shape than any thing else, is mentioned as a wonder both by ancient and modern geographers,—it can certainly be quickly taken to pieces in a case of emergency.^m The population of the

^a "L'Ile-de-France."

^b "The abundance of wood, which furnishes the means of carrying on a great many iron works (*usines*), and of deriving a very considerable profit from its iron mines; the extent of its roads, the importance of its navigable rivers, and the aptitude for labour, which may be remarked in all classes of its inhabitants, agricultural, manufacturing and commercial, are the principal causes of its prosperity."

^c "Paysan messin."—The country in the neighbourhood of Metz was formerly called the Messin or the Pays Messin.—P.

^d Bitche or Biche (Vosgien. Enc. Meth.)—Bitsch (Germ.)—P.

^e Saralbe (Vosgien.)

^f "20,000 quintals."

^g Sarguemines, Sarguemine (Vosgien.)—Saar-Gemünd (Germ.)—P.

^h *Gemund* (Enc. Meth.)—*Gemünd* (Germ.)—P.

ⁱ "In 1790, its population was only two-thirds (*des deux tiers*) of what it is at present."

^k "Its red pottery (*faïence*), which is widely circulated, and the paper snuff-boxes (*de pâte de carton*) manufactured in its neighbourhood, are its principal articles of commerce; the sale of the latter forms an annual amount of nearly 800,000 francs."

^l "Its origin does not date from an earlier period than the eighth century."

^m "The riding-school is the only remarkable edifice; the wooden bridge, mentioned as a wonder in all the older and more recent geographies, has nothing to compensate for its ugliness, but the facility with which it may be taken to pieces in case of emergency."

town, now the capital of a district,^a is ten times greater than when it was united to France by the treaty of 1659. The village of Cattenom is situated about two leagues below Thionville, on the left bank of the Moselle; it is the place where the greatest cattle fair in the department is annually held.^b Sierck^c on the banks of the same river, may be about two leagues and a half distant from the village;^d it stands at the foot of a rock, on the summit of which rises a strong castle. It carries on a trade in different manufactures; the stones which are obtained from a neighbouring quarry, are used in paving the streets of Metz and Nancy.^e

Longwy,^f situated to the west of Sierck, and like the latter, not more than half a league from the frontier, contains hardly three thousand inhabitants, but is divided into an upper and lower town.^g The first stands on a rock, and was fortified by Vauban; the second occupies the site of an ancient fortress, where many Roman medals have been at different times discovered. There is reason to believe that the same place was the station of a Roman camp, it bore the name of *Longus Vicus* during the middle ages.^h Briey, the capital of the district, is a very insignificant town, consisting of steep streets on the declivity of a hill which rises above a fruitful and well wooded valley, watered by the Voigot, a small river.ⁱ

The most frequented road to the ancient capital of Lorraine,^k is not considered the best approach; to judge favourably of it, one must descend from the neighbouring heights to the village of Rozerieulles, which is concealed in a narrow valley, and surrounded by orchards and vineyards.^l The Moselle winds below the village, waters fruitful meadows, and divides itself into several branches which give perhaps a more imposing appearance to the formidable fortifications of Metz.^m The court of justice,ⁿ a white building, seen to most advantage from a distance, forms a quadrangular mass near the lofty trees on the glacis,^o the finest walk in the town. The blackness of the cathedral contrasts well with the general colour of the houses; it may be admired also on account of a light and bold steeple, not less than a hundred and forty-five feet above the ground, and surrounded with others of a smaller size.^p

^a "Arrondissement."

^b "Its cattle fair is the most important in the country."

^c Sierck, Sirque, Sierck or Sierques. (Enc. Meth.)

^d "Two leagues beyond the village, the small town of Sierck rises on the banks of the Moselle."—Sierck is 4 leagues N. E. of Thionville, on the eastern bank of the Moselle. (Vosgien.)—P.

^e "It has several manufactories, and supplies Metz and Nancy with excellent paving stones from a rock of ferruginous quartz (*quartzite ferrugineux*) in the neighbourhood."

^f Longui (Vosgien).—Lonwic; in modern Latin, *Longus Vicus*. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^g Old and new town—the latter was built by Louis XIV. after the peace of Nimègue, and strongly fortified in the style of Vauban. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^h "In the second, there was formerly a fortress, on the site of which Roman medals have been often discovered. The public square is large and regular. There is reason to believe that Longwy, which in the middle ages bore the name of *Longus Vicus*, occupies at present the site of a Roman camp."

ⁱ "Although a small town, and noted only for its bacon and hams, it [Longwy] is much more important than Briey, its capital; the latter consists of narrow streets, situated on the declivity of a steep hill, which commands a pleasant valley bordered with woods and watered by the small river Voigot."

^k Capital of the arrondissement, in which Longwy is situated.—P.

^l "Pays Messin."—Nancy was considered the capital of Lorraine.—P.

^m "We shall not follow the most frequented road that leads from Briey to Metz, formerly the capital of the *Pays Messin*. In order to judge favourably of the latter town, it is necessary to descend into its beautiful valley (*bassin*) by the zig-zag road that leads from the highest plateau

The heavy modern portal is not in harmony with the graceful Gothic architecture of the building; the nave is not less than 363 feet in length and 73 in breadth. When the great bell, called the *Mutte*, is rung, all the steeples are perceptibly shaken.

Near the village of Longeville, where the waters of the Moselle are confined by a dike, and form a cascade, that of Ars sur Moselle is situated at the foot of the heights last mentioned; it contains two paper mills, a velvet and cloth manufactory.^q Its name, derived from the Latin word *Arx*, indicates the site of a Roman fortress. The remains of an ancient aqueduct may be observed in the neighbourhood; pillars are seen in the vineyards and on the river, they extend along the right bank to the village of Jouy, and support the majestic arcades that the country people call the *Devil's Bridge*.^r This aqueduct, it is supposed, was the work of Drusus; it supplied the baths and the naumachia of *Divodurum*, a city of the *Mediomatrici*, which in the time of the Roman empire was called *Metis*, and afterwards corrupted into Metz.^s An ancient bath of red porphyry, an admirable work of art, and much larger than any in the Louvre,^t is preserved in the cathedral, where it is used as a baptismal font. Roman tombs have been discovered at different periods near the site of the former citadel, particularly at the time when the building was pulled down in order that the public walk might be enlarged and completed. Ruins attest the past splendour of Metz, but the ancient edifices have been destroyed by time and barbarians; it might be difficult to recognise the place from the pompous panegyric of Ausonius, which has been engraved below the peristyle of the townhouse.^u

Metz was the capital of Austrasia, a country of which Thierry was the first king. Louis the Debonnaire died there in the year 840, and the body of that unfortunate prince was deposited within the church of St. Arnould,^v then in the suburbs, but now in the town. It became a free and imperial city during the reign of Otho the Second; it reached the height of its prosperity about the end of the fourteenth century. It maintained long and bloody wars against different sovereigns, and even many princes solicited the honour

in its neighbourhood, to the pleasant village of Rozerieulles, which is concealed in a narrow pass, covered with orchards and vineyards."

ⁿ "At the foot of this descent, we perceive the Moselle winding in the midst of beautiful meadows, and afterwards dividing into several branches, which render the imposing fortifications of Metz still more formidable." ^o "Palace of justice." ^p "Esplanade."

^q "The cathedral, whose dark hue forms a striking contrast with the general colour of the other buildings, rises on the left of the court of justice (*palais de justice*), and is crowned with a light and lofty spire, not less than 345 feet in height, and surrounded by others, wrought in open work in the form of obelisks."

^r "two paper mills, a manufactory of velvet, and one of cloth for the army."

^s "The pillars that rise in the vineyards, and which form obstructions (*ecueils*) in the midst of the river, are continued on the right bank in majestic arcades, as far as the village of Jouy, the inhabitants of which give to these ruins the name of the Devil's Bridge (*Pont-du-Diable*)!"

^t ^u ^v ^w ^x ^y ^z ^{aa} ^{ab} ^{ac} ^{ad} ^{ae} ^{af} ^{ag} ^{ah} ^{ai} ^{aj} ^{ak} ^{al} ^{am} ^{an} ^{ao} ^{ap} ^{aq} ^{ar} ^{as} ^{at} ^{au} ^{av} ^{aw} ^{ax} ^{ay} ^{az} ^{ba} ^{bb} ^{bc} ^{bd} ^{be} ^{bf} ^{bg} ^{bh} ^{bi} ^{bj} ^{bk} ^{bl} ^{bm} ^{bn} ^{bo} ^{bp} ^{bq} ^{br} ^{bs} ^{bt} ^{bu} ^{bv} ^{bw} ^{bx} ^{by} ^{bz} ^{ca} ^{cb} ^{cc} ^{cd} ^{ce} ^{cf} ^{cg} ^{ch} ^{ci} ^{cj} ^{ck} ^{cl} ^{cm} ^{cn} ^{co} ^{cp} ^{cq} ^{cr} ^{cs} ^{ct} ^{cu} ^{cv} ^{cw} ^{cx} ^{cy} ^{cz} ^{da} ^{db} ^{dc} ^{dd} ^{de} ^{df} ^{dg} ^{dh} ^{di} ^{dj} ^{dk} ^{dl} ^{dm} ^{dn} ^{do} ^{dp} ^{dq} ^{dr} ^{ds} ^{dt} ^{du} ^{dv} ^{dw} ^{dx} ^{dy} ^{dz} ^{ea} ^{eb} ^{ec} ^{ed} ^{ee} ^{ef} ^{eg} ^{eh} ^{ei} ^{ej} ^{ek} ^{el} ^{em} ^{en} ^{eo} ^{ep} ^{eq} ^{er} ^{es} ^{et} ^{eu} ^{ev} ^{ew} ^{ex} ^{ey} ^{ez} ^{fa} ^{fb} ^{fc} ^{fd} ^{fe} ^{ff} ^{fg} ^{fh} ^{fi} ^{fj} ^{fk} ^{fl} ^{fm} ^{fn} ^{fo} ^{fp} ^{fq} ^{fr} ^{fs} ^{ft} ^{fu} ^{fv} ^{fw} ^{fx} ^{fy} ^{fz} ^{ga} ^{gb} ^{gc} ^{gd} ^{ge} ^{gf} ^{gg} ^{gh} ^{gi} ^{gj} ^{gk} ^{gl} ^{gm} ^{gn} ^{go} ^{gp} ^{gq} ^{gr} ^{gs} ^{gt} ^{gu} ^{gv} ^{gw} ^{gx} ^{gy} ^{gz} ^{ha} ^{hb} ^{hc} ^{hd} ^{he} ^{hf} ^{hg} ^{hh} ^{hi} ^{hj} ^{hk} ^{hl} ^{hm} ^{hn} ^{ho} ^{hp} ^{hq} ^{hr} ^{hs} ^{ht} ^{hu} ^{hv} ^{hw} ^{hx} ^{hy} ^{hz} ^{ia} ^{ib} ^{ic} ^{id} ^{ie} ^{if} ^{ig} ^{ih} ⁱⁱ ^{ij} ^{ik} ^{il} ^{im} ⁱⁿ ^{io} ^{ip} ^{iq} ^{ir} ^{is} ^{it} ^{iu} ^{iv} ^{iw} ^{ix} ^{iy} ^{iz} ^{ja} ^{jb} ^{jc} ^{jd} ^{je} ^{jf} ^{fg} ^{fh} ^{fi} ^{fj} ^{fk} ^{fl} ^{fm} ^{fn} ^{fo} ^{fp} ^{fq} ^{fr} ^{fs} ^{ft} ^{fu} ^{fv} ^{fw} ^{fx} ^{fy} ^{fz} ^{ga} ^{gb} ^{gc} ^{gd} ^{ge} ^{gf} ^{gg} ^{gh} ^{gi} ^{gj} ^{gk} ^{gl} ^{gm} ^{gn} ^{go} ^{gp} ^{gq} ^{gr} ^{gs} ^{gt} ^{gu} ^{gv} ^{gw} ^{gx} ^{gy} ^{gz} ^{ha} ^{hb} ^{hc} ^{hd} ^{he} ^{hf} ^{hg} ^{hh} ^{hi} ^{hj} ^{hk} ^{hl} ^{hm} ^{hn} ^{ho} ^{hp} ^{hq} ^{hr} ^{hs} ^{ht} ^{hu} ^{hv} ^{hw} ^{hx} ^{hy} ^{hz} ^{ia} ^{ib} ^{ic} ^{id} ^{ie} ^{if} ^{ig} ^{ih} ⁱⁱ ^{ij} ^{ik} ^{il} ^{im} ⁱⁿ ^{io} ^{ip} ^{iq} ^{ir} ^{is} ^{it} ^{iu} ^{iv} ^{iw} ^{ix} ^{iy} ^{iz} ^{ja} ^{jb} ^{jc} ^{jd} ^{je} ^{jf} ^{fg} ^{fh} ^{fi} ^{fj} ^{fk} ^{fl} ^{fm} ^{fn} ^{fo} ^{fp} ^{fq} ^{fr} ^{fs} ^{ft} ^{fu} ^{fv} ^{fw} ^{fx} ^{fy} ^{fz} ^{ga} ^{gb} ^{gc} ^{gd} ^{ge} ^{gf} ^{gg} ^{gh} ^{gi} ^{gj} ^{gk} ^{gl} ^{gm} ^{gn} ^{go} ^{gp} ^{gq} ^{gr} ^{gs} ^{gt} ^{gu} ^{gv} ^{gw} ^{gx} ^{gy} ^{gz} ^{ha} ^{hb} ^{hc} ^{hd} ^{he} ^{hf} ^{hg} ^{hh} ^{hi} ^{hj} ^{hk} ^{hl} ^{hm} ^{hn} ^{ho} ^{hp} ^{hq} ^{hr} ^{hs} ^{ht} ^{hu} ^{hv} ^{hw} ^{hx} ^{hy} ^{hz} ^{ia} ^{ib} ^{ic} ^{id} ^{ie} ^{if} ^{ig} ^{ih} ⁱⁱ ^{ij} ^{ik} ^{il} ^{im} ⁱⁿ ^{io} ^{ip} ^{iq} ^{ir} ^{is} ^{it} ^{iu} ^{iv} ^{iw} ^{ix} ^{iy} ^{iz} ^{ja} ^{jb} ^{jc} ^{jd} ^{je} ^{jf} ^{fg} ^{fh} ^{fi} ^{fj} ^{fk} ^{fl} ^{fm} ^{fn} ^{fo} ^{fp} ^{fq} ^{fr} ^{fs} ^{ft} ^{fu} ^{fv} ^{fw} ^{fx} ^{fy} ^{fz} ^{ga} ^{gb} ^{gc} ^{gd} ^{ge} ^{gf} ^{gg} ^{gh} ^{gi} ^{gj} ^{gk} ^{gl} ^{gm} ^{gn} ^{go} ^{gp} ^{gq} ^{gr} ^{gs} ^{gt} ^{gu} ^{gv} ^{gw} ^{gx} ^{gy} ^{gz} ^{ha} ^{hb} ^{hc} ^{hd} ^{he} ^{hf} ^{hg} ^{hh} ^{hi} ^{hj} ^{hk} ^{hl} ^{hm} ^{hn} ^{ho} ^{hp} ^{hq} ^{hr} ^{hs} ^{ht} ^{hu} ^{hv} ^{hw} ^{hx} ^{hy} ^{hz} ^{ia} ^{ib} ^{ic} ^{id} ^{ie} ^{if} ^{ig} ^{ih} ⁱⁱ ^{ij} ^{ik} ^{il} ^{im} ⁱⁿ ^{io} ^{ip} ^{iq} ^{ir} ^{is} ^{it} ^{iu} ^{iv} ^{iw} ^{ix} ^{iy} ^{iz} ^{ja} ^{jb} ^{jc} ^{jd} ^{je} ^{jf} ^{fg} ^{fh} ^{fi} ^{fj} ^{fk} ^{fl} ^{fm} ^{fn} ^{fo} ^{fp} ^{fq} ^{fr} ^{fs} ^{ft} ^{fu} ^{fv} ^{fw} ^{fx} ^{fy} ^{fz} ^{ga} ^{gb} ^{gc} ^{gd} ^{ge} ^{gf} ^{gg} ^{gh} ^{gi} ^{gj} ^{gk} ^{gl} ^{gm} ^{gn} ^{go} ^{gp} ^{gq} ^{gr} ^{gs} ^{gt} ^{gu} ^{gv} ^{gw} ^{gx} ^{gy} ^{gz} ^{ha} ^{hb} ^{hc} ^{hd} ^{he} ^{hf} ^{hg} ^{hh} ^{hi} ^{hj} ^{hk} ^{hl} ^{hm} ^{hn} ^{ho} ^{hp} ^{hq} ^{hr} ^{hs} ^{ht} ^{hu} ^{hv} ^{hw} ^{hx} ^{hy} ^{hz} ^{ia} ^{ib} ^{ic} ^{id} ^{ie} ^{if} ^{ig} ^{ih} ⁱⁱ ^{ij} ^{ik} ^{il} ^{im} ⁱⁿ ^{io} ^{ip} ^{iq} ^{ir} ^{is} ^{it} ^{iu} ^{iv} ^{iw} ^{ix} ^{iy} ^{iz} ^{ja} ^{jb} ^{jc} ^{jd} ^{je} ^{jf} ^{fg} ^{fh} ^{fi} ^{fj} ^{fk} ^{fl} ^{fm} ^{fn} ^{fo} ^{fp} ^{fq} ^{fr} ^{fs} ^{ft} ^{fu} ^{fv} ^{fw} ^{fx} ^{fy} ^{fz} ^{ga} ^{gb} ^{gc} ^{gd} ^{ge} ^{gf} ^{gg} ^{gh} ^{gi} ^{gj} ^{gk} ^{gl} ^{gm} ^{gn} ^{go} ^{gp} ^{gq} ^{gr} ^{gs} ^{gt} ^{gu} ^{gv} ^{gw} ^{gx} ^{gy} ^{gz} ^{ha} ^{hb} ^{hc} ^{hd} ^{he} ^{hf} ^{hg} ^{hh} ^{hi} ^{hj} ^{hk} ^{hl} ^{hm} ^{hn} ^{ho} ^{hp} ^{hq} ^{hr} ^{hs} ^{ht} ^{hu} ^{hv} ^{hw} ^{hx} ^{hy} ^{hz} ^{ia} ^{ib} ^{ic} ^{id} ^{ie} ^{if} ^{ig} ^{ih} ⁱⁱ ^{ij} ^{ik} ^{il} ^{im} ⁱⁿ ^{io} ^{ip} ^{iq} ^{ir} ^{is} ^{it} ^{iu} ^{iv} ^{iw} ^{ix} ^{iy} ^{iz} ^{ja} ^{jb} ^{jc} ^{jd} ^{je} ^{jf} ^{fg} ^{fh} ^{fi} ^{fj} ^{fk} ^{fl} ^{fm} ^{fn} ^{fo} ^{fp} ^{fq} ^{fr} ^{fs} ^{ft} ^{fu} ^{fv} ^{fw} ^{fx} ^{fy} ^{fz} ^{ga} ^{gb} ^{gc} ^{gd} ^{ge} ^{gf} ^{gg} ^{gh} ^{gi} ^{gj} ^{gk} ^{gl} ^{gm} ^{gn} ^{go} ^{gp} ^{gq} ^{gr} ^{gs} ^{gt} ^{gu} ^{gv} ^{gw} ^{gx} ^{gy} ^{gz} ^{ha} ^{hb} ^{hc} ^{hd} ^{he} ^{hf} ^{hg} ^{hh} ^{hi} ^{hj} ^{hk} ^{hl} ^{hm} ^{hn} ^{ho} ^{hp} ^{hq} ^{hr} ^{hs} ^{ht} ^{hu} ^{hv} ^{hw} ^{hx} ^{hy} ^{hz} ^{ia} ^{ib} ^{ic} ^{id} ^{ie} ^{if} ^{ig} ^{ih} ⁱⁱ ^{ij} ^{ik} ^{il} ^{im} ⁱⁿ ^{io} ^{ip} ^{iq} ^{ir} ^{is} ^{it} ^{iu} ^{iv} ^{iw} ^{ix} ^{iy} ^{iz} ^{ja} ^{jb} ^{jc} ^{jd} ^{je} ^{jf} ^{fg} ^{fh} ^{fi} ^{fj} ^{fk} ^{fl} ^{fm} ^{fn} ^{fo} ^{fp} ^{fq} ^{fr} ^{fs} ^{ft} ^{fu} ^{fv} ^{fw} ^{fx} ^{fy} ^{fz} ^{ga} ^{gb} ^{gc} ^{gd} ^{ge} ^{gf} ^{gg} ^{gh} ^{gi} ^{gj} ^{gk} ^{gl} ^{gm} ^{gn} ^{go} ^{gp} ^{gq} ^{gr} ^{gs} ^{gt} ^{gu} ^{gv} ^{gw} ^{gx} ^{gy} ^{gz} ^{ha} ^{hb} ^{hc} ^{hd} ^{he} ^{hf} ^{hg} ^{hh} ^{hi} ^{hj} ^{hk} ^{hl} ^{hm} ^{hn} ^{ho} ^{hp} ^{hq} ^{hr} ^{hs} ^{ht} ^{hu} ^{hv} ^{hw} ^{hx} ^{hy} ^{hz} ^{ia} ^{ib} ^{ic} ^{id} ^{ie} ^{if} ^{ig} ^{ih} ⁱⁱ ^{ij} ^{ik} ^{il} ^{im} ⁱⁿ ^{io} ^{ip} ^{iq} ^{ir} ^{is} ^{it} ^{iu} ^{iv} ^{iw} ^{ix} ^{iy} ^{iz} ^{ja} ^{jb} ^{jc} ^{jd} ^{je} ^{jf} ^{fg} ^{fh} ^{fi} ^{fj} ^{fk} ^{fl} ^{fm} ^{fn} ^{fo} ^{fp} ^{fq} ^{fr} ^{fs} ^{ft} ^{fu} ^{fv} ^{fw} ^{fx} ^{fy} ^{fz} ^{ga} ^{gb} ^{gc} ^{gd} ^{ge} ^{gf} ^{gg} ^{gh} ^{gi} ^{gj} ^{gk} ^{gl} ^{gm} ^{gn} ^{go} ^{gp} ^{gq} ^{gr} ^{gs} ^{gt} ^{gu} ^{gv} ^{gw} ^{gx} ^{gy} ^{gz} ^{ha} ^{hb} ^{hc} ^{hd} ^{he} ^{hf} ^{hg} ^{hh} ^{hi} ^{hj} ^{hk} ^{hl} ^{hm} ^{hn} ^{ho} ^{hp} ^{hq} ^{hr} ^{hs} ^{ht} ^{hu} ^{hv} ^{hw} ^{hx} ^{hy} ^{hz} ^{ia} ^{ib} ^{ic} ^{id} ^{ie} ^{if} ^{ig} ^{ih} ⁱⁱ ^{ij} ^{ik} ^{il} ^{im} ⁱⁿ ^{io} ^{ip} ^{iq} ^{ir} ^{is} ^{it} ^{iu} ^{iv} ^{iw} ^{ix} ^{iy} ^{iz} ^{ja} ^{jb} ^{jc} ^{jd} ^{je} ^{jf} ^{fg} ^{fh} ^{fi} ^{fj} ^{fk} ^{fl} ^{fm} ^{fn} ^{fo} ^{fp} ^{fq} ^{fr} ^{fs} ^{ft} ^{fu} ^{fv} ^{fw} ^{fx} ^{fy} ^{fz} ^{ga} ^{gb} ^{gc} ^{gd} ^{ge} ^{gf} ^{gg} ^{gh} ^{gi} ^{gj} ^{gk} ^{gl} ^{gm} ^{gn} ^{go} ^{gp} ^{gq} ^{gr} ^{gs} ^{gt} ^{gu} ^{gv} ^{gw} ^{gx} ^{gy} ^{gz} ^{ha} ^{hb} ^{hc} ^{hd} ^{he} ^{hf} ^{hg} ^{hh} ^{hi} ^{hj} ^{hk} ^{hl} ^{hm} ^{hn} ^{ho} ^{hp} ^{hq} ^{hr} ^{hs} ^{ht} ^{hu} ^{hv} ^{hw} ^{hx} ^{hy} ^{hz} ^{ia} ^{ib} ^{ic} ^{id} ^{ie} ^{if} ^{ig} ^{ih} ⁱⁱ ^{ij} ^{ik} ^{il} ^{im} ⁱⁿ ^{io} ^{ip} ^{iq} ^{ir} ^{is} ^{it} ^{iu} ^{iv} ^{iw} ^{ix} ^{iy} ^{iz} ^{ja} ^{jb} ^{jc} ^{jd} ^{je} ^{jf} ^{fg} ^{fh} ^{fi} ^{fj} ^{fk} ^{fl} ^{fm} ^{fn} ^{fo} ^{fp} ^{fq} ^{fr} ^{fs} ^{ft} ^{fu} ^{fv} ^{fw} ^{fx} ^{fy} ^{fz} ^{ga} ^{gb} ^{gc} ^{gd} ^{ge} ^{gf} ^{gg} ^{gh} ^{gi} ^{gj} ^{gk} ^{gl} ^{gm} ^{gn} ^{go} ^{gp} ^{gq} ^{gr} ^{gs} ^{gt} ^{gu} ^{gv} ^{gw} ^{gx} ^{gy} ^{gz} ^{ha} ^{hb} ^{hc} ^{hd} ^{he} ^{hf} ^{hg} ^{hh} ^{hi} ^{hj} ^{hk} ^{hl} ^{hm} ^{hn} ^{ho} ^{hp} ^{hq} ^{hr} ^{hs} ^{ht} ^{hu} ^{hv} ^{hw} ^{hx} ^{hy} ^{hz} ^{ia} ^{ib} ^{ic} ^{id} ^{ie} ^{if} ^{ig} ^{ih} ⁱⁱ ^{ij} ^{ik} ^{il} ^{im} ⁱⁿ ^{io} ^{ip} ^{iq} ^{ir} ^{is} ^{it} ^{iu} ^{iv} ^{iw} ^{ix} ^{iy} ^{iz} ^{ja} ^{jb} ^{jc} ^{jd} ^{je} ^{jf} ^{fg} ^{fh} ^{fi} ^{fj} ^{fk} ^{fl} ^{fm} ^{fn} ^{fo} ^{fp} ^{fq} ^{fr} ^{fs} ^{ft} ^{fu} ^{fv} ^{fw} ^{fx} ^{fy} ^{fz} ^{ga} ^{gb} ^{gc} ^{gd} ^{ge} ^{gf} ^{gg} ^{gh} ^{gi} ^{gj} ^{gk} ^{gl} ^{gm} ^{gn} ^{go} ^{gp} ^{gq} ^{gr} ^{gs} ^{gt} ^{gu} ^{gv} ^{gw} ^{gx} ^{gy} ^{gz} ^{ha} ^{hb} ^{hc} ^{hd} ^{he} ^{hf} ^{hg} ^{hh} ^{hi} ^{hj} ^{hk} ^{hl} ^{hm} ^{hn} ^{ho} ^{hp} ^{hq} ^{hr} ^{hs</}

of being enrolled among the number of its citizens. It was added to the dominions of Henry the Second by the intrigues and address of the constable Montmorency. The duke of Guise compelled Charles the Fifth to retire from its walls, after he had attacked it with an army of more than a hundred thousand men. Although very populous in proportion to its size, it is much less so than when it was independent.^a

The improvements made in the city, the number of broad streets that have been built in modern times,^b the quarter of St. Thiebaud,^c the large barracks, the arsenal, the military hospital, the royal college, the church of St. Vincent, of which the portal is adorned with a triple row of columns, the new market-house, the theatre and five spacious squares render Metz worthy of being ranked among the best built towns in France. The public library consists of thirty-six thousand volumes; the places connected with education are a school of artillery and fortification, an academy of commerce and drawing, schools of arithmetic and geometry in its application to the arts, and lastly, an institution where lectures are delivered on natural philosophy and chemistry. Much certainly has been done for the intellectual improvement of the inhabitants since the time of Voltaire; but the philosopher condemned Metz, because when he happened to pass through it, he saw only one bookseller's shop, and read the signs of several confectioners and pastry-cooks. Among the charitable institutions are an orphan-hospital and a gratuitous school for the Jews. The citizens refused a passage to the allied forces when they left the French territory, and the troops had to cross the Moselle on a bridge which was built for the purpose below the ramparts. A foreign flag had never been seen within the walls in time of war,—such a spectacle was thought disgraceful in time of peace.^d

The country through which the Meuse flows from south-east to north-west,^e is intersected in the same direction by long fruitful valleys, and by lofty ridges,^f where the air is cold but wholesome. The lands are well wooded, and yield plenty of grain, and the neighbourhood of Bar is noted for its wine; the inhabitants rear many horses, but the number of other domestic animals might be increased with advantage.

Leaving the ancient province of Lorraine,^g we may cross

	Inhabitants.
^a It contained in the year 71 of the vulgar era . . .	8,000
“ about the end of the fourteenth century . . .	60,000
“ in the year 1698 . . .	22,000
“ “ “ “ 1741 . . .	30,000
“ “ “ “ 1789 . . .	36,000
“ “ “ “ 1800 . . .	32,000
“ “ “ “ 1802 . . .	34,000
“ “ “ “ 1814 . . .	41,000
“ “ “ “ 1827 . . .	45,000

^b “The number of broad streets that have been substituted for those which were narrow and crooked.”

^c St. Theobald.

^d “Its library which consists of 36,000 volumes, its important special school of artillery and engineering, its schools of commerce and design, its courses of instruction in arithmetic, geometry applied to the arts, mechanics, physics, chemistry and midwifery, its society of medicine, and that of sciences, arts and letters, together with its benevolent associations, such as that of maternal charity, that of arts and trades for the Jews, and that of mutual relief for the working classes, all combine to prove that this city has made great progress in intelligence, since the period when Voltaire, in passing through it, was astonished to find only a single bookseller's shop in the midst of a crowd of pastry-cooks and confectioners. Metz has shown its patriotism in refusing a passage to the allied armies, when they retired from the territory of France. A bridge was ordered to be erected beneath its ramparts, by which they crossed the Moselle, and thus the city, which had never seen a foreign plume within its walls, was preserved from the disgrace of such a spectacle even in time of peace. Nothing less could have been expected from the birthplace of Fabert, Custine and Lassalle.”^h

^e Distinguished French generals; the first under Louis XIV; the two latter during the wars of the revolution.—P.

^f The department of the Meuse

^g “Elevated plateaus.”

the heights that rise above the right bank of the Meuse,^h and arrive at Etain,ⁱ the first town in the department; it contains three thousand inhabitants; it is well built, but ill situated in a marshy plain on the banks of the Ormes, a river abounding with fish.^k

The ramparts of Verdun^l are seen at no great distance from Etain. Iron and glass-works, paper-mills and manufactories are situated in the neighbourhood:^m the town rises on both banks of the Meuse; the houses are very well built, but the streets which descend rapidly towards the river, are paved with sharp stones, as inconvenient for foot passengers as for carriages. The horse barracksⁿ and the ancient episcopal palace are the finest buildings, indeed there are no others of any consequence in the place. Verdun is mentioned in the Itinerary of Antonine under the name of *Virodunum*.^o A road along the banks of the Meuse leads to Stenay, a pleasantly situated town of three thousand inhabitants, formerly a stronghold, and which still possesses very large barracks. Montmedy,^p although ill built and inferior in population, is more important as a fortified town and as the metropolis of a district.^q If the inhabitants are poor, it may be attributed to the want of commerce and industry.^r

Bar, one of the three cities of the same name in France, and the chief town in the department, is watered by the Ornain. It was formerly called Bar le Due,^s because it was the capital of a duchy which made up the small country of Barrois. The town was founded in the tenth century by Frederiek, duke of Mosellane,^t the brother-in-law of Hugh Capet. It is supposed that on an average fifty thousand kilogrammes^u of cotton are annually manufactured at Bar; that branch of industry, the numerous iron works, the conveyance of the timber which is obtained from the neighbouring forests, and the transport of wines, account for the activity that prevails in the harbour.^x Four leagues above Bar, the Ornain flows below the small but neat town of Ligny.

The other places that remain to be described in the department, are situated in the fruitful valley of the Meuse. St. Mihiel,^y a town of five thousand inhabitants, was formerly fortified, but the danger to which Louis the Thirteenth was exposed when he besieged it, induced him to raze the fortifications. It is pleasantly situated, the river passes below

^g “The Pays Messin.”—The former province of Lorraine included the present departments of the Moselle, the Meuse, the Meurthe, and the Vosges.—P.

^h “The plateau that extends along the right bank of the Meuse.”

ⁱ Estain; Lat. *Stagnum*. (Vosgien).—P.

^k “Noted for the fine quality of its fish and eel-fish.”

^l The birthplace of the illustrious Chevert.* M. B.

* A general distinguished for his bravery, during the reign of Louis XV - P

^m “Numerous forges, glass works and paper-mills are situated in its neighbourhood, and in its interior are a great number of confectioners and distillers.”

ⁿ “The new barracks for cavalry.”

^o *Virodunum*. (D'Anv. Enc. Meth.)—P.

^p Mont-Medi; Lat. *Mons Medius*. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^q “Arrondissement.”

^r “It is situated a league from the frontier, has little commerce, and is without manufactures.”

^s It is now called Bar sur Ornain, from its position on the river Ornain, in order to distinguish it from the two other towns of the same name, viz: Bar sur Seine and Bar sur Aube.—P.

^t Mosellane (Lorraine.) Moreri. Enc. Meth.—P.

^u The kilogramme is equal to 2lb. 5oz. 3dr. Avoirdupois. Tr. [The kilogramme is equal to 2lb. 3oz. 4.8dr. avoirdupois. (Recs' Cyc.)—P.]

^x “Its sweetmeats (*confitures*) are celebrated for their delicacy; its numerous spinning mills (*filatures*) prepare annually about 500,000 kilogrammes of cotton; that branch of industry, together with the exportation of its wines, of the iron from the forges in its vicinity, and of the timber (*planches*, boards and planks) from the neighbouring forests, render the trade of its small port very active.”

^y St. Miel, St. Mihiel, St. Michel. (Enc. Meth.)—St. Mihiel (Hubner).—*Sancti Michaelis Fanum* (Lat.)—P.

well wooded banks, cultivated fields and hills covered with vineyards. A monument, that judges are likely to appreciate, may be seen within the modest cemetery of the parish church; it is a sepulchre made from a single block of granulated limestone, white as marble; thirteen figures indicate the hand of a master from the simple way in which they are grouped, as well as by their finished workmanship; they are attributed to Legier-Michier, a pupil of Michael Angelo.^a Commercy, a neat town on the same river, encompassed by a forest through which a road has been made, is situated at the distance of four leagues above St. Mihiel.^b The Meuse leads also to Vaucouleurs, which derives its name from the verdant meadows enamelled with flowers, that adorn the valley in which it is situated. The town contains two thousand souls, and is built in the form of an amphitheatre; a small canal supplied by the Meuse and the fountain of Vaise, serves to augment the trade of the inhabitants, which consists chiefly in leather and cotton stuffs.^c It was the birthplace of the Abbé L'Advocat, who published a geographical dictionary under the feigned name of Vosgien.^d

It is necessary to ascend the Meuse the distance of four leagues, to visit the village where the heroine of the fifteenth century was born. Domremy la Pucelle^e rises in a valley embellished by the windings of the river. These verdant meadows, these hills covered with pastures, were the places where the young Joan of Arc^f tended her flocks; her days were spent in solitude and in peace until she left her rural labours, and led the French to victory after they had been disheartened by defeat. The house in which she was born, stands near the church; it may be easily discovered by a Gothic door that supports three scutcheons, adorned with the fleur-de-lys^g, and a statue, in which she is represented in full armour. In the year 1818, a Prussian count wished to purchase the statue from the proprietor of this ancient abode; on his refusal to part with it, he was offered six thousand francs for the house; but the Frenchman unwilling to sell it to a foreigner, ceded it to the department for a third part of the sum. The house of Joan of Arc thus became national property, and the former owner was decorated with the cross of the Legion of Honour, as a reward for his patriotism. Louis the Eighteenth granted the village^h twelve thousand

^a "Its picturesque situation is not the only motive which induces the stranger to visit it. It contains within the humble walls of its parish church, a specimen of sculpture worthy the admiration of connoisseurs. It is a holy sepulchre,^g formed of a single block of stone of the grain and whiteness of marble, and adorned with thirteen figures, which by the simplicity of their arrangement and the finish of their execution, announce the hand of a master. It is the work of Ligier-Michier, a pupil of Michael Angelo."

^g "Saint-sepulchre"—a sepulchre of the Saviour.

^b "Commercy, a pleasant town on the Meuse, is situated at the distance of four leagues above St. Mihiel. Its streets are perfectly straight, and one of them leads to the forest which surrounds the town. It contains a fine castle built by Cardinal de Retz, and since converted into barracks for cavalry."

^c "A small canal, fed by the Meuse and the fountain of Vaise, serves to supply its tanneries and its manufactories of cotton stuffs (*cotonnades*)."

^d J. B. Ladvocat, professor at the Sorbonne. The best edition of his geographical dictionary is that of Letronne, Paris, 1813. (Beauvais.)—The edition referred to by me, is that of Morel, Paris, 1813.—P.

^e Douremy. (Beauvais.)—This and the following towns are situated in the department of the Vosges.—P. ^f Jeanne d'Arc.

^g The Maid of Orleans, when she took arms against the English, carried on her banner a sword surmounted by a crown. This, with the addition of a fleur-de-lys, the king of France afterwards assigned as arms to her brothers, who were ennobled, by letters patent, in the year 1421, and took the name of Du Lys. (Ed. Encyc. art. Heraldry.)—P.

^h "Commune."

ⁱ "Communes."

^k "The house was rebuilt according to the original plan; a fine picture, the gift of the king, decorates the interior; the public square was embellished with a regular plantation of poplars, in the midst of which a fountain was erected, consisting of four pilasters supported by a quad-

francs to erect a monument to the memory of Joan, eight thousand to found a school of mutual instruction, for the education of young girls in Domremy and the neighbouring hamlets,ⁱ and eight thousand besides as a fund for the support of a sister of charity to teach the school. The house, which had almost fallen into decay, was lately rebuilt, but the original plan has not been altered; a fine painting, the gift of the king, decorates the principal room. The market-place is surrounded with poplar trees, and watered by a fountain, of which the quadrangular base supports four pilasters crowned with an entablature and a double pediment, beneath them is placed a statue of the Maid, which was also the gift of royalty.^k The inscription on this monument: *To the memory of Joan of Arc*,^l may recall the simple habits of the person it is intended to commemorate.^m

The burgh of Grand, about three leagues on the west of Domremy, stands on the site of an ancient city, and at no great distance from it are the remains of a large amphitheatre; the inhabitants carry on a trade in hard-wares.ⁿ The neat town of Neuf-Chateau,^o the capital of a subprefecture,^p is situated in the midst of high hills at the confluence of the Mouzon and the Meuse. Mirecourt, also a chief town,^q is watered by the Modon; it bore the name of *Mercurii Curtis* in the Latin of the middle ages; it does not exhibit, however, any traces of antiquity. It is for the most part ill-built, but the neighbouring country is fruitful and well cultivated; the trade of the inhabitants consists chiefly in lace.^r Contrexville, a small village encompassed by the waters of the Vair, which divides itself into two branches, is noted on account of a medicinal spring to which many persons afflicted with obstructions resort; more than four thousand bottles of the water are annually sent to Paris.

Ramberviller or Rambervillers^s carries on a great trade in hops;^t the inhabitants are wealthy and industrious; their number amounts to not less than five thousand; there is a public library in the town, consisting of ten thousand volumes. It is the last place of any consequence in the lower region of the department of the Vosges. The lofty region is formed by a series of rounded summits with gentle declivities, very different in appearance from the heights that extend on the side of Alsace.^u There are no old castles associated

angular base, and crowned with an entablature and a double pediment, beneath the last of which is a bust of the heroine, also granted by the royal munificence." *A la mémoire de Jeanne d'Arc.*

ⁿ M. le Baron Charles Dupin, *Forces productives et commerciales de la France*, tome i. page 202.

^o "The small town (*bourg*) of Grand, three leagues to the west of Domremy, contains five large nail manufactories; it stands on the site of an ancient city, where the remains of an amphitheatre may still be distinguished." ^p Neufchateau, Neuchateau.

^q —and the birthplace of one *who held a distinguished rank among the authors and statesmen of his country. M. B.

* Count François de Neufchateau, member of the Academie Française.—P

^r The capital of a subprefecture or arrondissement.

^s "It contains several lace manufactories, and fabricates an immense quantity of hand-organs (*orgues*), serinettes, and stringed instruments.—It is noted for its wine and brandy, and for its manufactories of lace, serinettes and musical instruments. (Vosgien.)—It manufactures lace, *turlutaines* and excellent violins. (Enc. Meth.)—*Serinette*, a bird organ, from *serin*, a canary-bird.—*Turlutaine*, also a bird organ, from *turlutte*, a lark (Dict. de Trevoux).—P. ^t Rambervillers. (Vosgien.)

^u "Centre d'une grande culture de houblon"—hops are extensively cultivated in its neighbourhood.—P.

^v "The mountainous region exhibits in its whole extent that series of summits, which from their rounded forms and gentle declivities, have been called the *Ballons* (balls or balloons;) but its appearance is entirely different from that presented by the same chain* on the side of Alsace."—The broken summits along the eastern line of the Vosges are primitive, containing remarkable deposits of specular iron at Framont, of fluor spar at Giromagny, and of galena in granite at La Croix. The rounded summits on the west are secondary.—P.

* The chain of the Vosges.

with different periods of the middle ages, but scenery constantly varied, and landscapes not unlike those in Switzerland, although on a much smaller scale. The mountains abound in iron, copper and lead;^a these metals are a source of wealth to the inhabitants, and numerous works are set in motion by the streams which descend from almost all the heights.^b Thus, although the products are different, the two regions are equally favoured by nature; the plains and low valleys yield as much corn as the inhabitants require, and a surplus quantity of oats equal to 1,800,000 bushels;^c it might be inferred from so great an excess that there were not many horses in the country; the contrary, however, is the fact, for in proportion to the surface, it contains twice as many as the mean number in other departments. The same remark may be applied to the number of oxen, but little attention is bestowed on the breeding of sheep; it appears, indeed, that there is not a tenth part of the average quantity in the country.^d

Epinal^e is situated at the foot of the Vosges, and is watered by the Moselle, which divides it into two equal parts; walks shaded by trees extend on both banks of the river; the town was formerly fortified, but the ruins of an old castle are all that remain of the ramparts.^f Although ill peopled, it contains different places of education, a collection of antiquities, and a library of more than seventeen thousand volumes.^g

The small town of Remiremont^h rises on the left bank of the Moselle, above Epinal; it stood on the opposite bank about the beginning of the tenth century, but its position was changed on account of the devastations that were committed by the Hungarian invaders.ⁱ The name of Remiremont is derived from a mountain that commanded the ancient site, and on which count Romaric built the castle of *Romarimont*.^k The same powerful and rich lord, despising the vanities of this world, founded there two convents in the

year 620, the one for men and the other for women, to which he bequeathed all his wealth; his liberality was rewarded with the title of saint. One of these convents, the abbey of lady canonesses, as it was afterwards called, became in time very celebrated.^l The inmates were not required to take an oath, they enjoyed many privileges;^m the abbess was entitled a princess of the Holy Empire; on occasions of ceremony she was preceded by a senechal, who held her crosier, and followed by a lady of honour, who carried her mantle. It was customary for the same person to review the burgesses, and to present them with colours; other prerogatives which are only conferred on sovereigns, were attached to the office.ⁿ Plombières, a small place in the neighbourhood, noted for its mineral waters,^o is indebted to king Stanislaus for an hospital and a large church. The village of Bussang near the sources of the Moselle, is also well known for its cold mineral waters, of which more than two hundred thousand bottles^p are annually sent into different parts of France. The finest cascade in the Vosges is situated at an equal distance from Epinal and Remiremont, near the village of Tendon; it falls from the height of a hundred and twenty-five feet.

The small town of St. Dié or St. Diey,^q the capital of a subprefecture, and the seat of a bishopric that was erected about fifty years ago,^r possesses little or nothing of any consequence; it is regularly built and encompassed with walls,^s and is situated on the banks of the Meurthe. The best cheeses in the Vosges are made in the neighbourhood, but the greatest number are exported from Gerardmer or Geromé, a burgh of five thousand inhabitants, situated in a very romantic part of the country; *Lac-Blanc* and *Lac-Noir*, the lakes of Longemer and Retournemer may be seen in the vicinity, but the Gerardmer, the largest of any, covers a surface of nearly a hundred acres, and gives birth to the Valogne, a feeder of the Moselle.^t

A. D. 450, and even laid siege to Orleans, but were entirely defeated in a sanguinary battle, near Chalons in Champagne.—P.

† Died Jan. 21, 912. (Guthrie and Gray. vol. viii. p. 388.)—P.

‡ “On which a certain count Romaric possessed a castle called Romarimont.”

§ “The most celebrated of these two abbeys was that of the lady canonesses.”

¶ “They did not take any vows, but were obliged to exhibit proofs of the highest nobility.”

‡ “The citizens when under arms were reviewed by her, and in fine, she possessed all the prerogatives of sovereignty.”

o Warm springs—The hospital was established for the benefit of those who frequent the waters. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

p “More than 20,000 bottles.”

q St. Diez, St. Diei, or St. Dié—*Sancti Deodati oppidum*. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

r Suppressed during the revolution.—P.

s “—surrounded with old walls.”—Its walls were begun by Matthew, duke of Lorraine, and completed in 1282, under Frederick (*Ferri*) II. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

t “Of all the small towns (*bourgs*) and villages, which are engaged in that kind of industry [cheese-making,] Gerardmer or Geromé is the most considerable; it contains more than 5000 inhabitants, and is situated in the most picturesque part of the Vosges. Several lakes may be seen in the vicinity, such as the White Lake (*Lac-Blanc*), the Black Lake (*Lac-Noir*), and those of Longemer and Retournemer; but that of Gerardmer* is the most important: it covers a surface of 36 hectares,† and gives birth to the small river Valogne, a branch of the Moselle.”

* The termination *mer*, in these names, undoubtedly signifies lake or pond, from the German *meer* (Fr. *mare*, a pond or pool; Eng. *mere* (in Cumberland and Westmoreland,) a large lake, in distinction from *tarn*, as in Winandernere—*meer* (in Huntingdonshire and Cheshire,) a small lake or pond, as in Whittlesy-*meer*, Combermeer.) Gerardmer, then, is Gerard's lake, and Longemer, probably long lake; Retournemer, if not of French derivation, may be a corruption of *Riethemmeer* (Germ.) reed lake. The German *meer* has indeed changed its meaning as a common name, and now signifies the sea or ocean, although in the Netherlands it still signifies a pond or lake. On the contrary, the German *see* signifies a lake, a singular instance of transposition of meaning in cognate dialects. This distinction has not been observed by some of the *English* (not *American*) translators of German poetry, and their inadvertence has led them into rather singular absurdities. Thus, the murmur of the lake or pond in the meadow, in the last canto of Schulze's *Enchanted Rose* (*Bezauberte Rose*)

a “These mountains contain iron, copper, and particularly lead, all of them more or less abundantly disseminated.”

b “—which issue from the base of nearly all these mountains”—a trait peculiar to limestone formations.—P.

c “—to more than 600,000 hectolitres”—1,458,600 bushels nearly. The hectolitre is equal to 2.431 standard English bushels nearly.—P.

d “Notwithstanding the great surplus of oats produced in the department, it rears twice the mean number of horses in the other departments, and a still greater number of other domestic animals (*bestiaux*, cattle,) with the exception, however, of sheep, which are ten times less numerous than on an average in the rest of France.”

e Epinal (Enc. Meth.)

f “Pleasant walks (*promenades*) surround it and border the banks of the Moselle, by which it is divided into two unequal parts, both of them containing several straight and well built streets. It was formerly fortified, but its ramparts have been demolished, and there only remains at present the ruins of its ancient castle.”

g “—several establishments for public instruction, a museum, and a library of 17,000 volumes.”

h *Romarici Mons*, in the Latin of the middle ages. Rumelsberg or Romberg, in German. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

i Remiremont was formerly situated on the east side of the Moselle, on a mountain where Count Romaric had a castle. But this place was entirely ruined at the commencement of the tenth century, by the Hungarians or new Huns, who having passed the Rhine during the reign of Lewis the son of Arnold (*Arnou*), laid waste the country.* It was then transferred to its present site in the plain on the west bank of the river. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

* The kingdom of Germany, under Lewis the son of Arnulf,† was invaded by the Huns, who seized and settled on those extensive provinces on the Danube to which they gave the name of Hungary. (Rankin's Hist. of France, vol. II. p. 117.)—About the year 900 the Hungarians, who were in possession of Transylvania, by the cession of the late emperor (Arnold,) invaded Bavaria with great cruelty. The duke of Bavaria raised an army to oppose them, and, indeed, defeated them; but five years afterwards, they renewed their invasions with the same barbarity as before. The emperor (Lewis IV.) then took arms, but was defeated at Augsburg by the barbarians. (Guthrie and Gray's Hist. of the World, vol. viii. page 367.)—These invaders were the present Hungarians (*Magyars*), who invaded the country on the Upper Theiss, in Eastern Hungary, about the year 834. (Malte-Brun, tome VI. p. 385.) They even penetrated, during their incursions, into the mountains of Switzerland, where they are still called Saracens in the traditions of the country. Simond's Travels in Switzerland.) The proper Huns under Attila entered France, VOL. III.—NO. 51 33

The department of Meurthe resembles that of Vosges; mountains not different in their component parts, although less elevated, extend from south to north on the western and eastern frontiers.^a As to their products, the two departments differ essentially from each other; like that of the Vosges, the department of the Meurthe produces much more grain than it consumes; the vineyards are more abundant, and the forests more extensive; there are fewer oxen, but a comparatively greater number of horses and sheep.^b

Three places of some importance from their industry, situated in the chain of the Vosges, may be briefly mentioned. Cirey is situated on the right bank of the Vezouze; it carries on a considerable trade in glass and crystal, which the inhabitants manufacture; the second or Saint-Quirin possesses works of the same sort, and under the management of the same company; the third or Phalsbourg, a strong town, rises on a height, contains about three thousand inhabitants, and exports a great quantity of liqueurs and essences.^c All the three are situated in the district^d of Sarrebourg,^e an ancient city of Gaul, the *Pons Saravi* of the Romans, so called from its position on the banks of the Sarre. The inhabitants carry on a trade in plaster ornaments and in cases for small cloaks, which, although made of the same substance, might be readily mistaken for gilt bronze.

It is not improbable that the Seille derives its name from the saline lands it waters; leaving the marsh of Indre, it passes through Dieuze, a town of four thousand souls, important chiefly on account of springs from which salt has been extracted during eight hundred years. It must have been more considerable in ancient times, for it was the *Decem-Pagi* of the Romans. Some remains of antiquity have been discovered at Marsal, a stronghold in an unhealthy and marshy situation. Salt springs are worked near Moyenvic, which was dismantled by Lewis the Fourteenth. Vic contains twice as many inhabitants, and possesses a very

valuable mine of rock salt. Chateau Salins, at some leagues on the north of Vic, is pleasantly situated on the banks of the Little-Seille; a small spring rises in the vicinity.^f

Invalids repair to the mineral fountain of Lombrigny, near the small town of Blamont^g on the Vezouze, where the former princes of Salm-Salm used to reside.^h Badonvillersⁱ is watered by the Blette; it supplies different parts of France with awls and punches that are little inferior to the best in Germany.^k Baccarat stands on the banks of the Meurthe, at the base of a lofty and steep hill, near a large forest; it may be mentioned among the industrious towns of France, for it possesses glass and crystal works, in which more than three thousand persons are employed.^l

The Vezouze traverses a fruitful plain, and waters Luneville,^m a place of some celebrity from the treaty concluded between France and Austria in 1801. It was a small stronghold about the middle of the seventeenth century; it was afterwards improved and embellished by duke Leopold. The castle, which served as a residence to the dukes of Lorraine and to king Stanislaus, has been converted into barracks for cavalry. The new infantry barracksⁿ may serve as a model for other buildings of the same kind; the architecture is simple, and the interior commodious and well aired; indeed nothing has been omitted which can contribute to the health of the inmates. The riding school, one of the largest in France, is three hundred feet long by eighty broad.^o A fountain, in which the water issues from eight different outlets, adorned the principal square;^p as it is still mentioned in the most recent geographical dictionaries, itineraries and descriptions of France, it does not appear to be generally known that it was destroyed in the year 1796. Luneville was the birthplace of Boufflers,^q Monvel^r and the eloquent Girardin.^s

The road from Luneville to Nancy extends along the forest of Vitrimont, which borders the right bank of the Meurthe; Rosiere aux Salines rises on the opposite bank;

marshy situation, near which several remains of antiquity have been discovered; by Moyenvic, which was dismantled by Louis XIV., and which derives its support from its valuable saline springs; and lastly by Vic, which contains twice as many inhabitants as the latter, and which its mine of rock salt will undoubtedly render still more important. Chateau-Salins, at the distance of some leagues to the north of Vic, on the banks of the Little Seille, also possesses saline springs.^t

* "Etang de l'Indre."—Etang de Lindre, a lake in Lorraine, four leagues in circumference, the source of the Seille. (Vosgien. Enc. Meth.)—P.

† Dieuze (Vosgien.)

‡ Germ. Blankenburg (Hubner.)—P.

§ "Formerly the residence of the princes of Salm-Salm."—The house of Salm-Salm is now mediatised.—P.

¶ Badonvillers (Vosgien.)—Badenweiler (Germ.)—P.

‡ "It manufactures awls and punches, which rival those of Germany."

l "It occupies an important place in the annals of French industry, from its manufactory of crystal glass (*cristaux*), in which more than 3000 workmen are employed."

m "Luneville"—rises in the midst of a fruitful plain, and is traversed by the Vezouze."—Luneville stands in an agreeable plain between the Vezouze and the Meurthe, which unite below the town. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

* Fr. *Luneville*.

n "La caserne de l'orangerie" (the orangery barracks.)—The castle of the duke of Lorraine was surrounded with groves and gardens. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

o "The great riding school is one of the largest in existence: it is three hundred feet long, by eighty broad, without any support in the interior."

p "A superb fountain with eight jets adorned the new square (*Place Neuve*.)"

q Stanislaus, marquis de Boufflers. (Beauvais.)—P.

r J. M. Boutet de Monvel, a celebrated actor and dramatist.—P.

s C. S. X. count de Girardin, the pupil of Rousseau, while the latter resided at Ermenonville under the protection of his father, R. L. marquis de Girardin.—P.

Nur ferne rauscht der See mit leisem Laut—
Only the distant murmur of the lake—

is translated:

Alone is heard the far off ocean's roar!—
and in the fisher-boy's song on the Lake of Lucerne, in the first scene of Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell*:

Der Knabe schlief ein am grünen Gestade (*scil. des Seen*)—

The boy falls asleep on the lake's green shore—

is rendered:

The boy sleeps on the ocean's brink !!

I may here add, in conclusion, that a great number of small round lakes in the chain of the Etyel, supposed to occupy the craters of extinct volcanoes, are called *maars*, in the dialect of the inhabitants. (Daubeny on Volcanoes.)—P.

† 74 acres nearly.—P.

a "The department of the Meurthe resembles in its general surface that of the Vosges; its eastern and western extremities are traversed from south to north by the same chains of mountains, although less elevated."

b "It abounds more in wine, horses and sheep; but it possesses fewer oxen, and its forests are less extensive."

c "The first of them is the small town (*rille*) of Cirey, which stands on the right bank of the Vezouze, and possesses a manufactory of plate, common and crystal glass (*de glaces, de verreries et de cristaux*;) the second is St. Quirin, which contains a similar establishment, belonging to the same company; the third is Phalsbourg,* a small fortified town (*rille forte*) of 3000 inhabitants, built upon a height and noted for its liqueurs."

* Phalsbourg (Enc. Meth.)—Pfalzburg (Germ.)—P.

d "Arrondissement."

e Sarbourg or Saarbourg (Vosgien.) Sarbourg, or Sarbruck. (Enc. Meth.)—The latter name, Sarbruck, in German, Saarbrücke, signifies the same as *Pons Saravi*, viz. the bridge over the Sarre.—P.

f "The Seille probably derives its name from the saline lands which it waters; after issuing from the lake of Indre,* it flows by Dieuze,† a town of 4000 souls, important from its saline springs, which have been worked for at least 800 years, and a place of considerable note under the Romans, from whom it received the name of *Decem Pagi*; then by Marsal, a small fortified town (*place forte*) in a

the inhabitants employed themselves formerly in extracting salt from neighbouring springs; at present, however, they are no longer worked.^a The river begins to be navigable at St. Nicolas du Port,^b a small town of three thousand inhabitants, in which the only remarkable building is a fine Gothic church.

Nancy consists of broad, straight, and almost deserted streets; in the number of public buildings it surpasses most towns of the same size; the Royal Place forms the principal square, the others are large and regular, many of them are adorned with fountains. The prefect's palace, the theatre and the townhouse, little inferior to any other in France, are the most remarkable edifices within the walls. Four bronze fountains rise in the centre of the Royal Place, and several long streets reach from it to the extremities of the town, two of them extend in different directions, and meet at a triumphal arch. The hospital and the barracks are decorated with many ornaments, the churches are more modest or at all events not so gawdy in point of architecture.^c The church of Bon-Secours in the suburb of St. Nicholas, contains a master-piece by Girardon; it is the mausoleum erected to the memory of Stanislaus, king of Poland,^d the person to whom the city is indebted for its principal embellishments. The tombs of the dukes of Lorraine are much inferior as specimens of art; they are placed within the cathedral.^e The old town resembles what Nancy was before the virtuous Stanislaus, whose income did not certainly exceed £.100,000, undertook to build a new city,^f which together with the improvements made by him at Luneville, and the sums laid out in founding a great number of schools and other useful institutions, proves what may be done by economical and judicious management. It is to the same prince that Nancy owes an academy of sciences and letters, a valuable museum, a public library of 26,000 volumes, and a botanical garden, in which there are more than four thousand plants. Commerce and the various branches of industry connected with

it were not held in great estimation; the town might have been compared to a French noble of past days, who thought himself degraded if he engaged in trade. But these prejudices and other effects of ignorance have within the last ten years been gradually removed; the inhabitants are now aware that their town possesses nothing royal but deserted palaces and melancholy associations. It carries on a trade in vulnerary drugs, embroidered stuffs, cloth and cotton, for which there are two large manufactories.^g The impulse has been given, and the canal from Paris to the Rhine may render Nancy one of the most industrious cities in France. The inhabitants may then distinguish themselves in literature and in the arts, for they have not forgotten that Callot,^h whose patriotism was only equalled by his talents, that Madame de Graffigny,ⁱ Palissot,^k St. Lambert,^l and other celebrated persons still living, were born in the town.

The Meurthe joins the Moselle at the distance of two leagues below Nancy. Pont à Mousson is situated on the last river, at the foot of a high hill, in a valley surrounded by fruitful declivities. The town is divided into two parts, which communicate with each other by means of a bridge; it contains seven thousand inhabitants, the houses are well built, one of the squares is encompassed with arcades.^m It was the birthplace of the brave Duroc, who fell in battle on the twenty-third of May 1813. Remains of ancient times have been discovered on the height from which it derives its name, and which, it has been proved, was crowned with a temple dedicated to Jupiter.ⁿ

The name of Toul has undergone during a period of eighteen hundred years fewer changes than that of most towns; it was called *Tullum* when it was the capital of the *Leuci* in the time of Cæsar. The Moselle flows beneath its walls; its public buildings are hardly worthy of notice; the ancient diocesan church is of Gothic architecture, but without ornaments and without majesty.^o The town is not very populous, the trade is insignificant, it consists chiefly in earthen ware and leather.^p

^a "Its salt springs have been long since abandoned. The government, however, maintains there one of the finest studs (*haras*) in France."

^b St. Nicolas, or Nicolasbourg, a town in Lorraine, with a very fine church dedicated to St. Nicholas, a place of pilgrimage. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^c "Nancy consists of broad, straight and almost deserted streets. Its edifices are of the greatest beauty; its public squares are very large and adorned with elegant fountains; the Royal Square (*Place Royale*) is the most remarkable: the prefect's palace (*la préfecture*), the theatre and the townhouse, the latter one of the finest in France, are the principal edifices that surround it; it is watered by four bronze fountains, and from its centre the eye measures the whole extent of several long straight streets which reach to the extremities of the city; two of them, opposite one another, are each terminated by a beautiful gate in the form of a triumphal arch.^{*} The barracks and the hospital are magnificent, but the churches are less splendid in their architecture."

^{*} The eastern and western gates, which are similar, terminate two fine streets, which unite in the square built by Stanislaus. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^d The ci-devant cloister of the Franciscans, at the end of the Fauxbourg of St. Pierre, contains the mausoleum of king Stanislaus, which is the chef-d'œuvre of Girardin. (Ed. Encyc.)—The mausoleum of king Stanislaus, erected by order of the municipality in the church of St. Roch, was sculptured by Sentksen. The monument of Catharine Opalinski his wife, is contained in the church of Notre-Dame de Bon-Secours. (Enc. Meth.)—Girardon, the celebrated sculptor, died in 1715. Stanislaus died in 1766. (Beauvais.)—Girardet (J.) painter to king Stanislaus, was born at Luneville (1709), and died at Nancy (1778.) The Descent from the Cross, in one of the churches at Nancy, is considered his master-piece. (Beauvais. Dict. Hist. Caen.)—P.

^e "The tombs of the dukes of Lorraine are contained in the cathedral.^{*} The finest promenade is that of the nursery (*pépinière*.)"

^{*} In the Franciscan church. (Vosgien.)

^f "The quarter called the old town, is still such as it was at the

period when the virtuous Stanislaus, with a revenue of less than two millions [francs,] undertook to build a new city—"

"Proud of its beauty, Nancy still bears some resemblance to the old nobility, who thought themselves degraded by engaging in useful occupations; but this prejudice, which ill becomes a town that has no longer any thing royal but its melancholy magnificence and its old recollections, has, for the last ten years, been gradually disappearing. It now joins to the preparation of vulnerary balls (*boules vulnérables*),^{*} for which it has always been celebrated, embroidery on the lightest stuffs, the manufacture of cloth, and cotton spinning, for the last of which it possesses two large establishments."

^{*} *Globuli Martiales* (Fr. *boules de Mars*), prepared by mixing two parts of cream of tartar and one of iron filings; employed externally in contusions, luxations and gunshot wounds. The balls are soluble in water, and are thus used externally as a bath or lotion, or taken internally. (Parr's Med. Dict. Blancardi Lex. Med. Dict. de Trevoux.)—P.

^h J. Callot, distinguished as an artist, particularly as an engraver—born 1593. (Beauvais.)—P.

ⁱ Author of the Peruvian Letters (*Lettres Péruviennes*).—P.

^k Ch. Palissot de Montenois, born 1730, distinguished as a poet and historian.—P.

^l St. Lambert, the author of the Seasons, was born at Veselise, in Lorraine, a small town five leagues S. W. of Luneville. (Beauvais. Vosgien.)—P.

^m "It has a population of 7000 inhabitants; it is well-built, and contains a square surrounded with arcades."

ⁿ "On the height from which it derives its name,^{*} several remains of antiquity were formerly discovered, which prove that in the time of the Romans it was crowned with a temple dedicated to Jupiter."

^{*} *La montagne de Mousson*, Mount Mousson.

^o "Its principal church, formerly the see of a bishopric, is built in the Gothic style, but without ornament or majesty; the portal is the only part held in estimation."

^p "Its population is not large, and its manufactures are unimportant; it has only a manufactory of pottery (*une faïencerie*), two of embroidery, and a few tanneries. There is no other town of any importance in the arrondissement, of which it is the capital."

The inhabitants of Upper Marne are industrious; the fields, the vineyards and the woods are productive. The soil, unequal and mountainous, is richer in iron than any other department; it is very fruitful in different kinds of grain, and it is doubtful, if relatively to the superficial extent, more horses and oxen are reared in any other part of the kingdom; in short, if the means of communication corresponded with the fruitfulness of the soil, or with the industry and activity of the inhabitants, it might be classed with the most wealthy and most populous departments in France.^a

Bourbonne les Bains rises on the eastern slope of the plateau of Langres; it is built on a declivity at the confluence of two small rivers, the Borne and the Apance. Many of the houses are old, most of the streets are crooked, and the town does not contain more than three thousand inhabitants; but it derives some importance from the celebrity of the baths, and also perhaps from a large military hospital in which there are more than five hundred beds.^b The temperature of the springs varies from thirty to forty-eight degrees of Reaumur;^c a person, it is said, cannot hold his hand in the water, but he may drink it without any painful sensation. The use of them is recommended in nervous complaints, in paralysis and other diseases; the first baths were erected by the Romans, and the place was called *Aqua Borvoni*.^d The Meuse takes its rise in a valley about four leagues eastward of the town. Two small valleys on the south of it are watered by two streams; their junction forms the Marne, which traverses the department from south to north.

Langres is situated near the sources of the same river, on the summit of a steep height;^e it exports a great quantity of cutlery into different countries, and carries on a considerable trade in fur with Switzerland. It seems as if the prosperity of the town depended on these branches of industry, and as the population was much diminished about ten years ago, there is reason to believe that without them it might fall into decay. There are different useful and charitable institutions, the most celebrated perhaps are the schools in which geometry and mechanics in their application to the arts, are gratuitously taught. The cathedral is considered a fine monument of the middle ages, but the

^a "The department of the Upper Marne is important from its manufacturing industry, its agriculture, its vineyards and its forests. Its surface is hilly and uneven, but it is richer in iron mines, than any other department in the kingdom; it is also one of the most fruitful in corn and oats, and one of those that rears the greatest number of horses and cattle; and in fine, if the means of communication were more extended, the activity of its inhabitants would soon place it among the most productive and the most populous."

^b "The town is ill-built, and contains only 3000 inhabitants; but it is important from its magnificent bathing establishment, and from its large military hospital in which there are more than 500 beds."

^c 99½° to 140° Fahrenheit.—P.

^d "These waters are considered efficacious in nervous diseases, and are accounted a sovereign specific for the cure of paralysis and gunshot wounds; they were held in much estimation by the Romans, who formed there an establishment that bore the name of *Aqua Borvoni*."

^e Langres is situated at a greater height than any town in France. (Ed. Encyc.)—It is the most elevated point in France; several rivers rise in its neighbourhood, which fall into three different seas, viz. the Meuse, into the German Sea; the Marne (a branch of the Seine.) into the English channel; and the Vingeanne (a branch of the Saone.) into the Mediterranean. (Enc. Meth.)—It stands on the summit of an elevated table-land, called the Plateau of Langres, which forms the principal water-shed in the N. E. of France.—P.

^f "The fine quality of its cutlery, of which it exports considerable quantities to every part of Europe, and the importance of its fur trade with Switzerland, render it probable that it would find it difficult to subsist without these two branches of industry, since for the last ten years its population has sensibly diminished. Its cathedral is a fine monument of the middle ages; its public library consists of 30,000

public buildings form a sad contrast with narrow and deserted streets; on the whole, it is a very different place from what it was under the Roman emperors. It bore the name of *Andematunum*, but the Romans called it *Lingones*, for thus the inhabitants and the people in the neighbouring country were designated;^f it had its senators, its capitol, its temples and its theatres; the people raised statues and triumphal arches to their Roman masters, and it is certain that inscriptions found within its walls, have served to illustrate some difficult points connected with history and antiquarian research. The town is mentioned in the writings of Tacitus and Plutarch; they have related the history of Sabinus, a citizen of the place, who revolted against Vespasian, and who after the defeat of his party, set fire to his habitation, by which stratagem he was believed to have perished in the flames. Sabinus concealed himself in a sepulchral vault,^g and confided only in the discretion of a faithful slave, and in the affection of his wife Eponina;^h but the frequent absence of the latter, and the birth of two children, revealed a secret which had been kept nine years. They were conducted to Rome, and brought before the emperor; the sufferings of Sabinus, the heroic devotedness of his wife, the sight of the two children, their prayers, and the tears of their mother, were all unavailing. Eponina was permitted to share the fate of a husband with whom she had lived so long in a tomb. Sabinus and Eponina, from their adventures and the celebrity of their historians, may be mentioned among the most remarkable natives of Langres, but it should not be forgotten that Diderot was also born in the same place.

Nogent le Roi, a small town of two thousand inhabitants, shares with Bourmont a trade in cutlery and hardwares;ⁱ the latter does not contain more than twelve hundred individuals; it possesses, however, a public library; both of them are situated in the district^k of Chaumont,^l a well built city on the declivity of a hill above the banks of the Marne. It was fortified by Louis the Twelfth, and was formerly the capital of Bassigny;^m Russia, Austria, and Prussia concluded there an alliance against Napoleon. As the capital of the department, it possesses such useful and benevolent institutionsⁿ as in the present state of society may be considered indispensable; the old walls have been repaired since the year 1821, and it is now ranked among the strong

volumes. It possesses a theatre and a fine promenade, but its public edifices, its assemblies, its courses of instruction in geometry and mechanics in their application to the arts, and its other establishments, form a striking contrast with its deserted streets and ill-built houses. It is far from retaining the importance it enjoyed under the Roman emperors: it was an ancient city of the Gauls, and bore at first the name of *Andematunum*;^g but the Romans gave it that of *Lingones*, by which the people in the surrounding territory were designated—"

* *Andematunum*. (Moreri).—P.

^g "Souterrain"—any subterranean place; not necessarily, a sepulchral vault. Plutarch (*Ἐρωτικὸς*—Opera, t. ii. (Moralia), p. 770-1, edit. Xylandri, Francof. 1620, fol.) says he hid himself in certain subterranean excavations for storing commodities (subterranean granaries)—*αποδυρας χρηματων ορνιθιας ελογειν*—which he afterwards calls simply subterranean places (*τα ελογεια*—*latebra*, Tacit.) The original says below that he lived in a tomb (*tombeau*.) but it might have there only intended to say that he had lived as if buried in a tomb; at any rate, since its only authorities are Tacitus and Plutarch, in the first of whom there is no detail of particulars (Histor. L. IV. § 67.) we may consider the statements of the latter as best entitled to credit, and conclude that he lay concealed, not in a *sepulchral vault*, but in one of those subterranean granaries, so common among the ancients, and still in frequent use in the countries around the Mediterranean.—P.

^h *Epponina* (Tacitus)—*Εμρονα* [*Εμρονα*] (Plutarch).—P.

ⁱ "Nogent le Roi—shares with Langres in the manufacture of cutlery; Bourmont is also engaged in the same kind of industry—"

^k "Arrondissement." ^l Chaumont en Bassigny.

^m "Bassigni."

ⁿ "Establishments for public charity and education."

towns in France.^a The celebrated men of Chaumont are Bouehardon the sculptor, and Lemoine the jesuit.^b

The windings of the Marne lead to Joinville, a small town of four thousand inhabitants, still commanded by the castle in which the companion of St. Louis^c and the celebrated Cardinal Lorraine were born. It was at Vassy or Wassy, situated at the distance of some leagues from the Marne,^d that the followers of the duke of Guise massacred in 1561 a number of Protestants, while they were assembled in their church, an event that proved the harbinger of the civil wars. St. Dizier,^e at the northern extremity of the department, is well-built, and encompassed with pleasant walks;^f it contains six thousand inhabitants, and is a town of some consequence from its commerce and industry: twice in the space of six months,^g the allied armies were defeated under its walls by the French.

The extent of the roads and navigable rivers in the department of the Aube, counteract the disadvantages of an unfruitful soil. The Seine and the Aube water it from south-east to north-west; the roads to Dijon, Befort, Sens, Chalons sur Marne, and Paris, cross it in different directions. Undulated ridges form the surface, which may be divided into two regions.^h That on the north-west, consisting of plains and hills, covered with a thin stratum of alluvial soil, is by no means productive; oats, rye and buckwheat are the only kinds of grain that succeed, but they yield so scanty crops that a great part of the land is suffered to lie waste. The same region, wholly destitute of trees, has been called Champagne Pouilleuse, a name that may be considered very descriptive of it;ⁱ the inhabitants are as poor as the soil. The region in the south-east differs little from the last in its geological structure, but the chalk is everywhere covered with thick and very fertile alluvial deposits; in some districts, however, they are so heavy and tenacious that it requires twelve horses to draw the plough. The fruitfulness of the country forms a happy contrast with the sterility in Champagne Pouilleuse, which might indeed be rendered less unproductive by planting resinous trees and others that thrive on light lands. Cattle, poultry and bees are reared in the more fertile districts. The population in the department falls below the mean term in the rest of France, but the grain harvests are three times more abundant, and the quantity of potatoes is still greater

in proportion. It produces excellent wines, of which two-thirds are exported; it is well supplied with horses, but not so with oxen and sheep. The industry and trade of the department are rising into importance; the chalk so common in the country is fashioned into different shapes, and sold as an article of commerce; cotton and cloth are the principal manufactures.^k

The burgh of Clairvaux,^l on the left bank of the Aube, was once famed for a very wealthy abbey, founded in the year 1115, by Hugh count of Troyes,^m and Stephen abbot of Citeaux. St. Bernard was the first abbot, and a vat may be seen, that is still called by his name, it can contain eight thousand tuns.ⁿ The building has been partly converted into manufactories, in which the workmen make cloths, bed-covers and cotton stuffs.^o The almost ruined walls in the small town of Bar sur Aube bear testimony to the devastations committed by the hordes of Attila;^p the neighbourhood was the scene of a destructive combat between the allies and the French in the year 1814.

Brienne, at no great distance from the right bank of the Aube, is divided into two parts, which are separated from each other by a space not less than a thousand paces in extent; the one is called Brienne la Ville,^q and the other Brienne le Chateau. The first rises near the river, and the second on the declivity of an artificial height, crowned by a castle that was built for a military school by Lomenil de Brienne;^r the same school counts Napoleon Bonaparte in the list of its pupils. The town was taken and retaken in January 1814 by the French and allies; many of the buildings were much injured, the population has been greatly reduced, it does not exceed at present two thousand inhabitants.^s

Bar sur Seine, although less populous, is better built than Bar sur Aube; a stone bridge of elegant architecture communicates with both banks of the river, and public walks shaded with lofty trees extend in the neighbourhood.^t The town of Les Riceys, containing 4000 inhabitants, is formed by the union of Ricey-Haut, Ricey-Bas and Ricey-Haute-Rive,^u three burghs that were founded by an ancient Helvetic tribe. Ten thousand casks of excellent wine are every year exported from the district into Belgium and other countries in the north.^x

Troyes,^y the ancient capital of Champagne, stands in the

^a Its townhouse (*hôtel-de-ville*) is remarkable for its elegance. M. B. Pierre Lemoine, author of the epic poem of St. Louis. (Beauvais).—P.

^c "The historian and companion of St. Louis."—John, sire de Joinville, author of *Memoirs*, containing a history of St. Louis, written about 1305. (Beauvais).—P.

^d Vassy, situated on the Blaise, four leagues N. W. of Joinville. (Vosgien).—P.

^e *Sancti Desiderii Fanum*.

^f "It is well built, pleasantly situated, and surrounded with public walks (*promenades*)."

^g "—in the space of two months, in 1814."

^h "The surface, which is formed by extensive plateaus of chalk, slightly undulated, is divided into two regions."

ⁱ *Pouilleux* signifies poor and wretched. Tr.—The southern part of Champagne, from Chalons to Troyes, has from its poverty acquired the name of *pouilleux* or lousy [the literal meaning of the word.] (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^k "The commerce and manufactures of the department are not without importance; the working of chalk, which is prepared and sold under the name of Spanish white, and the manufacture of cloths and cotton stuffs, are the branches of industry in which the inhabitants are most successfully employed. The department is also noted for its different kinds of sausages (*charcuteries*)."

^l Clervaux (Vosgien).

^m Founded by Thibaud IV. count of Champagne. (Moreri.) See note ^a, page 982.—P.

ⁿ "The vat (*cure*) of St. Bernard—might formerly be seen there; its contents were 8000 tuns (*tonneaux*)."—800 tuns. (Enc. Meth.)—The Encyclopedia uses the present tense; the original M.B. the past—the contents are expressed in words, in the former; in figures, in the latter.—P.

^o "The buildings of the convent have been converted into a penitentiary (*maison centrale de detention*.) in which cloths (*draps*.) coverlets (*couvertures*.) cotton stuffs (*percales*.) and cotton thread (*cotons filés*.) are manufactured."

^p "The small town of Bar sur Aube bears testimony in the ruins of its thick walls to the ravages committed by the hordes of Attila. The ancient town* was ruined by Attila. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

* *Segessera*. D'Anv.

^q "Brienne la Ville, or Brienne la Vieille (Old Brienne)."

^r "—by the minister Lomenil de Brienne."—Et. Ch. Lomenil de Brienne, cardinal, archbishop of Toulouse, and minister of Louis XVI. in 1787-8. (Beauvais).—P.

^s "The town, which was taken and re-taken in Jan. 1814, by the allies and the French, has suffered much in consequence; its diminished population scarcely amounts to 2000 souls."

^t "It possesses fine promenades and a stone bridge of elegant architecture."

^u Ricey le Bas (Lower Ricey) on the west bank of the Laigne, and Ricey le Haut (Upper Ricey) and Ricey-Haute-Rive on the eastern bank. (Vosgien).—P.

^x "Its territory annually supplies 10,000 casks (*pièces*) of excellent wine, much esteemed in Belgium and other countries in the north of Europe."
^y Troye. (Moreri.)

middle of a large and fruitful plain which the Seine waters; the river encompasses part of the town, and divides itself into several artificial branches by means of canals that were constructed in the twelfth century by Theobald the Fourth,^a to whom the inhabitants are indebted for the institutions that ensure the prosperity of their town. It is long since the palaces inhabited by that prince and some of his successors have disappeared, but the remembrance of their wise administration is still preserved in the country. The marriage between Henry the Fifth, king of England, and Catharine of France, the daughter of Charles the Sixth, was celebrated at Troyes on the 21st of May 1420. The same Charles was not ashamed to sign a treaty, by which his son-in-law became master of his dominions;^b but nine years afterwards the English were expelled by Charles the Seventh, assisted by Joan of Arc. The town was encompassed with feeble ramparts anterior to the middle ages, at which period it bore the name of *Treca*. At the time when the Huns desolated Gaul, St. Loup, the bishop, sent a deputation consisting of seven clerks and a dean^c to Attila; the barbarian conqueror was about to receive them, when the luminous rays reflected from the sacred ornaments that were carried with great solemnity, terrified the horse of one of his generals, who was in consequence thrown from his seat, and killed on the spot. Magic, Magic! cried the furious chief, and the poor clerks with their dean^d were put to death. Troyes, however, was spared; but Attila, compelled by the Roman general Aetius to retire from Gaul, passed again through the town, and, in order to protect his retreat, made St. Loup accompany him to the Rhine. Troyes was a place of some importance when Julian defeated the Germans, who threatened to besiege it. Augustus conferred on it the privileges of a city, and gave it the name of *Augustolona*.^e It may be ranked from the great number of wooden houses among the ill-built towns in France; still some of the streets are broad and straight, and some of the edifices are remarkable. The cathedral may be mentioned for the elegance of its Gothic architecture, the magnificence of its portal, and the boldness of its arches. It was founded in the year 872, and demolished by the Normans in 898; having been rebuilt in the follow-

ing century, it was destroyed in 1188 by a fire which consumed the whole town; the inhabitants began to build it for the third time about the commencement of the thirteenth century, but it was not finished before the sixteenth. The church of St. Urban is considered a model of elegance and lightness; the townhouse was built according to the plans of Mansard, the front of it is in every way worthy of that great architect.^f The public library, which contains 55,000 volumes and 5000 manuscripts, may be classed with the most valuable in France. We may mention among the great men who were born at Troyes, pope Urban the Fourth, the son of a cobbler, and who instituted the festival of the Holy Sacrament, Passerat, one of the authors of the *Satire Menippée*, Juvenal des Ursins,^g the historian of Charles the Sixth, Girardon the sculptor, and Mignard the painter. Piney, a flourishing burgh,^h in which more than a hundred and twenty workmen are employed in making cordage,ⁱ is situated in the neighbourhood.

Arcis sur Aube was much injured by the allied army in 1814, but it has since been enlarged and improved by the industrious inhabitants. The burgh of Romilly, about two leagues above the confluence of the Aube and the Seine, carries on a trade in hosiery and cottons. The body of Voltaire was interred in the neighbouring abbey of Selliere,^k in the year 1778, but the building has been since destroyed. The river waters Nogent sur Seine, a neat town and the capital of the district, in which are situated the ruins of Paraclet, a monastery founded by Abeilard.^l

The department of Marne extends on the north of the last; the soil, although of the same sort, may be considered more fruitful; long ridges of chalk are covered with alluvial lands, that yield very valuable wines and a great quantity of corn. The wines are divided into two classes, *those of the river and the heights*; the vineyards near the Marne belong to the first, the others at a distance from it to the second. The people in the rural districts rear a greater number of sheep than the inhabitants of most agricultural departments, the lower orders in the towns find employment in manufactories and in different branches of industry.^m

The ancient town of Vitryⁿ on the river Orne,^o now the village of *Vitry le Brûlé*, derives its surname from an act

^a "Count Thibaud IV."—Count of Champagne, 1102—1152. (Moreri).—P.

^b Charles VI. at the time of the treaty, was in a state of imbecility, and in the hands of the Queen and the Duke of Burgundy, who were inveterately hostile to the Dauphin, (afterwards Charles VII.) The design of the treaty, on the part of those who directed the king, was to crush the Dauphin. For this purpose it was stipulated that Henry should espouse the princess Catharine, that he should not invade or disturb the kingdom during the life of Charles VI., but that immediately on his death, the crown of France should descend to Henry and his heirs forever, and that in the meantime he should preside as regent in the government of France. The disgrace of the treaty does not therefore attach to Charles VI., but to the active agents, the Queen and the Duke of Burgundy.—P.

^c "Diacre"—deacon.

^d "Les pauvres envoyés"—literally, the poor envoys—the deputation.—P.

^e It was afterwards called *Tricasses*, from the name of the tribe of which it was the capital. (D'Anv.)—P.

^f "The front (*façade*) of the town-house does honour to Mansard."

^g J. Jouvenal des Ursins (called also Juvenal des Ursins,) son of an advocate of Paris, who became provost of the city, 1388. (Beauvais).—P.

^h "The small town (*bourg*) of Piney."—Piney-Luxembourg; population 1400. (Vosgien).—P.

ⁱ "Well-ropes of linden bark (*cordes en tilleul pour les puits*)."—The bark of the linden tree is much used in making ropes for wells, and for drawing in hay and straw from the fields [for country harness or traces.] Most of the well-ropes of linden bark, sold in Paris, are brought from Normandy. (Savary, Dict. Comm. t. III. p. 391).—P.

^k Sellieres, Scellieres. (Enc. Meth.)

^l "Arcis sur Aube, by means of its cotton mills (*filatures*), has been able to repair the losses which it sustained in 1814 from foreign invasion. At the distance of two leagues above the confluence of the Aube and the Seine, the small town (*bourg*) of Romilly, in which they manufacture needles and hosiery, extends for a league along the left bank of the Seine (*peure*, the main river;) the abbey of Selliere, in which the body of Voltaire was interred in 1778, stood formerly in its neighbourhood. The Seine then flows by Nogent sur Seine, a small but neat town, and the capital of an arrondissement, which still retains some traces of the invasion of 1814. Some remains of the convent of the Paraclet (*Paraclet*)—may be seen in its vicinity."

^m "The department of the Marne, on the north of that of the Aube, resembles it in its surface, but is more fertile: it every where presents extensive plateaus of chalk covered by an earthy and sometimes sandy stratum, which produces considerable harvests of grain, and a great quantity of excellent wine. Its wines are distinguished into two great classes, viz. the river and the mountain wines (*vins de rivière et de montagne*;) according as the vineyards that produce them are situated on the banks of the Marne, or at some distance in the interior.* It rears a greater number of sheep than most of the other agricultural departments, and is thus enabled to carry on several important manufactures of woollen stuffs."

* In the province of Champagne there are two kinds of wine; the white wines, called *Rivière de Marne* wines; and the red wines, called *Montagne de Rheims* wines. The white wines are produced from the vineyards situated in the valleys, and upon the sides of the hills. (Ed. Encyc. art. France).—P.

ⁿ Vitry. (Enc. Meth. Vosgien.)

^o Orney. (Enc. Meth.)—It stands on the river Saulx. (Vosgien.)—The Saulx and the Orney both pass by Vitry le Brûlé, and soon afterwards enter the Marne. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

of cruelty committed by Louis the Young. While that prince was engaged in war against Theobald, count of Champagne,^a he made himself master of Vitry, and put all the inhabitants to death.^b Actuated by scruples that cannot be easily defined, he refused to pollute a church with blood, to which 1300 persons had fled for refuge; but he set it on fire, assisted in destroying the victims, heard their cries, and saw the flames extending their ravages without emotion, and did not leave the place until the silent smoke rising from the ruins announced that his vengeance was complete. The sad surname which the town had thus acquired, was confirmed by new disasters in the sixteenth century; it was burnt by the troops of John of Luxemburg, and afterwards wholly destroyed by Charles the Fifth.^c Francis the First then determined to rebuild it, but he chose a more advantageous site on the banks of the Marne, and gave it his name, which proves that it ought to be called *Vitry le François*, and not *le François*; ^d at present, however, it is generally styled *Vitry sur Marne*.^e The founder intended to make it a strong place, but it is merely encompassed by a ditch and earthen ramparts; the houses are well built, the streets are broad and straight.^f

The road from Vitry to Sezanne crosses large and monotonous plains, the scene of unequal struggles between the French and allied armies, in 1814; the small town of Fere-Champenoise^g was one of those which suffered the most. Sezanne, formerly a strong place, and more populous than at present, contains about four thousand inhabitants. It has experienced many calamities; the earl of Salisbury took it by assault; the protestants levelled it with the ground in the reign of Charles the Ninth; it was entirely destroyed in 1632 by a fire that lasted several days, and which occasioned a loss of property, that was then thought equivalent to £.250,000; it carries on at present a trade in different articles, but principally in agricultural produce.^h Montmirail or Montmirel stands on a small eminence, on one of the two roads that lead from Paris to Chalons; it contains about two thousand inhabitants, and is celebrated on account of a

victory which the French gained on the seventeenth of February 1814.ⁱ

Epernay^k is situated in a small valley on the left bank of the Marne: a gate formed by two towers leads to the public walk, and is all that remains of the fortifications^l which defended Epernay in the time of Henry the Fourth, who made himself master of the town,^m but not before the duke of Biron,ⁿ on whom he leant, was killed at his side. The principal suburb is built on the banks of the river, and very extensive cellars have been cut in the chalky heights that command it.^o The inhabitants have a theatre and a public library;^p their trade consists in *fire proof* or Champagne earthen ware, of which the average quantity that is annually exported into other departments does not weigh less than five hundred tons.^q The wealth of Epernay is principally derived from the sale of its white and red wines; the latter are chiefly produced on the left bank of the Marne, near the small but ancient town of Vertus; the sparkling white wines are partly obtained from the village of Pierry, and the burgh of Avize, but the best sorts are those on the opposite bank, where Ai, a burgh of two thousand five hundred inhabitants, rises in the form of an amphitheatre, where the vineyards on the heights round Mareuil are not less famous; Cumieres and Hautvillers on the left, are not perhaps so well known, still they produce excellent wines. The finest part of the country is formed by the line of populous villages and fruitful heights that are crowned by the forest of Reims.^r

The road on the left bank of the Marne commands a view of the varied and romantic sites, that extend on the opposite bank from Epernay to Chalons sur Marne. It might be shown that Chalons,^s or Chaalons, as it was formerly written, is derived from *Catalaunum*, the name it bore in the time of Ammianus Marcellinus; ^t it was a city of the *Catalauni*,^u and it is called *Duro-Catalauni* in the Itinerary of Antonine. It stands between two plains in the midst of meadows; the larger plain was the place where the emperor Aurelian defeated Tetricus, who had been proclaimed em-

^a Thibaud IV. See note ^a, page 982.

^b A. D. 1143. (Moreri.) ^c A. D. 1544.

^d *Victoriacum Francisci*, in Latin.

^e "—unless a preference is given to the name of Vitry sur Marne."—*Vitry le François* (Alm. Royal. Vosgien.)—P.

^f "It is a neat town, built of wood; the houses are elegant, and the streets broad and straight."

^g La Fere Champenoise. (Vosgien.)—It was the scene of an action between the French and the allies, March 25, 1814.—P.

^h "—it was destroyed by the Protestants during the reign of Charles IX.; in 1632 it was consumed by a fire, of which the ravages were estimated at more than 6,000,000 livres; at present, its commerce consists principally in agricultural produce."

ⁱ Bonaparte attacked Blucher at Montmirail on the 14th of Feb., and compelled him to retreat to Chalons. He had previously defeated the corps of Alsuéfi at Champaubert, and that of Sacken at Château-Thierry, both on the 12th. He defeated Prince Schwartzberg on the 17th, at Nangis, nearly annihilating the corps of Count Pahlen, and on the 18th, carried the bridge and town of Montereau.—P.

^k Epernay. (Moreri. Enc. Meth.)—Epernai. (Beauvais.)—P.

^l "A gate, near the promenade, formed by two turrets (*tourelles*), is all that remains of the fortifications—"

^m A. D. 1592.

ⁿ Armand de Gontault, baron de Biron, and marshal of France, killed by a cannon ball, at the siege of Epernay, while reconnoitering, July 26, 1592. His eldest son, Charles de Gontault, first duke of Biron, for whom the barony of Biron was erected into a duchy (*duché-pairie*) in 1593, was executed for high treason at the Bastille, July 31, 1602. (Moreri. Beauvais.)—P.

^o "The suburb through which we pass in ascending the Marne, is celebrated for its very large and deep cellars, dug in labyrinths in the chalk."—These cellars are used for storing wine.—The wines of Champagne, after being put into circulation, preserve their good qualities for ten years; but when they are kept in the cellars of their native province, which are superior from the nature of the soil, (being dug out

of beds of chalk,) they will continue good for 20 or 30 years. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^p "It is a well built town, with a small theatre and a library."

^q "Epernay carries on a great trade in a kind of fire-proof pottery, known by the name of Champagne earthen (*terre de Champagne*), and manufactured in its neighbourhood; the quantity exported amounts to 500,000 kilogrammes *per annum*."

^r "The latter (red wines) are produced on the left bank of the Marne, in the neighbourhood of the small but ancient town of Vertus; the village of Pierry and the *bourg* of Avize* furnish sparkling white wines: the best localities; however, are found on the opposite bank; it is there that Ai,|| a *bourg* of 2,500 inhabitants, and very celebrated for its vineyards,§ Mareuil, whose white wines rival those of the preceding, and on the left,¶ Cumieres and Hautvillers,** whose names are less classic among connoisseurs, but whose wines are not without reputation, rise in the form of an amphitheatre. One can never be weary of admiring this series of populous villages, and these fertile hills (*coteaux*.) crowned in their whole extent by the forest of Reims."

* Avizé or Avisé. (Vosgien.)

† "Mousseux"—frothy, effervescent.

‡ "Coteaux"—declivities or hill sides, on which the vines are chiefly cultivated.—P.

§ The white wines of Ay are the most esteemed in Champagne. (Vosgien.)—The white wines of Ay rank at the head of the first class of the white wines of Champagne. Ay also produces red wines, ranked the last but one in the second class of the red wines of Champagne. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

¶ On the left of Epernay.—Ay is one league N. E., and Cumieres, one league N. W. of Epernay. (Vosgien.)—P.

** Hautvilliers. (Vosgien.)

• "Châlons."—Chaalons or Chalons sur Marne. (Vosgien.)—Châlons sur Marne, or Châlon en Champagne. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

† "The name of the latter [Chalons,] formerly written Chaalons, is derived from that of *Catalaunum*, which it bore in the time of Ammianus Marcellinus."—The name is written *Catalauni* and *Cathelanni*, in Amm. Marcell. (l. xv. xvii.) edit. Valesii, Paris, 1636.—P.

‡ "The city (capital) of the *Catalauni*."

peror in Gaul. The position of Chalons is not unfavorable for trade, an advantage it derives from its situation on the Marne, and from the six important roads that traverse it. It is encompassed with walls and ditches; most of the houses are built of wood, but the streets are broad and straight.^b The townhouse is adorned with a fine front; the prefect's palace, and the school of arts and trades, are remarkable for the simplicity and elegance of their architecture; the cathedral might be admired, if it were not for two clumsy pyramidal towers and a Greek portal, that accords ill with the rest of the building.^c The botanical garden contains fifteen thousand plants; there are also a collection of natural history, and a good library. Lacaille, the celebrated astronomer,^d David Blondel the architect,^e and Perrot d'Ablancourt,^f were born in the town. The gate on the road to Strasburg leads also to the Jard, perhaps the finest public walk in the department.^g

We may observe at the distance of two leagues on the same road, an elegant Gothic building, the church of Epine;^h it was erected by Louis the Twelfth for the purpose of fulfilling a vow; it is to be regretted that it was thought necessary to pull down one of its towers in order to raise a telegraph. The long village of Courtisols or Courtisou is situated on the right, at no great distance from the church; it occupies an extent of nearly two leagues from one extremity to the other; it is formed by two parallel streets, consisting of houses that are separated from each other by plantations; it is divided into three parishes, namely, those of St. Julian, St. Mammie, and St. Martin. The population is not less than two thousand individuals. The language which the inhabitants speak amongst themselves, is not known in the neighbouring villages; they observe certain ceremonies of an ancient character, that are not practised in other parts of the country; they are excellent husbandmen, indeed their lands are the best cultivated and the most productive in the department.ⁱ From these facts, it has been inferred that the Courtisians are descended from

^a Tetricus was proclaimed emperor at Bordeaux (A. D. 268.) during the reign of Claudius II. He continued to govern Gaul, Britain and a part of Spain, until after the conquest of Zenobia, when wearied with the insolence of his soldiers, he voluntarily surrendered his authority into the hands of Aurelian, at Chalons, A. D. 274. He was afterwards appointed by Aurelian, governor of Lucania.—P.

^b "—but as the principal streets are clean and straight, its appearance on the whole is very agreeable."

^c "The cathedral, whose two pyramidal towers, wrought in open work, are in rather a rustic style, is not without merit; it is disfigured, however, by a portal of Greek architecture."

^d N. L. De la Caille, the celebrated astronomer, was born at Rumigny in the department of the Ardennes. (Beauvais. Vosgien. Dict. Hist. Caen, 1804.)—P.

^e David Blondel, a celebrated protestant minister, and professor of history at Amsterdam, was a native of Chalons.—Francis Blondel, a celebrated architect during the reign of Louis XIV., was the son of Francis Blondel, lord of Croisettes, who dwelt at Ribemont in the diocese of Laon.—J. Fr. Blondel, a native of Rouen, was also distinguished as an architect. (Born 1705; died 1774.) (Beauvais. Moreri. Dict. Hist. Caen.)—P.

^f Nic. Perrot d'Ablancourt, born at Chalons, 1606; celebrated for his numerous translations from the ancients.—P.

^g "On issuing from the town by the road to Strasburg, the justly celebrated promenade of the Jard presents itself in all its beauty; its alleys are magnificent."—The promenade called Le Jard, is reckoned the finest in France. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^h L'Epine, a village of Champagne, two leagues from Chalons.—Courtisols, a *bourg* of Champagne, two leagues N. E. of Chalons. (Vosgien.)—P.

ⁱ "They are so far advanced in the knowledge and practice of agriculture, that their lands are the best cultivated and the most productive in the whole country."

^k "—that were established in Gaul by the successors of Constantine."

^l Mémoires de la Société royale des antiquaires de France, tome V.

some one of the barbarous tribes that settled in Gaul after the reign of Constantine;^k others have considered them a colony of Helvetians.^l Their language, however, is merely a French *patois*, and the name of their village signifies detached houses. As to their origin, it is very doubtful that they migrated from Valais, they are probably descended from some of the ancient tribes in Gaul, they have preserved the manners and customs of their ancestors.^m The remains of a Roman road, and the traces of the enclosure where Attila and his army encamped,ⁿ may be seen in the neighbourhood.^o The famous camp of Lune, and the village of Valmy, where the king of Prussia was defeated in 1792 by an army of volunteers under the command of Kellermann, are situated on the road between Courtisou and St. Menehould, the latter a town watered by the Aisne, and remarkable for the regularity of the streets and buildings. Although the works which defended it are now in ruins, it may be observed that it was the first place which Louis the Fourteenth besieged.^p

The population and industry of Reims or Rheims render it an important town; as a place of antiquity it is not without interest, but its celebrity depends principally on the historical associations connected with it. In ancient times it was the chief town in the country of the *Remi*, who gave it the name of *Durocortum*, but ancient geographers call it indifferently *Durocortorum* and *Durocortora*. It was famed for different schools in the time of Hadrian, and it then possessed monuments, of which ruins or traditions are all that remain. The gates of Phebus, Ceres and Bacchus indicate so many temples beyond the walls; the gate of Mars forms a triumphal arch which, it is believed, was erected by Julian; part of it was repaired by Napoleon, but an old wall that conceals it, has not been removed. The gate of Mars stands near the *Arena*, where traces of an amphitheatre may be easily discovered.^q The tomb of Jovinus, a citizen of Reims, who rose at Rome to the consular dignity in the year 366, is preserved in the cathedral. It is a monument

^a "As for their origin, it does not seem necessary to search for it in the Valais; it may have been Celtic: is it not indeed probable that the Courtisians are descendants of the ancient Gauls, who have preserved the language and manners of their ancestors?"

^b Previous to the battle fought in the plains near Chalons, in which he was totally defeated by Actius, the Roman general, in alliance with Merovæus, king of the Franks, and Theodoric, king of the Visigoths.—P.

^c "—may be seen on the left of the village."

^d "The town (*ville*) of *Sainte-Menehould* is built of stone and brick with much regularity; its town-house is an elegant edifice. It is surrounded by the Aisne, and was formerly fortified; it was the first place besieged by Louis XIV."—It is situated in the midst of rocks, in a marsh on the Aisne. (Vosgien.)—It has a castle on a rock. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^e "Reims, or as it was formerly written, Rheims, is important from its population and its industry, and interesting from its antiquity, its historical associations and its monuments. The *Remi*, of whom it was the capital, called it *Durocortum*, and the ancient geographers, *Durocortorum* and *Durocortora*,* until after it had taken the name of *Remi*.† In the time of Adrian, it was celebrated for its schools; it also contained several monuments, of which ruins or traditions still remain. The gate of Apollo (*Dieu lumière*), and those of Ceres and Bacchus, indicate so many temples beyond the walls; that of Mars is a triumphal arch attributed to Julian: Napoleon partly restored it, but it is not yet entirely disengaged from the wall in which it was formerly concealed. Not far from this gate, without the city, is a place called the *Arènes*,‡ where the vestiges of an amphitheatre may be distinguished."

* It was called *Duroncourt* in the language of the Gauls, *Durocortum* by Cæsar,* *Δυροκορτορα* by Strabo, *Δυροκορτορα* by Ptolemy, and *Durocortorum* in the Itinerary of Antonine and the Table of Peutinger. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

† This is probably a mistake. It is *Durocortorum* in the edition of Scaliger, Elzev. 1635, and in that of Martaire, Lond. 1790.—P.

‡ Whence the origin of the present name.—P.
 † *Arènes*, plur., from the Latin *arena*, is used by the French for amphitheatre. Thus the amphitheatre of Nîmes is called *Les Arènes*.—P.

in white marble, representing a lion-hunt. Most of the streets are broad and straight; the Royal Square^a is adorned with a bronze statue of Louis the Fifteenth, which was removed at the time of the revolution, and replaced in 1819. The hospital is a large and elegant building; the cathedral is one of the few Gothic edifices of the kind which have been finished; the portal is loaded with figures, in form it resembles a pyramid;^b within the building the kings of France are consecrated. The ashes of St. Remi, the benefactor and tutelary saint of the town, repose in the church of the same name, a church much more ancient than the cathedral, and the one where the holy *ampulla* is kept with superstitious care; but the famous phial was publicly destroyed in 1793, a new one, however, has been obtained, and according to report, it contains some drops of the oil with which Clovis was anointed by St. Remi.^c By an anachronism not unfrequent in the monuments of the middle ages, the king and the twelve peers of France are represented together on the tomb of the saint.^d The statue of Henry the Fourth has been restored to its ancient place above the portico of the townhouse, a large building, which contains a valuable library. Old writers mention the church of St. Nicaise on account of a shaking pillar that excited in past times much curiosity, but many years have elapsed since the pillar was destroyed.^e The town is surrounded with a wall flanked by old towers, and shaded by an inner range of trees; it is also encompassed by ditches, and a public walk extends round them to the place where the marshy banks of the small river Vesle bathe it on the south.^f It was destitute of good water from the nature of its soil, until the prebend Gaudinot had a machine constructed at his own expense, by which the streams of the river are now distributed to every part of the town.^g The same excellent

^a *Place Royale.*

^b "Near the square (*Place Royale*.) we may observe a fine hospital (*Hôtel-Dieu*) and the cathedral; the latter one of the few Gothic edifices which have been finished. Its portal, although overloaded with ornaments, is remarkable for its pyramidal figure, and its majestic interior is adorned with magnificent painted windows (*vitreaux*.)"

^c "The church of St. Remi, much more ancient than the cathedral, is celebrated for the tomb of that bishop, one of the benefactors of Reims; in it is preserved the holy *ampulla* (*sainte ampoule*.) or at least the phial which has supplied its place since its public destruction in 1793, and which still contains, it is said, some drops of the oil with which St. Remi anointed Clovis."

^d "The institution of the twelve peers of France is of much more recent date than the time of Clovis. It is generally referred to the reign of Louis VII., who assembled the twelve first nobles of the realm, six ecclesiastical and six laic, at the consecration of his son Philip Augustus, A. D. 1179. (Enc. Meth.)—St. Remi, archbishop of Reims from 471 till after 523, was the contemporary of Clovis. (Moreri.)—P."

^e "The famous shaking pillar in the church of St. Nicaise has been long since removed." The church of St. Nicaise is frequented by strangers on account of a pillar which shakes perceptibly when either of the four bells in one of its towers is rung. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Mod. 1784.)—P.

^f "The town is surrounded by ditches, and by a wall flanked with old towers; the latter is shaded by an alley of trees on the inside, while a fine promenade borders the ditches on the outside, except near the marshy banks of Vesle which bathes it on the south."—The city is surrounded with a ditch and earthen mound, planted with a double row of trees on both sides. (Ed. Encyc.)—The other fortifications were removed in 1812.—P.

^g "The well water in Reims is very unwholesome, but the Abbé Godinot, a canon of the cathedral, having amassed, during many years, from the sale of his wines, a very considerable sum, left it by his will to his native city, for the purpose of introducing into every part of it the waters of the Vesle, which now flow from a great number of fountains. (Vosgien.)—N. Godinot, born at Reims 1661, expended more than 500,000 livres (400,000. Enc. Meth.) in establishing public fountains, constructing sewers, founding hospitals and schools, and embellishing the choir of the cathedral. (Beauvais.)—P."

^h J. B. Colbert, minister of Louis XIV.; born 1619 at Reims.—P.

ⁱ "The department of the Ardennes consists chiefly of a region entirely covered with forests before it had been invaded by the wants of

person may be mentioned among the distinguished townsmen of Reims; it was also the birthplace of Colbert,^h Linguet, and the Abbé Pluehe.

Before the region of Ardennes was peopled by civilized inhabitants, it formed in all probability a vast forest; the Celts called it *Ard* from a mountainous chain, which steep declivities and rugged summits render apparently more lofty than it really is. But according to a different account, the name of the country may be derived from the goddess *Ardeiana*, the Diana of the ancient Belgians. The Romans called it *Arduena Sylva*; at present, however, the forest of Ardennes does not occupy a greater extent than 250,000 acres. The department may still be considered one of the best wooded in France; timber forms the principal article of commerce; as the grain harvests are inadequate to the consumption, and as comparatively few vineyards are situated in the country, the wood is exchanged for corn and wine; the remainder is used as fuel, and serves to supply different works and manufactories. The rocks on the mountains are chiefly calcareous and schistous; the people work a great quantity of iron, some veins of lead, and extensive slate quarries. The geological products are various, most kinds of rocks from granite to chalk may be observed in the department. The Meuse and the Aisne are the two most important rivers, the extent of roads is not so great as in other parts of the kingdom; the population might be increased, if the means of communication were improved.¹

Vouziers is the capital of a poor and small district, that contains little likely to attract attention;^k the town is situated on the left bank of the Aisne, which afterwards waters Attigny, a place of some celebrity at an early period, because the French kings of the first and second race chose it as their summer residence; at present, however, it can hardly

civilized society, and to which the Celts gave the name of *Ard** because it was traversed by a chain of mountains that from their broken summits and steep declivities are apparently more elevated than they really are. The name of this region has, however, been derived from a goddess *Ardeiana*, the Diana of the ancient Belgians. Either or both of these etymologies may be adopted.† The Romans called it *Arduena Sylva*,‡ but at present the ancient forest of the Ardennes occupies in France only an extent of about 150,000 hectares.§ The department to which it belongs is, however, one of the best wooded in France; the exportation of wood is one of the principal means it employs in supplying itself with oats, of which it produces but a very small quantity, and also with wine, of which it is almost entirely destitute; the remainder of its wood is used in carrying on its iron works (*usines*.)|| The rocks of which its mountains and plains are composed, are chiefly calcareous and schistous; they are, however, so diversified in their geological character, as to exhibit specimens of almost every formation from granite to chalk. Much iron, a few veins of lead, and very extensive slate quarries, are wrought in the department. The Meuse and the Aisne are its principal rivers; the extent of its roads is less than in any other region in France, and it is undoubtedly owing to this want of communications, that its population has made no greater advances in industry."

* *Ard*, high, lofty, (whence the Latin *arduus*)—a word common in many names of Celtic origin, particularly in Scotland and Ireland; as *Ardrass*, the headland or height of the peninsula; *Ardfglass*, the green headland or promontory.—P.

† The author may here mean that both are derivable from the same Celtic root—*Ardeiana*, the goddess of the heights or mountains. So in the Latin poets—*Diana montivaga*—*montium domina*—*tubet hortari celeres per juga summa canes*, &c.—P.

‡ *Arduenna Sylva*. (D. Anv. Enc. Meth. Cesar. De Bell. Gall. V. VI.)—The forest is still called by the French, either *Ardenne* in the singular, or *les Ardennes* in the plural, (the forest of Ardenne, or of the Ardennes.) (Moreri.)—There is a large forest between Sedan and Rheims called the wood of the Ardennes (*bois des Ardennes*); a part of the same forest between Ste. Menould and Verdun is called the forest of Ardenne (*forêt d'Ardenne*.) (Enc. Meth.)—The present forest of the Ardennes is in the north of the department. (Peuchet.)—P.

§ The ancient forest of the Ardennes (*Arduenna Sylva*) extended from the Rhine through the territory of the *Treviri*, to the borders of the *Remi*, and to the *Verrii*,* and was consequently far more extensive than that part of it now in France. A part of the same forest still occupies a considerable extent of Luxemburg, from which circumstance that province was called the department of the Forests (*des Forêts*.) when it was annexed to France.—P.

* Cesar. De Bell. Gall. V. §3. VI. §27.

|| The department contains a very great number of forges and steel founderies. (Peuchet.)—P.

^k "Vouziers, a small town and the capital of a sub-prefecture (*petit chef-lieu de sous-préfecture*.) contains nothing worthy of notice."

be called a town; the population is not equal to fifteen hundred individuals.^a The same river flows at the foot of Rethel, which stands on a height near the site of an old fortress^b that the Romans called *Castrum Retectum*; the inhabitants manufacture cloth, flannels and woollen stuffs.^c The Aisne begins to be navigable at Chateau-Portien.^d

Many populous villages are scattered in the territory of Sedan; the inhabitants export different manufactures, and are engaged in different sorts of industry; if little attention is bestowed on agriculture, it must be imputed to the sterility of the soil. The capital or Sedan was, like Rethel, originally a fortress. Charles the Bald took possession of it in the year 880. It became an important place, after it was made the chief town in a principality subject first to the archbishops of Reims, then to the family of La Marck, and at a later period to the house of La Tour d'Auvergne; it was ceded in 1642 to Lewis the Thirteenth in exchange for the duchies of Albret, Chateau-Thierry and the county of Evreux. The woollen stuffs of Sedan were exported into different countries, but when it was added to France, it lost with its freedom part of its trade. Colbert, however, encouraged the manufacturers, and they derived considerable profits by supplying the Parisians with a light-coloured cloth, which Lewis the Fourteenth affected to admire, and which on that account, became very fashionable; it is in making black cloth, however, that the present manufacturers of Sedan are said to excel. The town is well built, the streets are broad and straight, the houses are large, and a fine bridge rises on the Meuse. The arms of many famous knights are preserved in the arsenal; and an old castle in the vicinity was the birthplace of Turenne.^e Sedan is at present included among the strong places of the third class. Donchery, situated on the right of the Meuse, and a flourishing town before the principality was united to France,

^a "At present, however, it contains only 1500 inhabitants."

^b "—which stands on a height (*montagne*) and occupies the site of a fortress—"

^c "—flannels, cloths and cashmeres."

^d Chateau-Portien.—Lat. *Castrum Portianum*.—P.

^e "Covered with industrious villages, the territory of Sedan compensates for its want of fertility by its numerous manufactures. The town of Sedan, like that of Rethel, appears to have derived its origin from a strong castle. Charles the Bald made himself master of it in 880. It was already a place of some importance, when it was erected into a principality, at which time it belonged to the archbishops of Reims. It afterwards passed into the house of La Marck, and then into that of La Tour d'Auvergne, by which it was finally ceded, in 1642, to Louis XIII., in exchange for the duchies of Albret and Chateau-Thierry, and the county of Evreux.* It was even then noted for its manufacture of woollen stuffs; but on its union with France, it lost with its municipal franchises (*franchise de sa commune*) a part of its industry: Colbert, however, succeeded in restoring it to its former prosperity, by encouraging the manufacture of large quantities of a fine light cloth,† which Louis XIV. affected to admire, and which on that account became very fashionable, and a source of great profit to the manufacturers. At present, it excels principally in the manufacture of black cloths.‡ It is a well built town, with several broad and straight streets, and many elegant houses, and also with a fine bridge over the Meuse, and an arsenal, in which the armour of many celebrated knights is preserved. The old castle of Sedan was the birthplace of Marshal Turenne."

* Sedan belonged formerly to the archbishops of Reims, with the title of sovereign principality: it passed from them into the house of La Marck; then by marriage into that of La Tour d'Auvergne, holding neither of the emperor nor of the king of France. But Frederick Maurice de La Tour d'Auvergne, duke of Bouillon, and father of Turenne, ceded this sovereignty to Louis XIII. in 1642, in exchange for the duchies of Albret and Chateau-Thierry and the county of Evreux, reserving, however, the title of Prince of Sedan.† (Enc. Meth.)—P.

† This is a mistake. He was the elder brother of Marshal Turenne. P.

‡ In 1642, he was compelled to surrender Sedan to the crown; reserving, however, the title of prince. In 1651, both the sovereignty and title were surrendered by treaty, in exchange for the county of Auvergne and the county of La Tour, which had been united to the crown by the marriage of Catharine de Medicis, daughter of Maedalen de La Tour d'Auvergne, and also for the duchies of Albret and Chateau-Thierry, the county of Evreux, &c. (Moreri.)—See note under the head of Tulle (department of the Correz.)—P.

† "Drap léger."

‡ The department of the Ardennes is particularly noted for its superfine cloths, called *draps de Sedan*, of which the black are remarkable for their beauty. (Pencet.)—The cloths of Julianne, and the superfine fabrics of Sedan, as well in scarlet

does not now contain more than eighteen hundred inhabitants.

The Meuse forms many windings, and returns twice nearly to the same place, it waters Mezieres, a town of which the importance depends more on fortifications than on the number of inhabitants.^f It was made the capital of the department on account of its military position; the houses and streets are ill built, the walls are old and clumsy, but it was there Bayard compelled Charles the Fifth and his numerous army to retreat.^g It is only separated from Charleville by the Meuse which in one of its windings forms a small peninsula;^h the latter town is much larger than Mezieres; it contains nearly eight thousand inhabitants, and it also differs from it in other respects; its streets are broad and straight, and the regularity with which it is built, renders the defects of the neighbouring city more apparent. The four principal streets terminate in a large square, encompassed by arcades, and decorated with a marble fountain. The theatre is a large building, several valuable manuscripts are contained in the public library, and some curious articles may be observed in the collection of antiquities. More industrious than Mezieres, it supplies the department with a great quantity of cutlery, hardwares, nails and other goods of the same kind; there are different workshops in which fire-arms are made, one of them was established by government. A favourable position and a convenient harbour account in some measure for its trade.ⁱ It was founded in the seventeenth century by Charles de Gonzague,^k duke of Nevers and Mantua; but it was taken in the year 1686 by the French, by whom its fortifications were destroyed. A height in the neighbourhood, formerly commanded by a strong castle, has been dignified with the classical name of Olympus. The duke of Nevers and Mantua retired to the castle after the loss of the town, he was at last compelled to yield to his more powerful adversary.^l

as in other bright colours, and in black, are fit only for the rich. (Ed. Encyc. art. France.)—The manufacture of fine cloth at Sedan, owes its origin to Nicholas Cadeau, a native of France, who had learned the mode of manufacturing fine cloths in Holland. He obtained letters patent for twenty years in 1646, in conjunction with J. Binet and Yves de Marsailles, merchants of Paris. That privilege having expired in 1666, new letters patent were granted by Louis XIV. during the administration of Colbert, by which all the master manufacturers then in Sedan, and those who should afterwards settle there, were erected into a community, to be governed by a body of statutes which had been previously prepared by an assembly of the magistrates and manufacturers. (Ed. Encyc. vol. IX. p. 425. Savary, Dict. Comm. t. III. p. 253, 1699.)—P.

^f "The Meuse, which in its course forms two large curves (*se repliant deux fois sur elle-même*) and many windings, waters Mezieres, a town of more importance from its fortifications than from the number of its inhabitants."

^g "It has never been taken by an enemy, and although ill built, is a place of much interest to a stranger, from the circumstance that Charles V. with a numerous army, was obliged to retreat from before its walls, in consequence of its vigorous defence by the Chevalier Bayard."

^h "Charleville is only separated from it by the Meuse, which again bends on itself so as to form a small peninsula."—Charleville is situated on the Meuse near Mezieres, with which it is connected by a bridge and a causeway. (Vosgien.)—P.

ⁱ "It possesses a handsome theatre, a large public library, and a cabinet of natural history and antiquities, in which there are many remarkable curiosities. More industrious than Mezieres, it manufactures annually about 4,000,000 kilogrammes of nails, besides arms* and hardware;† the government also carries on there a manufacture of fire-arms.‡ Its port is convenient and its commerce very active."

* "Armes de luxe"—arms of elegant and costly workmanship.—P.

† "Fronnerie"—certain small articles of hardware, wrought with the hammer only, particularly such as are used by coach, harness and trunk makers, and by saddlers. (Savary.)—P.

‡ It contains one of the five great manufactories of arms in the kingdom. (Mor.)—P.

^k Charles Gonzague.

^l "On a roek near the town, to which the name of Mount Olympus (*Mont Olympe*) has been given, a castle was formerly situated. After the duke of Nevers and Mantua had lost the town, he remained proprietor of Mount Olympus; but the king of France was master of the gates and walls of the castle, which made the sovereignty of the duke a source of much pleasantry."

Before the Meuse leaves France, it waters a tongue of land below Charleville, which comprehends the greater part of the forest of the Ardennes. It passes by Fumay, a town of 1600 inhabitants, of which the schistus quarries yield annually forty millions of slates. The same river, near the frontier, separates Givet-Notre-Dame from Givet-St. Hilaire and Charlemont; the two latter are situated on the left bank, but all the three are united by their fortifications, and form in reality only a single town, that is ranked among the strong places of the first class. Charlemont, as its name signifies, stands on a height; the two Givets are situated below it, the one on the declivity and the other near the base of a hill in an opposite direction; they are regularly built, adorned with large squares, and enriched by trade. The harbour is convenient; the duties were lately diminished, and the commerce between it and the Netherlands has consequently been increased.^a Givet was the birthplace of Mehul, one of the best French composers. The origin of this double town has been attributed to two villages, which according to tradition were built before Cæsar's time;^b the fortifications were planned by Vauban. Charlemont was founded by Charles the Fifth, but it has belonged to France since the treaty of Nimeguen, which was concluded in 1678. Rocroy, a strong place, is situated in a fruitful plain, encompassed by the forest of the Ardennes; it is celebrated on account of a victory that the great Condé, then hardly twenty-two years of age, gained over the Spaniards.

The Oise traverses the department of the Aisne from north-east to south-west, whilst the river from which it has taken its name, flows across it from east to west. The two rivers first water a chalk region, but as they proceed, they pass between calcareous rocks, to which the chalk serves as a support. The heights are mostly confined to the south, low plains extend on the north.^c The Somme, the Scheldt and the Sambre rise in the department.^d The temperature is very variable, and the frosts in spring are often hurtful to vegetation.^e The forests are large and extensive; indeed the mast or fruit of the beech produces, in some years, a quantity of oil, equal in value to £.20,000;^f it is sold and consumed in the country.^g Agriculture has arrived at a high degree of perfection; more than two-thirds of the harvest are exported; the number of horses, oxen and sheep, relatively to the extent of surface, is much greater than in most other parts of the kingdom. The department is well

provided with roads and navigable rivers, and it seems as if the knowledge and industry of the inhabitants were proportionate to their means of communication.^h

The Oise is not larger than a rivulet at the burgh of Hirson, which carries on a trade in lace, cutlery, nails and iron bars.ⁱ Nouvion en Tierarche^k contains three thousand individuals; glass forms the principal article of commerce, and the glass-works are the most remarkable buildings in the place. The rich pastures in the district enable the inhabitants to supply different parts of France with excellent cheese.^l The small town of Guise, formerly a stronghold, was erected into a duchy^m by Francis the First in favour of Claude of Lorraine;ⁿ it is at present peopled by three thousand five hundred inhabitants, and the lower orders are mostly employed in manufacturing cotton.^o Vervins, still less populous, rises like an amphitheatre on the banks of the Velpion; it is mentioned in history on account of the treaty concluded in 1598, between Henry the Fourth and Philip the Second of Spain.

Many villages, burghs and small towns are scattered in the district of St. Quentin; the inhabitants manufacture fine linen, gauze and shawls of different sorts.^p All these branches of industry are united in St. Quentin,^q the chief town, of which the population has doubled within the last forty years. It is well built, and a subterranean canal, almost two leagues in length,^r facilitates the conveyance of goods. Its situation on the banks of the Somme, at the distance of some leagues from its source, corresponds very well with the position of *Augusta Veromanduorum* on the *Samara*,^s in ancient times, the chief city of the *Veromandui*. It was sacked by the barbarians at the commencement of the sixth century, and afterwards rebuilt, when it took the name which it now bears, in honour of St. Quentin, because St. Eloi pretended to have found his bones in the ruins of the ancient city, three hundred and sixty years after his martyrdom.

The Oise, at no great distance below its confluence with the Serre, waters a large island, at the southern extremity of which is situated the small fortified town of La Fere; it contains two thousand five hundred inhabitants, and has a school of artillery, and an arsenal. A subterranean passage, two hundred feet in length, supported by arcades sixty feet in height, is said to be the work of Goujon, it is certainly constructed with great elegance and skill.^t A detachment

^a "Charlemont, as its name indicates, is situated on a height (*montagne*.) The two Givets, one of which is placed on the declivity of the same height, and the other on a corresponding declivity on the opposite side of the river, are regularly built and adorned with fine public squares; they possess a convenient port on the river, from which they carry on a flourishing commerce: it would, however, be much increased by a diminution of the duties that now (1829) obstruct communication with the Netherlands."

^b "—which existed, it is said, in the time of Cæsar."

^c "The surface of the territory is characterized by heights on the south, and by low plains on the north."

^d On its northern frontier.—P.

^e During the last thirty years, the temperature of the climate appears to have diminished; this may perhaps be attributed to the increase of the forests, since within that period the number of trees has been considerably augmented. M. B.

^f "—to more than 200,000 francs"—about £.8,500.—P.

^g M. Brayer, *Statistique du département de l'Aisne*.

^h "It exports about one-third of the grain it produces, rears many more sheep than most of the other departments, and possesses a much greater number of horses. The extent of its roads and navigable waters is greater than the medium extent in France, and its population, industry and intelligence are in proportion to these advantages."

ⁱ M. le baron Ch. Dupin, *Forces productives et commerciales de la France*, t. II. p. 87.

^j "—which carries on several kinds of manufacture; it furnishes thread for lace (*fil à dentelles*), chafing-dishes (*rechouids*), nails and bar-iron."

^k Tierarche (Vosgien.) Tierache (Encyc. Meth.)—a district of Picardy, in which Nouvion is situated. See page 1018. Tierarche must be a typographical error.—P.

^l "Nouvion en Tierarche, a *bourg* of 3000 inhabitants, possesses a large glass manufactory (*verrierie*.) Its fertile pastures enable it to furnish a great quantity of cheese similar to that of Marolles."

^m A village in the department of the North, one league E. of Landrecy. (Vosgien.)—See note ^c page 1014.—P.

ⁿ "Duché-pairie."

^o Younger son of René II. duke of Lorraine.—P.

^p "It possesses several cotton mills (*filatures de coton*.)"

^q "The arrondissement of St. Quentin is full of villages, *bourgs* and small towns (*villes*), in which lawn, gauze and cashmere shawls are manufactured."

^r St. Quentin.

^s "—and its canal, which is carried under ground for an extent of nearly two leagues"—St. Quentin communicates with the Oise by the canal of La Fere, 11 leagues in length, and with the Scheldt by another canal, more than 32 miles in length, in which there are two tunnels, one of 1191 yards, and another of 3 miles 1026 yards; there is also a third canal along the Somme below St. Quentin. These three canals are called the canals of Picardy. (Ed. Encyc. art. Navig. Inland.)—P.

^t The ancient name of the Somme.—P.

^u "It possesses a subterranean gallery 160 feet in length, of which the arcades are 60 feet in height, and which from its elegant construction has been attributed to Jean Goujon;" (a celebrated sculptor in the 16th century.)—P.

of the Prussian army appeared before La Fere on the 26th of February 1814, and as it was then only defended by four hundred men, it was compelled to surrender; the enemy took possession of whatever there was in the arsenal and in the library.^a The Prussians having been informed that it was well supplied with provisions,^b attempted to take it a second time in 1815. The garrison was by no means strong, but the troops, the national guard and even the women displayed great bravery and determination; they suffered the severest privations during a blockade that lasted nearly five months, when at last the enemy thought it prudent to retire. The Prussians asked permission to pass through the town, a condition which the citizens refused; the general then raised the blockade, and sent a letter to the authorities, congratulating them on the courage of the inhabitants and the garrison. The burgh of St. Gobain^c in the same district,^d is known in France for its mirrors and looking glasses, some of the former are ten feet in height by five in breadth;^e three millions of bottles are made every year in the neighbouring burgh of Folembray.^f

Laon, a strong and well built town about five leagues to the south-east of La Fere, crowns a detached hill in the middle of a large plain. It owes its origin to a Gallic fortress, which in the fifth century bore the name of *Laudunum*;^g it was enlarged by Clovis,^h and it became a royal residence under the kings of the second race; indeed Lothaire and Louis the Fifth were born in the town. The most remarkable buildings are the old cathedral,ⁱ a fine Gothic edifice, built in the year 1115, and the tower of Lewis d'Outre-Mer, which the Vandals of the revolution attempted in vain to destroy in the year 1794.^k The burgh of Notre-Dame de Liesse,^l about three leagues to the north-east of Laon, was built in the time of the crusades; it was formerly celebrated for a miraculous image of the Virgin, which, according to the legends, was brought from Cairo in a single night by the daughter of an Egyptian sultan.

Soissons, the capital of a district,^m and the see of a bish-

^a "Library of the school of artillery."

^b "—that its military establishments had been repaired and provisioned—"
^c St. Gobain.

^d "—in the vicinity of the town" (La Fere)—4 miles S. of La Fere.—P.

^e "—is noted for its glass works, in which mirrors are cast, ten feet in height and five in breadth."—The glass manufactory at St. Gobain was originally established in Paris, under the direction of a company patented by Colbert 1665. It was the first establishment in France in which mirrors were manufactured. It was afterwards removed for the advantage of fuel to the old castle of St. Gobain, situated near the Oise, and in the vicinity of a large forest.—P.

^f "In the neighbouring village of Folembray, there is an establishment (*rerrierie*), in which 150,000 bell-glasses and 3,000,000 bottles are annually manufactured."

^g *Laudunum, Lugdunum Claratum.* (Moreri).—*Laodunum, Ladunum.* (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^h "Clovis built there a few houses (*quelques maisons*)."—Laon was at first only a castle built on the summit of a hill, from which circumstance its original name (*Laudunum*) was derived. It is said to have been made a town by Clovis, in whose reign an episcopal church (bishopric) was founded there by St. Remi. (Moreri.)—P.

ⁱ *Dun* (Celtic, a hill or mountain, or a fortress on a height.—P.

^j "The former cathedral (*l'ancienne cathédrale*)."—The bishopric of Laon was suppressed during the revolution.—P.

^k "—and the tower of Louis the Stranger,^m in the square of La Hure (*Place de la Hure*), which they attempted in vain to demolish in 1794."

^l Louis IV. (d'Outre-Mer or the Transmarine, so called from his exile in England before his accession to the throne.)—P.

^m "The *bourg* of Notre-Dame de Liens, which has long bore the name of Notre-Dame de Liesse"—Liesse or Notre-Dame de Liesse (*Nastra Domina de Latitia*). The name was written Liens in the time of Charles VI., and Liance or Liencie in the old French geographers. (Enc. Meth.)—P

ⁿ "Arrondissement."

opric, is a neat and well built town, and claims a very ancient origin; it was called *Noviodunum*ⁿ before the munificence of Augustus induced the inhabitants to change the name to that of *Augusta Suessionum*. It is situated in a fruitful valley watered by the Aisne; it had its kings before the conquest of Gaul, and even after the invasion of the Franks.^o It was in its neighbourhood that the feeble remains of the Roman power were destroyed by Clovis. The present fortifications were erected by the duke of Mayenne, who made it his principal depot of arms and ammunition.^p The temporary works of defence that were raised in 1815, enabled it to offer a long resistance to the allied armies.

The small town of La Ferté-Milon^q near the forest of Villers-Cotterets, is built like an amphitheatre on the declivity of a hill; it is watered by the Ourcq, encompassed with walls, and commanded by the ruins of a strong castle.^r It claims the honour of having given birth to Racine;^s the bust of the poet decorates the public library, which contains seventeen thousand volumes, but his statue ought to be erected in the court of the town-house.^t As there are three churches, an hospital and different public institutions, it might be supposed that the town was a place of some importance, the population, however, does not exceed two thousand three hundred, individuals.^u Chateau-Thierry^x is situated on the Marne; a public walk extends on the right bank of the river, and the town is separated by a modern bridge from one of the suburbs. The new buildings contrast well with the ruins of the castle, from which the town derives its name.^y The castle itself was built by Charles Martel in the year 720, as a residence for the young king Thierry the Fourth.^z It was inhabited by that prince, by the counts of Vermandois, and by those of Champagne, by Henry the Second, by the duke of Alençon, who died in it, by Louis the Thirteenth, and by the dukes of Bouillon; houses were gradually built round it, and in one of them still inhabited, the celebrated Lafontaine was born.^{aa}

The department of the Seine and Marne is traversed on

ⁿ It was the *Noviodunum* of Cæsar (De Bell. Gall. II. §13.)—P.

^o Soissons was the capital of some of the French kings of the first race, who were on that account called kings of Soissons. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^p "It owes its present walls (*enceinte*) to the duke of Mayenne,^q who made it one of his principal strong holds (*places d'armes*)."^r

^q Chief of the League, after the death of Henry III.—P.

^r Lat. *Firmitas Milanis*.—There are fifteen French towns, mentioned in Vosgien, that bear the name of Ferté, with a surname attached.—Ferté (Lat. *Firmitas*) signifies a strong place, generally built on a rock, and intended as a place of refuge from the incursions of enemies. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^s "—it contains the ruins of a strong castle."—It possesses a very fine castle (*château*), called the great house (*la grande maison*), which belongs to the bishops of Soissons. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^t Racine was born at La Ferté-Milon, Dec. 21, 1639.—P.

^u "—in the public square fronting the town-house (*place de l'hôtel-de-ville*)."

^v "Its three churches and its hospital are well kept and of elegant architecture. From this circumstance it might be concluded that the town was a place of some importance; its population, however, scarcely exceeds 2000 souls: we can hardly need therefore a more striking proof of the spirit and intelligence of its inhabitants."

^w Lat. *Castrum Theodorici*.

^x "Its promenade borders the right bank of the river, and an elegant bridge separates it from one of its suburbs. It is a well built town, and rises in the form of an amphitheatre. It presents a fine appearance when seen from the left bank of the Marne, and contrasts strongly with the ruins of the castle from which it derives its name."

^y Thierry II. of the kings of Neustria (Soissons or Paris,) and IV. of the Merovingian dynasty.—There were several branches of the Merovingian family; the three principal were those of Neustria, Orleans and Austrasia.—P.

^z "In consequence of this residence, the town of Chateau-Thierry rose at the foot of the castle. It was the birthplace of Lafontaine, the celebrated fabulist, and the house in which he was born still remains."

the south by the first of those rivers, and on the north by the second. La Ferté sous Jouare,^a a small town on the Marne, is situated in a pleasant and fruitful valley; the cleanliness which prevails, the elegant simplicity of the houses, and the activity of the port on the Marne, indicate an industrious city. The population amounts to about four thousand souls; there are two manufactories of carding combs, in which forty thousand kilogrammes of leather and iron are used every year; it exports a great quantity of mill-stones into different countries, and carries on a considerable trade in wood and charcoal for the supply of the capital.^b The neat burgh of Dammartin to the north of the Marne, rises on a detached hill, in the form of an amphitheatre, and commands a view which extends to a distance of more than fifteen leagues; a cattle fair of some consequence is held every year in the month of December.^c Juilly, a place of some celebrity on account of a college,^d is situated near the burgh of Chelles,^e where Chilperic was assassinated in 584; part of a rich abbey still remains, it was founded in the seventh century by Batilda, the wife of Clovis the Second.^f

Meaux on the banks of the Marne^g is the chief town in a subprefecture, and the see of a bishopric. It was the ancient city of *Jatinum*, the capital of the *Meldi*; hence it was called *Meldæ* after the Roman conquest.^h It was a place of some importance under the kings of the first race; at a later period the inhabitants were among the first in France, who embraced the principles of the reformation, and no other town suffered more during the religious wars in the sixteenth century.ⁱ The Marne divides it into two unequal parts, and the Ourcq canal flows below the remains of walls that were destroyed in the time of the League.^k The streets are regular, the houses are well built, and within the cathedral are deposited the ashes of the celebrated Bossuet. The town carries on a great trade with Paris in oats and corn; it sends besides into different parts of France, more than 3,200,000 kilogrammes^l of cheese, which still bears the name of the ancient province.^m

Many places are supplied with quills from Brie-Comte-

Robert; the church is elegantly built, the Gothic arches in the interior are remarkable for their lightness, and the tower rises to a considerable height; ruins covered with ivy indicate the site of an ancient castle, that belonged to the counts of Brie.ⁿ Melun, the birthplace of James Amyot,^o and the ancient city of *Melodunum*, is divided into three parts^p by the Seine; it stands at the base of a hill, and neat houses and clean streets add perhaps to the effect of a picturesque situation; the ruins of an old castle rise on the adjoining hill, it was inhabited by queen Blanche and several kings of France.^q Melun is the capital of the department, and a road leads to Fontainebleau, from which it is distant about four leagues; the latter town is regularly built and surrounded by a large forest. The neighbouring country is covered with the richest verdure, lofty oaks shade the walks and alleys, inequalities in the soil, and masses of sandstone vary the scenery. The plan of the royal castle was committed to Primatice by Francis the First, it was afterwards embellished by five kings. Henry the Third was born in the same edifice, and Pius the Seventh resided in it eighteen months; it was there that the crime which has been attributed to Christina of Sweden was committed, it was there that Napoleon abdicated. The town consisted originally of the houses which were grouped round a castle built by Lewis the Young in 1169. It has been affirmed that it was first called *Fontaine-Belle-Eau*, but the name of *Fons Bliaudi* which occurs in several deeds, serves to confirm the common opinion concerning the discovery of a spring. A dog named *Bliaud*, belonging to Lewis the Seventh, was missed in the chase, and after a long search the king found it quenching his thirst at a stream until then unknown; the place was afterwards chosen as the site of a hunting residence. Dancourt and Poinset are perhaps the most distinguished literary men that the town has produced.^r

Nemours is situated at the extremity of the same forest below the old castle of *Nemus*; the groves, by which they were formerly surrounded, account for the names of the castle and the town. Nemours was erected into a titular duchy in the fourteenth century, and the duke who fell at the bat-

ligious wars in the sixteenth century.^s

^a It was the first town in France, in which the Protestants began to preach their doctrines. (Moréri.)—P.

^b "The canal of the Ourcq* flows at the foot of its ruined walls, which date from the period of those religious troubles."

^c A canal drawn from the river Ourcq, for the purpose of supplying Paris with water.—P.

^d The kilogramme is equal to 2 lbs. 3 oz. 5 dr. Avoirdupois. Tr.

^e "It is a well built town, and within its cathedral, a building of elegant architecture,* the ashes of Bossuet are deposited. It is the centre of an extensive trade in oats and corn, for the supply of Paris; it manufactures cotton stuffs, and exports annually 3,200,000 kilogrammes of cheese, which still retains the name of its ancient province."[†]

*The choir of the cathedral is considered a master-piece. (Vosgien.)—P.

[†] Meaux was the capital of Upper Brie (*Haute Brie*.) (Vosgien.) See Note 1 p. 974.—The cheese made in Brie [*fromages de Brie*, Savary] is esteemed the best in France. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

ⁿ "Brie-Comte-Robert,* a small town of 3000 souls, in which writing quills are prepared, contains an elegantly built church—and some remains of the ancient castle of the counts of Brie."

* Now called Brie sur Yerres. (Vosgien.)—P.

^o The translator of Plutarch.—P.

^p "—into several parts"—Melun, like Paris, is divided into three parts by the Seine—one part on the north in Brie, another on an island in the river, and a third on the south in Gatinois. (Moréri.)—P.

^q "Its position at the foot of a hill, its neat houses, and its straight and regular streets, give it an agreeable aspect. It still preserves the ruins of a castle, which Queen Blanche and several of the kings of France inhabited."[†]

^r "At the distance of four leagues to the south of Melun, the capital of the department, Fontainebleau, regularly built in the midst of an extensive forest, which has become celebrated from the richness of its vegetation, its old oaks, its broad and beautiful alleys, its uneven sur-

^a La Ferté-Aucoul (*Firmitas Auculphi*) [-Aucout, Enc. Meth.] or La Ferté sous Jouarre. (Vosgien.)—The latter name is derived from its situation below the *bourg* of Jouare, formerly noted for its magnificent abbey of Benedictines.—P.

^b "It derives its prosperity from two card* manufactories, in which 40,000 kilogrammes of leather and iron are consumed annually; from its large buhrstone† quarries, in which mill-stones are made to such an extent that 50,000 kilogrammes of iron are employed in hooping them, and from which they are exported in great quantities to foreign countries; and also from a considerable trade in wood and charcoal for the supply of Paris."

* "Cards"—cards for wool, cotton, &c.

† "Pierres meulrières."

^c "It manufactures lace, and a cattle fair of considerable importance is held there every year in the beginning of December."

^d Originally an abbey, but erected into a college by the Congregation of the Oratory, 1639.—P.

^e "After passing through Juilly*—we arrive at the *bourg* of Chelles"—Dammartin is on the northern frontier of the department, 5 leagues N. W. of Meaux, and Chelles near the Marne, 4 leagues E. of Paris, and consequently S. W. of Meaux. Juilly is 3 leagues N. W. of Meaux, and of course on the route from Dammartin to Chelles.—P.

* Juilly, or Jully. (Enc. Meth.)—Jully. (Moréri.)

^f "The building is all that remains of the rich abbey, founded in the seventh century by Batilda, wife of Clovis II."—An abbey of Benedictine nuns, founded 662—suppressed during the revolution. The original does not say that a part of the abbey remains, but that nothing is left of the institution but its buildings.—P.

^g "Ascending the Marne [from Chelles] we arrive at Meaux —Meaux is 12 leagues N. E. and Chelles 4 leagues E. of Paris. (Vosgien.)—P.

^h "—whence it afterwards took the name of *Meldæ*."

ⁱ "It was one of those towns which most readily embraced the reformation,* and also one of those which suffered most from the re-

tle of Cerignole, was the last descendant of the family of Armagnac.^a The duchy has been perpetuated in the house of Orleans since the time of Louis the Fourteenth. The population amounts to three thousand seven hundred inhabitants. An old castle rises above a modern bridge on the Loing, but the town is also watered by a canal, and it carries on a considerable trade in proportion to its size.^b The same feeder of the Seine, and the same canal water the ancient and pleasant town of Moret; but the Yonne enters the Seine about two leagues above it at Montereau-Font-Yonne,—the *Condute* of the Gauls, so called from its situation at the confluence of two rivers; the name of *Monasteriolum*, which it obtained after the introduction of Christianity into the country, has been gradually corrupted into Montereau.^c The bridge in the town serves to recall two important events: Charles the Seventh, then dauphin, and John Sans Peur, duke of Burgundy, having agreed to meet there in the year 1419, the duke was murdered by assassins, who were suborned by Charles: it was near the same bridge that the allied armies were defeated by the French in 1814.^d The town possesses a considerable trade in porcelain; the population does not exceed four thousand inhabitants.^e

A road from the small town of Bray sur Seine extends along the valley watered by the Vouzie, and leads to Provins, which is called *Castrum Provinum*^f in the chronicles of the eighth century; it is not, however, improbable that it

face, covered by a sandy soil, here and there interspersed with hillocks formed by broken blocks of sandstone, and in short from the beauty of its scenery, is remarkable for its royal palace (*château royal*), built under the direction of Primaticcio by Francis I., and which five kings have since embellished. This edifice has been the scene of many interesting events, from the birth of Henry III. to the eighteen months' residence of Pius VII., and from the act of cruelty committed there by Christina of Sweden,* to the abdication of Napoleon. The town owes its origin to the houses that were grouped round a castle built by Louis the Young in 1169. Its original name is said to have been *Fontaine-Belle-Eau*;[†] but that of *Fons Bliaudi*, which it bears in the documents of the period, serves to justify the opinion, that the discovery of a spring by one of the dogs of Louis VII., called Bliaud, who was found quenching his thirst in it, led that prince to select the place as the site of a hunting residence. Before this castle was erected, the surrounding forest bore the name of the forest of Bievre. Philip the Fair may be mentioned among the princes, and Dancourt and Poinset[‡] among the literary men, who were born in Fontainebleau.[§]

* The murder of Monaldeschi, her master of horse, by her orders, and almost in her immediate presence.—P.

† Lat. *Fons Belloquæus*—said to be so named from the beauty of a fountain in the palace gardens.—P.

‡ P. C. Dancourt, the dramatist, born 1661—A. A. H. Poinset, another dramatic author, born 1735.—P.

§ “The pleasant town of Nemours rises on the skirts of the forest of Fontainebleau, at the foot of a castle called *Nemus*, from its situation in the midst of woods. The name of the town is derived from that of the castle.* Its lords first took the title of chevaliers, but in the 14th century it was erected into a duchy (*duché-pairie*.) The duke of Nemours who fell in the battle of Cerignola,[‡] was the last descendant of the house of Armagnac.[†]”

* Its Latin name is *Nemus*. It was formerly called *Nemox* and *Nemouz*, the last of which has been changed into Nemours. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

† A town in Apulia, where the French were defeated in 1503.—P.

‡ The seignory of Nemours was purchased of its original feudal lords, (who merely bore the title of chevaliers,) by St. Louis and Philip the Hardy, in the 13th century. It was erected into a duchy by Charles VI. in 1404, in favour of Charles III. king of Navarre; but reverted to the crown in 1425. Louis XI. ceded it, in 1461, to James d'Armagnac, who left two sons, John and Louis, both of whom died without issue; the latter fell in the battle of Cerignola, 1503. As the duchy was descendible only in the male line, it again reverted to the crown on the death of Louis d'Armagnac, and in 1507 was granted by Louis XII. [by a new erection. Enc. Meth.] to his nephew, Gaston de Foix, who was killed at the battle of Ravenna, 1512. Francis I. gave it in 1515 to Julian de Medicis, and again in 1524, to his uncle, Philip of Savoy, in whose family it continued till its termination in 1659, on the death of Henry of Savoy, the last of the male lineage. The duchy was finally granted by Louis XIV., to his brother, Philip duke of Orleans, in whose family it still continues, whence the title of the second son of the present king of the French. (Moreri. Enc. Meth.)—P.

b “The streets in Nemours are broad and straight; it possesses a large library in proportion to its population, an old castle, and a fine bridge over the Loing; it is also traversed by a canal,* and carries on a considerable commerce.”

existed in the time of the Romans.⁵ It is encompassed with old walls, and with ramparts;^h the upper town is built on a hill, and the remains of a fort that the inhabitants attribute to the Romans, rise on the summit;⁵ several monuments of the middle ages may be observed in different directions. It has of late years become a place of resort on account of a ferruginous spring.ⁱ The counts of Champagne used formerly to reside at Provins; the number of its inhabitants, inconsiderable in proportion to its extent, renders it probable that it was then more important than at present. Rozoy^k on the small river Yerres^l is surrounded with ramparts shaded by lofty trees, and is adorned by a fine Gothic church, but it is chiefly worthy of notice on account of the famous paper manufactory at Courtalin, an adjoining hamlet; the waters that supply the works rise to the height of a hundred and sixty feet.¹ Corn and leather are the principal articles of trade at Coulommiers, the small capital of a subprefecture.^m

Before we leave the department of the Seine and Marne, it may be remarked that it abounds in cornⁿ and wine, that more sheep are reared in it than in most other departments, and that it derives great advantages from numerous means of communication.

The department of the Oise is more populous, and almost as productive in corn, but it does not yield more than a fifth part of the wine produced by the former department; the inhabitants rear a great many sheep;^o like all the departments that surround Paris, it is intersected by numerous

* The canal of the Loing, communicating with the canals of Briare and Orleans, below Montargis, and extending to the Seine at Mamort, below Moret.—P.

c “The Loing, before it enters the Seine, waters the ancient and agreeable town of Moret,* which is traversed by the canal that passes through Nemours. Two leagues above it, the Yonne falls into the Seine, at Montereau-Faut-Yonne.[†] The Gauls gave the latter town the name of *Condute*, from its situation at the confluence of those two streams; but after the establishment of Christianity, it took that of *Monasteriolum*, whence the origin of its present name.”

* Moret or Muret. (Moreri.)

† Montereau-Faut-Yonne. (Vosgien.)

d “Charles VII., then dauphin, had an interview there, in 1419, with John the Fearless (*Jean-Sans-Peur*.) duke of Burgundy, when the latter was assassinated by a blow from an axe: * the same bridge, which has been rebuilt since 1814, was witness to a complete victory obtained by the French over the allies.[†]”

* The duke was assassinated by the followers of the dauphin, but it is uncertain whether his murder was premeditated, or whether it only arose from the passion of the moment. See Rankin's Hist. of France, Vol. V. p. 51.—P.

† Bonaparte carried the bridge of Montereau (Feb. 1814,) after four desperate attacks, in which he lost a great number of soldiers.—P.

e “Montereau is favourably situated for commerce, and possesses important manufactories of pottery (*faïence*, delft.) Its population amounts to 4000 souls.—It manufactures white porcelain and delft. (Vosgien.)—P.

f *Prævinum*, *Provinum* or *Provinum castrum*, in the Latin of the middle ages. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

g “It existed, however, in the time of the Romans——at least the remains of an ancient fortress on the summit of the hill on which the upper town is built, have been attributed to that people.”

h “Boulevards.”

i “It is much resorted to in the summer season on account of a ferruginous spring.”^k Rosoy—Hyerès. (Vosgien.)

l “At the hamlet of Courtalin, in the neighbourhood, there is one of the most celebrated paper-mills in France. It is supplied with water by an artesian well,* in which the water rises spontaneously to the height of 160 feet.”

* A well formed by deep boring in districts where surface strata, suited for the retention and transmission of water, have sunk to a considerable depth. The water is there disposed to rise to the height occupied by the same strata where at the surface, and consequently ascends spontaneously, when the superincumbent strata are perforated.—P.

m “Coulommiers, a small town and the capital of a subprefecture, carries on a considerable trade in corn, and possesses important tanneries.”

n “Wheat (*froment*.)”

o “It possesses a greater number of sheep than are necessary for its consumption.”

roads. Crepy or Crespy^a is finely situated in a valley watered by two streams, which flow through the town;^b it was formerly more flourishing than at present, and was defended by a castle now in ruins. The old walls are flanked with bastions, the number of inhabitants does not amount to more than two thousand.^c An excellent road communicates with Senlis, which the Romans called *Augustomagus*, and where the remains of the fortifications that they raised, are still apparent. It obtained afterwards the name of *Silvanectes*, probably on account of the forests with which it was surrounded.^d It rises on the declivity of a hill, the base of which is watered by the Nonette.^e Most of the streets are narrow and crooked; the cathedral is remarkable for the lightness of its Gothic architecture, and the height of its steeple. The water in the small river is supposed to possess a peculiar quality, which renders it better adapted than any other for washing wool; the fact may be doubtful, but it must be admitted that many persons are employed in that branch of industry. There are not fewer than two hundred and fifty workmen in the cotton manufactories; the print-fields furnish occupation to more than two hundred, and the making of flour and other substances from potatoes to a hundred and fifty. The forests of Hallate, Ermonville, Pontarmé and Chantilly are situated in the neighbourhood, and the numerous streams in the large park of Mortefontaine add to the beauty of the country. Ermonville still recalls the philosopher of Geneva, and associations connected with the great Condé give additional interest to Chantilly.^f The magnificent castle, the residence of the hero, was destroyed during the revolution; while they were engaged in demolishing the chapel, they found the remains of Coligny, whose body had been secretly transported from the gibbet of Montfaucon to the domain of Chantilly, which then belonged to the house of Montmorency.^g The small castle and the principal stables remain entire, the latter are the finest buildings of the kind in France. The burgh might

^a Crepi. (Enc. Meth.)

^b "—which bathes its walls (*enceinte*)."

^c "It is surrounded by walls flanked with towers, and contains at present only 2000 inhabitants."

^d "A fine road leads from Crepy to Senlis, where the remains of the walls which the Romans constructed, may still be distinguished. Senlis was the *Augustomagus* of the Romans; it afterwards took the name of *Silvanectes*, probably on account of the forests with which it was surrounded."—Senlis was the capital of the *Silvanectes*, a tribe of the Gauls, and like most other such towns in Gaul, took the name of the people that inhabited it. (D'Anv.)—P.

^e Nonnette (Enc. Meth.)—a branch of the Oise.—P.

^f "The water in the small river that flows by the town, is supposed to be peculiarly adapted for washing wool; consequently, a great number of hands are employed in the wash-houses (*lavoirs*) of Senlis." Its other branches of industry, are the spinning and weaving of cotton, which employ 250 workmen; the business of cotton printing (*d'imprimerie*), in which more than 200 are engaged; and the preparation of starch from potatoes, which furnishes occupation to nearly one hundred and fifty. In the neighbourhood of Senlis, are situated the forests of Hallate, Ermonville, Pontarmé and Chantilly; the fine park of Mortefontaine,† in which abundant supplies of water add to the beauty of the scenery; the park of Ermonville, which still recalls the philosopher of Geneva; and that of Chantilly, alike associated with the memory of the great Condé.‡

* A great quantity of wool is washed at Senlis for the manufactories of Beauvais. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

† Mortefontaine. (Vosgien.)

‡ Louis II. prince of Condé, son of Henry II. of Condé, and Charlotte Margaret, heiress of the house of Montmorency.—P.

§ Chantilly passed from the house of Montmorency (branch of the dukes of Montmorency) into the house of Bourbon-Condé, by the marriage of Henry II. prince of Condé, with Charlotte de Montmorency, daughter of Henry I. duke of Montmorency, on the death of her brother Henry II., who died without issue [executed for high treason.] 1632.—P.

h "The only remains of this magnificent residence are the small castle (*petit château*), and the great stables, the latter a master-piece

be more correctly denominated a town, it carries on a trade in porcelain, blond and lace.^h Creil is situated on the left bank of the Oise; it may be mentioned on account of porcelain works, in which more than nine hundred persons are employed.ⁱ Montataire^k is situated in a fruitful valley, and watered by the Therain, it supplies many places with iron and the machinery in the works is moved by the river. It was an ancient village, the church rises on an eminence, Peter the Hermit preached in it, and maintained the necessity of the first crusade.^l The country round Creil^m is remarkable for the industry of the inhabitants; in a space not greater than four leagues in length by two in breadth, there are not less than a hundred and seventy-nine manufactories and eight thousand workmen; the annual proceeds of their labour represent a value equivalent to 16,000,000 of francs. On the supposition that industry was as much diffused over the rest of France, the number of workmen in the kingdom would amount to 24,000,000, while the products of their labour would indicate a value equal to nearly 48,000,000,000 francs, or £2,000,000,000. Pont St. Maxenceⁿ on the Oise is the only other town of any consequence in the district^o of Senlis; the bridge over the river was constructed by Peyronnet; it is supported by detached columns, and adorned on either side of the two extremities by obelisks.

It is affirmed that Compiègne was a town in the time of the Romans, that they called it *Compendium*, because it contained ammunition or military stores.^p A Roman way, incorrectly denominated the *Chaussée de Brunehault*,^q traverses the forest in the neighbourhood,^r and seems to attest the ancient origin of the town. But Compiègne did not become a place of importance before the time of Charles the Bald. Louis the Fair^s and Louis the Idler^t were buried in the church of St. Corneille;^u Pepin Le Bref^x placed in the same church the first organ that was seen in France, and which he had received from Constantine the Sixth.^y

of architecture. The *bourg* [of Chantilly,] which might rather be called a town (*ville*), manufactures porcelain, blond and lace."

ⁱ "It holds an important rank in the annals of French industry, from its large manufactory of English pottery (*faïence anglaise*), in which 900 workmen are employed."—Imitations of Staffordshire ware are made at Chantilly. (Ed. Encyc.)—Chantilly is about two leagues from Creil.—P.

^k Montataire. (Vosgien.)

^l "Montataire is situated in a pleasant valley watered by the Therain, which serves to move the machinery of an important manufactory of sheet-iron; it was formerly a village, with a church built on a height, in which Peter the Hermit preached, while engaged in exciting the first crusade."

^m "The canton of Creil—"

ⁿ "Pont-Sainte-Maxence" or Maixence (*Pons Sanctæ Maxentiæ*).—P.

^o "Arrondissement."

^p "It has been pretended that Compiègne existed in the time of the Romans, and that its Latin name, *Compendium*, was given it because it was an important depot of military stores.—"It was called *Compendium* in the Latin of the middle ages.—P.

^q "The highway of Brunehault."—Brunehault (Gothic, *Brunchild*, from *brun*, brown, and *hild*, love,) was the daughter of Athanagilde, king of the Visigoths in Spain, and the wife of Sigebert I. king of Austrasia (in the 6th century.) (Dreux du Radier, Mém. des Reines de France. t. I. p. 231.)—P.

^r "Its large forest"—The forest of Compiègne contains about 29,000 arpents. (Vosgien.)—P.

^s "Louis le Bel."—This must be a mistake—there is no such Louis in the line of French kings. Louis the Stammerer (*le Begue*) died at Compiègne, A. D. 879, and was buried in the abbey of St. Corneille. (Moréri.)—P.

^t "Louis le Fainçant"—*Juvenis qui nihil fecit*, in the language of the old chronicles.—P.

^u St. Cornelius.

^x "Pepin le Bref" (*the Short*), father of Charlemagne.—P.

^y "Constantine Copronymus"—Constantine IV. (Moréri) V. (Beauvais. Platt's Chronol. Biography, vol. II. p. 497.)—P.

The royal castle is a large edifice;^a it was rebuilt by Louis the Fifteenth, finished by Louis the Sixteenth, and embellished^b by Napoleon. There are several fine buildings in the town, but the streets are for the most part narrow and crooked. It was formerly surrounded with walls; the English besieged it in 1430, and in a sally, Joan of Arc was there taken prisoner. A treaty of alliance between France and Holland was concluded at Compiègne by Cardinal Richelieu in 1624. Noyon is without doubt a place of greater antiquity; the Romans changed its Celtic name into that of *Noviomagus*; it was the seat of a bishopric in the time of Charlemagne,^c who was crowned in the town; the same monarch finished the cathedral, which was begun by Pepin Le Bref. Noyon was the birthplace of Calvin the reformer, and of Sarrazin, a celebrated sculptor of the sixteenth century.^d

Because the castle of Clermont-Oise stands on the summit of a hill, and the town on the base, it has been concluded that it was built by the Romans, although the ancient castle does not in any way resemble a Roman edifice. It is at present chiefly remarkable for the beauty of the surrounding country.^e Philip the Fair was born in the town,^f but it is more renowned as having been the birthplace of the celebrated Cassini.^g It was in the thirteenth century the capital of a county, which St. Louis gave to his son Robert, the founder of the house of Bourbon. A religious ceremony was formerly observed on the anniversary of Saint Jengou,^h the tutelary saint of easy husbands; it has been discontinued probably on account of the additional number of good wives; at all events the moral improvement of the inhabitants may be attributed to the progress of industry. The memory of the duke De Liancourt is revered in the country; the population in the small village from which he derived his title, was equal a few years ago to eight hundred inhabitants, it exceeds at present thirteen hundred. Liancourt is about a league and a half from Clermont, and the small manufactories in other places in the neighbourhood afford the means of subsistence to laborious inhabitants.ⁱ

^a "The royal castle (*château*) is one of the most remarkable for its extent, the splendour and proper distribution of its apartments, and the arrangement of its gardens"—It is still one of the royal residences (*maisons royales*).—P.

^b "Modernised."

^c The ancient bishopric of the *Veromandui* (Vermandois) was transferred to it from the ruined town of *Augusta Veromandorum* in 530. (Moreri.)—The bishopric has been suppressed.—P.

^d J. Sarazin, born 1598, died 1660. (Dict. Hist. Caen, 1804.)—P.

^e "The singular construction of the castle of Clermont-Oise,* which rises on the summit of a hill, at the foot of which the town is situated, has led to the belief that it was built by the Romans, and that the origin of the town itself ascends to the remotest period: the castle, although ancient, does not appear to exhibit the characters of a Roman building; the beauty and extent of the prospect it presents, form its principal recommendation."

* So called from its situation in the department of the Oise.—Clermont. (Vosgien. Alman. Royal.)—Clermont en Beauvoisis. (Enc. Meth. Moreri.)—It stands on the small river Breche, a branch of the Oise.—P.

^f "Petit chef-lieu"—small town, and capital of an *arrondissement*.

^g Philip the Fair, king of France, was born at Fontainebleau. (Moreri—Dict. Hist. Caen.)—P.

^h "—boasts of being the birthplace of our celebrated Cassini"—probably Count Cassini, member of the National Institute. His father, grandfather and great-grandfather were all eminent astronomers. The two former were born in Paris, and the latter in the county of Nice. His father, C. Fr. Cassini de Thury, was born in Paris, 1714. His grandfather, J. Cassini, died at Thury, an estate he possessed near Clermont, 1756. (Dict. Hist. Caen.)—P.

ⁱ "They made formerly, in the month of May, a kind of pilgrimage to Clermont, in honour of St. Jengou—"

* St. Gengoux. (Enc. Meth.)

^j "The moral character of the people has been sensibly ameliorated throughout the whole *arrondissement*, by the progress they have made in industry, chiefly in consequence of the special encouragement given it by the Duke of Liancourt, (whose memory is justly venerated,) on his

The same industry and activity are observable in the villages round Beauvais; indeed more than three hundred workmen are employed in the burgh of Bresle.^k Beauvais,^l the former capital of Beauvaisis,^l a small country anciently inhabited by the *Bellovaci*, is said to have been called *Bellovacum*, before it received the name of *Casaro-Magus*.^m The streets are sufficiently broad, but many of the houses are built of wood, which gives it a disagreeable appearance. The choir of the cathedral is complete, the nave and other parts of the building are still unfinished.ⁿ The old ramparts have been changed into public walks. The English besieged it without success in 1443, and Charles, duke of Burgundy, was not more fortunate in 1472. The latter siege is mentioned in history on account of the noble resistance of the inhabitants; they were not dismayed by an army of eighty thousand men, and even the women sought the honour of defending the breach; under the conduct of Joan Fouquet or Lainé, surnamed the *Hatchet*, they fought with as much intrepidity as the men. A Burgundian soldier had planted a standard on the wall, but Joan vanquished him, and carried away the trophy;^o this heroic action is represented in a picture which decorates the town-house. The siege was raised in the month of July; to commemorate the event, a procession went forth every year in the same month, and the women took precedence of the men; the ceremony was abolished at the revolution.^p Beauvais is a place of considerable trade; it has cloth, carpet and cotton manufactories.^q It has given birth to Philip de Villers, to Del' Ile-Adam, great master of the order of Malta,^r to Restaut the grammarian, to the Abbé Dubos, and to Herman and Vaillant,^s two distinguished antiquarians.

The Oise enters the department of the Seine and Oise, a short way above the village of Noisy. Beaumont, the first town through which it flows, contains two thousand inhabitants; it rises on a chalky height, and commands a view of the plain which extends on the right bank of the riv-

er estate situated a league and a half from Clermont. By his exertions, the petty village of Liancourt which hardly reckoned 800 inhabitants, now contains nearly 1300; while its neighbourhood is full of small manufactories that offer the means of subsistence to the labouring population."

^k "—Great quantities of peat are dug in the neighbourhood of that town [Beauvais:] nearly three hundred workmen are employed in the turbarry near the *bourg* of Bresle."

^l Beauvoisis—Beauvoisis.

^m Beauvais, *Bellovacum*, *Casaro-magus*. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Mod.)—*Casaromagus*, the capital of the *Bellovaci*, according to Ptolemy: it afterwards took the name of the people, and was called *Bellovaci*. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc. D'Anv.)—P.

ⁿ "The cathedral, which is still unfinished, and without a nave, is celebrated for the beauty of its choir."

^o "Under the conduct of Jeanne Fouquet or Lainé, surnamed *Hachette*, they fought with even more intrepidity than the men. She herself tore down a standard, which one of the enemy had planted, and threw him from the wall."—She is generally known in history, by the name of Jeanne Hachette. She is said to have been the first who met the assailants in the breach, holding an axe (*hachette*) in her hand. (Beauvais.)—P.

^p "To commemorate the raising of the siege, a procession was made every year in the month of July, in which the women took precedence of the men; it was, however, abolished during the revolution."

^q "It possesses cloth manufactories, cotton mills (*filatures de coton*.) and a royal manufactory of raised tapestry (*tapisseries de haute lice*)."—P.

^r "—to Philip de Villers, de l'Ile-Adam, grand master of the order of Malta"—Philip de Villiers de l'Ile-Adam, 43d grand master of the order of St. John of Jerusalem [Malta.] (Beauvais.)—P. de Villiers, l'Ile Adam, 4th son of the lord of Isle-Adam. (Moreri.)—P.

^s Godefroi Hermant, doctor of the Sorbonne, born at Beauvais, 1617—wrote lives of the fathers, translations of their works, an index of ecclesiastical law, and several polemic treatises.—J. F. Vaillant, a distinguished medallist, born at Beauvais, 1632.—(Dict. Hist. Caen. Beauvais.)—P.

er.^a The abbey of Royaumont, about a league distant from the small and agreeable town of Luzarches,^b was founded by St. Louis, but has recently been converted into a cotton manufactory;^c a neat village was lately built in the vicinity.^d

Pontoise rises like an amphitheatre at the confluence of the Oise and the Viorne.^e The streets are narrow and steep, but many of the houses are handsome; the walls have been repaired, but part of those still remain, which were scaled by the army of Charles the Seventh,^f when the town was taken from the English in 1442. The states-general assembled at Pontoise in 1561; the parliament of Paris met in the same place^g in 1652, 1720 and 1753. The Celts gave the name of *Isar*^h to the river that waters it,ⁱ whence the town was called *Brivisara*,^k which signifies literally, the bridge over the *Isar*. The Oise was called *Inisa* in the seventh century, and the town *Pons Inisæ*: lastly, *Æsia* having been substituted for *Inisa*, Pontoise took the name of *Pons Æsia*, which was afterwards changed into *Pontasia*.^l It was traversed by a Roman road, which extended from Paris to Rouen; some remains of it are still observed in the neighbourhood. Philip of Burgundy, the son of John the Second of France,^m and General Leclerc were born in the town.

The small town of Mantes,ⁿ surnamed *La Jolie*,^o because it is well built and finely situated on the left bank of the Seine, was, according to some authors, founded at the time when the druids still retained their authority. The Latin name of *Petro-Mantalum*,^p and the mistletoe on its ancient arms, seem to prove that the Celts venerated on the site which it occupies, the sacred stones and other emblems of the druidical worship. The church of Notre-Dame was built by Blanche of Castile and Margaret of Provence,^q the one the mother, and the other the wife of St. Louis. Articles of consumption are not liable to any tax or toll on entering the gates; the economical way in which the town's

^a "Beaumont, the first town at the foot of which it flows, contains 2000 inhabitants; its promenade, situated on the summit of a chalky plateau, commands a view of the plain on the right bank of the river."—Beaumont stands on the declivity of a hill, sloping down to the left bank of the Oise.—P. ^b Luzarche.

^c "Cotton mill (*filature de coton*)."

^d "The ruins of its church have supplied materials for a handsome village."

^e —the latter [Vionne. Vosgien] a small stream which serves to move 22 mills. (M. B.)

^f "The old walls, which partly surround it, are the same that were scaled by the army of Charles VII.—"

^g "—was transferred to the same place."—The royal court (*cour du roi*) or parliament was at first ambulatory, being held wherever it suited the king to convene it. It, however, became sedentary at Paris, at least as early as 1291, in the reign of Philip the Fair, and probably at an earlier period, when it took the name of the parliament of Paris. It was afterwards occasionally transferred to other places; as in 1418 to Poitiers, when Paris was occupied by the English; in 1539 to Tours, during the troubles of the league; and in 1788 to Troyes, because it refused to register certain royal edicts.—P.

^h *Isara*. (D'Anv.)—P.

ⁱ The Oise.

^k *Briva Isara*. (D'Anv.)—P.

^l *Æsia*—*Pons Æsia*—*Pontesia*. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^m Philip II. duke of Burgundy, fourth son of John II. king of France (the one who was prisoner in England.) John I. of France, was a posthumous son of Louis X., born five months after the death of his father, and who lived only five days. Hence he is generally omitted in the list of French kings, and John II. simply known as John, king of France.—P.

ⁿ Mantes sur Seine, capital of an arrondissement. (Alman. Royal.)—P.

^o The Pretty.—"Mante, dite la *Jolie*." (Moréri.)—P.

^p *Petromantalum*. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^q "—is a monument of their munificence."—The collegiate church of Mantes was founded by Jane of France (*Jeanne, fille de France*). (Moréri.)—P.

^r "The affairs of the town have been administered with such economy, that it has hitherto been able to provide for its municipal expen-

sions, without subjecting to any local taxation (*droits d'octroi*) the articles consumed by the inhabitants." ^s Duties levied by a municipality, on the entrance or interior sale of commodities Articles in entrepot or *in transitu* are not subjected to these duties. (Code Administratif, l. IV. p. 310 *et seq.*)—P. ^t "—which consists of a chapel and a dwelling cut in the chalk. Two pilgrimages, made to it every year, attract thither a great crowd of people." ^u Rosny, a *bourg* on the Seine, one league west of Mantes, with a castle, the birthplace of Sully. (Vosgien. Enc. Meth.)—P. ^v The mulberry was naturalized by Sully, in the park of the castle. (M. B.)—Before the reign of Henry IV. the mulberry had been propagated for silk worms only in the southern provinces of France; he planted it, however, in the neighbourhood of Paris. (Ed. Encyc.)—P. ^w "It is at present the property of the dutchess of Berry, who has erected a chapel and a hospital (*hospice*) within the limits of the park, in memory of her unfortunate husband." ^x Meulan, built in the form of an amphitheatre on the right bank of the Seine, seems from its ancient name of *Mellentum*, to have been of Celtic origin." ^y "It was formerly the capital of a small country called Pincerais, from its Latin name of *Pagus Pinciensis*."—Its Latin name is *Pisciacum*, or rather *Pinciacum*, since the neighbouring country is called *Pagus Pinciensis* (Pincerais.) (Enc. Meth. 1784.)—P. ^z St. Louis. ^{aa} "The city of Paris derives from the sale of the cattle, an annual revenue of 1,400,000 francs" (nearly £59,000.)—The government in 1786, derived from farming the taxes on the markets of Sceaux and Poissy, a gross revenue of 1,100,000 francs (nett revenue 800,000 francs.) (Enc. Meth. Finance.)—P. ^{bb} "Dépôt de mendicité"—House for the confinement of vagabonds and beggars.—P. ^{cc} "The famous conference of Poissy (*colloque de Poissy*) between the catholic doctors and reformed [Calvinistic] ministers, was held in the convent, during the reign of Charles IX. [1561;] it lasted two months and a half, but had no other result than civil war."—The conference was summoned to meet Aug. 10, but did not commence till Sept. 4, and was finally broken off by the quarrels of the parties, Nov. 25. (Moréri.)—It terminated in confirming each party in his peculiar tenets, and in increasing the persecuting spirit of the Catholics, and the zeal of the Calvinists. (Ed. Encyc.)—P. ^{dd} The forest of St. Germain.

funds are managed, has enabled the magistrates to abolish these oppressive duties.^r Limay, which may be considered as a suburb of Mantes, is only separated from it by the Seine; it is situated near the hermitage of St. Sauveur, where a chapel and a house cut in a chalky rock, still attract a great many pilgrims.^s The castle of Rosny,^t the birthplace of Sully, rises on the banks of the Seine at the distance of two leagues below Mantes;^u at present the property of the dutchess of Berri, the same pious lady has built a church and an hospital in the neighbourhood; they are consecrated to the memory of her unfortunate husband.^v Meulan on the right bank of the Seine, was probably founded by the Celts, at all events the ancient name of *Mellentum* indicates a Celtic origin;^w it contains a population of two thousand souls; some of the old fortifications may still be seen, which enabled the inhabitants to resist the forces commanded by the duke of Mayenne. Poissy,^x the birthplace of St. Louis, is peopled by two thousand six hundred inhabitants; it was formerly the capital of Pincerais, the ancient *Pagus Pinciensis*.^y It formed part of the crown lands, and Charles the Bald assembled a parliament in the town. It was there Blanche of Castile told her son^z to value his baptismal purity more than life, and to be assured that whatever was onerous to the people could never be glorious to the prince. A cattle market is held every week at Poissy, and the town of Paris imposes an annual tax of £.60 on the sale of the cattle.^{aa} The ancient convent of the Ursulines has been changed into a workhouse,^{bb} large enough to contain seven hundred and fifty paupers. The famous colloquy at Poissy, between the Catholic doctors and reformed ministers, who assembled in the convent during the reign of Charles the Ninth, lasted two months, but it was attended with no other result than that of exasperating the two parties against each other.^{cc}

The forest,^{dd} which begins at a short distance from Poissy,

ses, without subjecting to any local taxation (*droits d'octroi*) the articles consumed by the inhabitants."

^s Duties levied by a municipality, on the entrance or interior sale of commodities Articles in entrepot or *in transitu* are not subjected to these duties. (Code Administratif, l. IV. p. 310 *et seq.*)—P.

^t "—which consists of a chapel and a dwelling cut in the chalk. Two pilgrimages, made to it every year, attract thither a great crowd of people."

^u Rosny, a *bourg* on the Seine, one league west of Mantes, with a castle, the birthplace of Sully. (Vosgien. Enc. Meth.)—P.

^v The mulberry was naturalized by Sully, in the park of the castle. (M. B.)—Before the reign of Henry IV. the mulberry had been propagated for silk worms only in the southern provinces of France; he planted it, however, in the neighbourhood of Paris. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^w "It is at present the property of the dutchess of Berry, who has erected a chapel and a hospital (*hospice*) within the limits of the park, in memory of her unfortunate husband."

^x Meulan, built in the form of an amphitheatre on the right bank of the Seine, seems from its ancient name of *Mellentum*, to have been of Celtic origin."

^y "It was formerly the capital of a small country called Pincerais, from its Latin name of *Pagus Pinciensis*."—Its Latin name is *Pisciacum*, or rather *Pinciacum*, since the neighbouring country is called *Pagus Pinciensis* (Pincerais.) (Enc. Meth. 1784.)—P. ^z St. Louis.

^{aa} "The city of Paris derives from the sale of the cattle, an annual revenue of 1,400,000 francs" (nearly £59,000.)—The government in 1786, derived from farming the taxes on the markets of Sceaux and Poissy, a gross revenue of 1,100,000 francs (nett revenue 800,000 francs.) (Enc. Meth. Finance.)—P.

^{bb} "Dépôt de mendicité"—House for the confinement of vagabonds and beggars.—P.

^{cc} "The famous conference of Poissy (*colloque de Poissy*) between the catholic doctors and reformed [Calvinistic] ministers, was held in the convent, during the reign of Charles IX. [1561;] it lasted two months and a half, but had no other result than civil war."—The conference was summoned to meet Aug. 10, but did not commence till Sept. 4, and was finally broken off by the quarrels of the parties, Nov. 25. (Moréri.)—It terminated in confirming each party in his peculiar tenets, and in increasing the persecuting spirit of the Catholics, and the zeal of the Calvinists. (Ed. Encyc.)—P. ^{dd} The forest of St. Germain.

and terminates at St. Germain,^a forms a part of that called the forest of Laye until the eleventh century, the time in which the town of St. Germain was founded. It is encompassed with walls, and covers a surface of more than sixteen thousand acres.^b Shaded by lofty and luxuriant trees, intersected with broad avenues, there are few walks in France, that can be compared with it. The castle rises on a terrace, which is said to command a finer view than any in the neighbourhood of Paris; the length of the terrace is equal to two thousand four hundred yards, and the height to thirty.^c The castle of St. Germain^d was begun during the reign of Francis the First, and was enlarged by Henry the Fourth and Louis the Fourteenth; it serves at present as barracks for a company of body guards. In the same edifice were born Margaret of France, the daughter of Francis the First, Henry the Second, Charles the Ninth and Louis the Fourteenth. The town is well built, and is adorned with a large market-place and a fine church;^e while the workmen were digging the foundation of the latter in 1826, they discovered the remains of James Stuart.^f

The road from St. Germain to Paris extends along the Seine, and communicates with Marly,^g and on the heights above it are the remains of the machine that Lewis the Fourteenth erected to supply the aqueduct that leads to Versailles.^h Malmaison, at a greater distance from St. Germain, was the residence of Napoleon when at the height of his power, and also during the disastrous days that succeeded his defeat.ⁱ The small burgh of Ruel or Rueil contains three thousand inhabitants; it stands at the foot of a hill planted with vineyards. The neighbouring castle was inhabited by Cardinal Richelieu; it was the scene of his pleasures, and it was there he gratified his vengeance; making a confidant of none but the executioner, he there privately received those whom he had determined in secret to put to death, with the utmost affability and kindness. The tomb of the empress Josephine is situated within the church of Ruel. Argenteuil stands on the right bank of the Seine; it contains four thousand six hundred inhabitants, and the neighbouring country is very fruitful in wine.^k The remains of walls indicate the site of a monastery, which was founded in the seventh century; it is memorable as the retreat of Heloise, who became the abbess^l of it. A garment with-

^a St. Germain en Laye.

^b "8,500 arpents."

^c "The beauty of its vegetation, and the broad avenues with which it is intersected, render it a magnificent promenade for the town, which also enjoys from a terrace 1200 toises in length by 15 in breadth, on which the castle is built, one of the finest prospects in the neighbourhood of Paris."

^d The castle or palace (*château*) of St. Germain is still one of the royal residences (*maisons royales*).—P.

^e "—a handsome market (*beau marché*), and a newly built church, remarkable for its architecture and ornaments."

^f James II. of England, died at St. Germain 1701.—P.

^g Marly le Roi.

^h "The road from St. Germain to Paris extends along the Seine, and passes by Marly, where we may still observe the remains of the machine erected by Louis XIV. in order to supply the aqueduct which produces so magnificent an effect on the hill of Louveciennes, whence its waters are conveyed by canals to Versailles. The machine is now disused, and its place supplied by a powerful steam engine."—The machine is situated on the river, by the current of which its wheels (14 in number) were moved; these gave motion to 225 pumps, by means of which the water was raised to the top of a tower on a neighbouring hill, whence it entered an aqueduct 330 toises in length. From this it was conveyed by iron pipes to the reservoir of Marly, and thence to the gardens of Marly and Versailles. (Piganiol de la Force, Description de Paris, t. VIII. p. 106.)—P.

ⁱ Napoleon, after his second abdication, was required by the provisional government to retire to Malmaison, where he continued only a few days, previous to his departure for Rochefort.—P.

out any seams, according to tradition, worn by our Saviour, and presented by the empress Irene to Charlemagne, has been removed from the convent to the church, where it is now preserved in a shrine above the altar.

St. Cloud on the left bank of the Seine, was called Nogent till after the death of Clodoald, the son of Clodomir, king of Orleans; aware that his uncle Clotaire, the murderer of his brothers, had determined to put him to death, he fled for refuge, and found safety in a cloister.^m James Clement assassinated Henry the Third in the old castle of St. Cloud, then the property of Jerome de Gondy. The heart of the unfortunate prince was deposited in the village church, and the place where it rests, was marked with the following inscription: *Passenger, pity the fate of kings.* Louis the Fourteenth purchased the domain, and gave it to his brother, the duke of Orleans, who built the present castle; since his time, it has been a royal residence, it was enlarged by Marie Antoinette.ⁿ Bonaparte, after his return from Egypt, assembled there the council of Five Hundred on the ninth of November 1799; the assembly was dissolved by an armed force on the same day, the eighteenth of Brumaire, as it is called in the annals of the revolution. The castle was Bonaparte's favourite residence; he embellished and furnished it with royal luxury; to improve the view from the principal apartment, an obelisk was raised, and a monument similar to the one erected at Athens by Lysicrates the sculptor^o, which antiquaries have surnamed the Lantern of Demosthenes. Rabelais rendered Meudon a place of celebrity before cardinal Lorraine built the castle that Lewis the Fourteenth purchased for the dauphin. The building rises on a hill, and the famous glass works are situated below it. The long burgh of Sevres extends to the village of Chaville; it contains more than four thousand inhabitants; the royal porcelain works are certainly not inferior to the finest in Europe.^p

The entrance to Versailles by the road from Paris might give one a favourable idea of a court-town,^q if the broad avenue^r were lined with regular buildings; the approach might thus be made to correspond with the magnificence of the castle.^s Neat houses are situated at the extremity of the avenue, and at no great distance from them, a large prison, of which the grated windows and iron doors may be

^k "Its vineyards produce annually on an average, more than 100,000 hectolitres of wine."

^l "—the superior"—not abbess, but prioress. The establishment was a priory, dependent on the abbey of St. Denis. Heloise resided there before she retired to the Paraclete.—P.

^m "—who retired there to an hermitage, in order to escape the death with which he was threatened by his uncle Clotaire, the murderer of his brothers."—After the violent death of his father, and his two brothers, he retired to a monastery which he had built at Nogent. (Moreri.)—P.

ⁿ "It became a royal residence, and was much enlarged, after its purchase by Maria Antoinette."—It was purchased of the duke of Orleans for the queen, in 1784.—P.

^o "—an obelisk was raised in the park, crowned by a model in terra cotta of the monument erected at Athens by the sculptor Lysicrates—"

^p "The road that follows the river and leads to Sevres, passes through the village of Meudon, which owed its reputation to Rabelais,* before Cardinal Lorraine had built the castle (*château*) that Louis XIV. purchased for the dauphin. At the foot of the hill on which the castle is situated, are the celebrated glass-works (*verrière*) formerly established at Sevres. The *bourg* of Sevres,† joined to a part of the village of Chaville, is of considerable length, and contains more than 4000 inhabitants. It is celebrated for its royal manufactory of porcelain, which surpasses in its products the finest in Europe."

* Rabelais was pastor (*curé*) of Meudon.—P.

† Sevres, Sevre or Seve. (Voglien.)

^q "Ville royale."

^r "—the broad avenue, planted with four rows of trees, that leads to the parade (*Place d'Armes*)."

^s Palace (*château*).

seen from the triple entrance. Barracks front the private treasury of the king, where the assemblies of the states-general were held. The civil and commercial tribunals are nearly opposite the mansion house, and the avenue terminates on the right and on the left at the royal stables. A broad walk surrounded with lofty trees extends from the stables to the castle, where two Corinthian porches protrude on each side of a brick building;^a such unsuitableness can only be excused by the filial veneration which induced Louis the Fourteenth to preserve the old hunting seat of his father. The front on the side of the garden is wholly the work of the great king; still even there the palace is not without faults; the centre or body of the building is out of proportion,^b and the wings are too long. The grounds are laid out with admirable taste, a broad canal reaches to the verge of the horizon, groves are scattered in verdant lawns, plants more than four hundred years old, are preserved in the orangery, water issues from fountains in every variety of form, and jets rise above the highest trees. The largest Trianon is covered with marble and surrounded by woods that seem to realize the brilliant fictions of Tasso in the description of the palace of Armida; the other is nothing more than a simple pavilion.^c These two edifices indicate the character of the two kings by whom they were built; Louis the Fourteenth, when tired of his magnificent residence at Versailles, repaired to the first, which still retains an air of pomp and grandeur, while Louis the Fifteenth, preferring the solitude of the second to the cares of a crown and the tiresome etiquette of a court, forgot in it the disasters which marked his reign.

The magnificence of the royal buildings at Versailles serves to justify the common opinion that Louis the Fourteenth, surprised at the vast sums expended on them, determined to conceal the amount from posterity, and committed the papers of Mansard^d to the flames. But Mirabeau, Volney and other writers have thought themselves sufficiently informed on the subject to publish the results.^e According to an abstract of the expenses, that has been attributed to Mansard, and according to other documents that are pre-

served in the archives of the crown, we may arrive at the following conclusion: namely, that all the sums expended from 1664 to 1702 in building and furnishing the royal edifices, in laying out the grounds, in making the gardens, and even in erecting the two principal churches in the town, amounted to 95,800,000 livres which, according to the mean value of silver during the last thirty-eight years, is equivalent at present to 172,400,000 francs or nearly £.7,184,000.^f

After a revolution which has lasted almost forty years, and which has changed the customs, manners and institutions of France, Versailles is again a court town; many nobles reside in it, but the people are ignorant, idle and poor. But if there are few works or manufactories in the town, it may be partly attributed to its situation at a distance from every natural current of water.^h The population amounts only to one-third of what it was in 1790; although it has increased rapidly since the restoration,ⁱ most of the broad and regular streets are still gloomy and deserted. Versailles is not without schools and charitable institutions; there are several preparatory schools to a military education, a large college, in which lectures are delivered on geometry, mechanics, music and drawing, and a public library containing 50,000 volumes. The royal hospital is the most useful of the charitable institutions.^k The town was the birthplace of Louis the Sixteenth, of the Abbé De l'Épée, and of Ducis, general Hoche and marshal Berthier. The octroi or the tax levied on provisions and other articles imported into the town, is not much less than £.20,000; the greatness of the sum may be partly attributed to the facility of communication; more than six hundred stage coaches proceed from the capital to the department of Seine and Oise, and the most of them pass through Versailles, which is visited by every stranger in Paris.^l

The country round Versailles is embellished with pleasant walks, romantic sites and industrious villages. The inhabitants of Villepreux manufacture shawls; Gregnon has been often visited by mineralogists on account of a calcareous stratum abounding in fossil shells, the lands in the

* "Neat houses first present themselves; then a large prison, whose triple entrance displays its wickets (*guichets*) and bolted doors; beyond it, extensive barracks front the former *Hôtel des Menus-Plaisirs*, in which were held the assemblies of the states-general;^a farther on, the civil and commercial tribunals, and the hunting-house (*la venerie*),[†] rise opposite the mayoralty (*bâtiments de la mairie*), and the avenue is finally terminated on the right and left, by the great and little stables. The fine fronts of these two buildings, the great alley which separates them, the two others which border their sides, and the woods that surround the city, produce a magnificent effect when seen from the entrance of the palace. But the front of the palace itself, where two Corinthian porticoes protrude on either side of a brick building, exhibits a striking want of symmetry—"

* The states-general held their first sitting in the *Salle des Menus*, May 5. 1789. (Le Maire, *Hist. de la Revol. Franç.* t. I. p. 55.)—P.

† The Kennel (*Chenil*). (La Forcé, t. VIII. p. 75.)—P.

b "—projects disproportionately."

c "But these defects are compensated by the splendour of the gardens; by the profusion of their statues, bronzes and vases; by the broad canal that extends to the verge of the horizon; by the beauty of the groves and shrubbery; by the large basins, in the midst of which fountains spout their waters in every variety of form and in jets that rise above the highest trees; by the magnificent orangery, in which plants are preserved of the age of four centuries; and lastly, by the great and little Trianon, the former of which, covered with marble and surrounded with elegant plantations, realizes the brilliant fictions of Tasso in his description of the palace of Armida, while the latter presents only the modest appearance of a simple pavilion."

d J. H. Mansard, the architect who constructed the palace of Versailles.—P.

e These results are as erroneous as they are different; Mirabeau, in his nineteenth letter to his constituents, estimates the expenses at twelve hundred millions of francs; * Volney, in his *Leçons sur l'His-*

toire, makes them amount to fourteen hundred millions of *livres tournois*, which he considers equal to 4,600,000,000 francs

* "—at 1200 millions;—"

† M. Vaysse de Villars, *Tableau descriptif, historique et pittoresque de la ville, du château et du parc de Versailles, compris les deux Trianons*. 1827.—Le Comte d'Hauterive, *Faits, calculs et observations sur la dépense d'une des grandes administrations de l'Etat à toutes les époques, depuis le règne de Louis XIV. et inclusivement jusqu'en 1825*. 1828. § "Many of the old noblesse."

h "Consequently it contains few manufacturing establishments, a circumstance that may, however, be partly attributed to its distance from natural streams."

i "—although its annual increase since the restoration, has been very perceptible—"

k "Versailles possesses several establishments for the purposes of education and public charity; it contains a great number of university schools (*écoles universitaires*),^a several preparatory institutions for the military schools, a magnificent college,[†] public courses of instruction in geometry and mechanics, music and drawing, a valuable library of 50,000 volumes, and a royal hospital (*hospice royal*) of great importance."

^a See note b p. 1030.

† The Royal College (*Lyceum*) of Versailles.

l "The town carries on a trade in articles of consumption of sufficient importance to enable it to realize a local revenue* of nearly 600,000 francs, which circumstance may be chiefly attributed to the great resort of strangers, owing to its frequent communications with the capital; more than 600 public conveyances (*voitures*) leave Paris for the department of the Seine and Oise, and the greater part of them for Versailles."

* Arising from its entrance duties, &c. (*droits d'octroi*.)

^m M. J. J. N. Huot, *Aperçu topographique, physique, géologique, historique et statistique du département* (*Annuaire de Seine-et-Oise*, 1819.)

neighbourhood were purchased by his majesty, who has lately presented them to an agricultural institution.^a The military school at St. Cyr meets in the royal abbey, a large edifice founded by Madame de Maintenon.^b Jouy^c is situated in a fruitful valley, traversed by an aqueduct; the industry of the inhabitants is confined to their print-fields; during the imperial government more than sixteen hundred workmen were employed, the number at present does not exceed three hundred.^d

The neat town of Montfort-l'Amaury,^e near the forest of St. Leger, is built on the declivity and at the foot of a hill, crowned by the ruins of an old castle; one of the towers still remains, and is adorned with handsome Gothic sculptures. The town was the birthplace of Simon, count of Montfort, who in the beginning of the thirteenth century, rendered himself infamous by his cruelties in the crusade against the Albigenes.

The small town of Rambouillet is situated on the other side of the forest; during the imperial government it became the capital of a subprefecture, perhaps on account of a castle, which has nothing royal but the name.^f It is flanked with towers, one of which is furnished with battlements and appears to be less ancient than the others; on the whole, the style of the building resembles that which prevailed in the sixteenth century. Francis the First died in the castle of Rambouillet in the year 1547. The park is one of the finest in France, but there is nothing in the town, at all worthy of notice; the beauty of the former depends on varied views, verdant groves and limpid streams.^g Dourdan, which also gives its name to a neighbouring forest,^h was formerly a stronghold; the castle in the middle of it was built by Gontrand, king of Burgundy, in the sixth century. It contains two thousand five hundred inhabitants, and was the birthplace of La Bruyere.

Etampesⁱ covers a considerable space in a fruitful valley;

^a "Grignon, which has been long celebrated among geologists for a bed of limestone, rich in fossil shells, has acquired additional interest, since an estate, purchased there by the king, has been gratuitously appropriated to the establishment of an agricultural school."—The stratum at Grignon, so celebrated for its fossil sea shells, of which not less than six hundred species have been enumerated by DeFrance, consists of a very tender and friable coarse-grained limestone (*calcaire grossier*), which may in fact be considered a bed of calcareous sand, below another stratum of hard limestone, also abounding in shells, but of a different kind. (Cuvier et Brongniart, *Géologie des Environs de Paris*.)—P.

^b "St. Cyr contains a special military school, established in the extensive buildings of the royal abbey founded by Madame Maintenon."—This school is intended for those only who have received a preparatory military education.—P.

* St. Cir. (Vosgien.)

^c Jouy en Josas. (Vosgien.)

^d "It owes its prosperity to a manufacture of printed goods, in which during the imperial government, not less than 1600 workmen were employed, but which at present does not occupy more than 300."

^e Montfort-l'Amaury. (Enc. Meth.)—Montfort-l'Amaury. (Moréri.)

^f "After having traversed the forest of St. Leger, which is continuous with that of Rambouillet, we arrive at the town that bears the same name with the latter [Rambouillet.] During the imperial government, it owed to its castle* the rank of chief town of a subprefecture.† The castle has nothing royal in its structure."

* One of the royal residences (*maisons royales*.)—P.

† It was the chief town of an arrondissement (subprefecture,) in 1822. (Alman. Royal.)—P.

^g "The park, which is laid out in the English fashion, is remarkable for the purity of its water and the beauty of its prospects. It contains a dairy (*laiterie*.) the interior of which, cased with marble and watered by fountains, is adorned with a rock, representing a grotto in which a nymph is bathing. The celebrated royal farm (*ferme royale*),* established during the reign of Louis XVI.† for the naturalization of merinos, is situated in the immediate vicinity of the park."

* One of the royal sheep-folds (*bergeries royales*.)

† A. D. 1786.

^h In the same manner with Rambouillet. See note ^f of this page. Estampes. (Enc. Meth. Moréri.)

it is watered by a small river that serves to turn several mills.^k It follows from different old deeds that the town must have been founded before the sixth century, indeed the appearance of the houses attests their antiquity.^l Saclas, a village about two leagues from Etampes, is much more ancient; it rises on the site of *Salioclitia*, a city mentioned in the Itinerary of Antonine. The river Essonne^m waters the small town of the same name; the inhabitants manufacture cotton and woollen stuffs;ⁿ they possessed formerly a powder manufactory, but as many of the houses were demolished by an explosion, that branch of industry has been removed to Bouchet,^o a place near the confluence of the Juine and the Essonne.^p Corbeil, the capital of a district,^q is not more than a mile from Essonne;^r it possesses several cotton and linen manufactories, and carries on a trade with Paris in grain and flour.^s

The rich pastures in the department of the Seine and Oise afford food to numerous flocks, and the same country abounds in corn and wine.^t The mineral substances, although not highly valuable, are useful; the gypsum furnishes the immense quantity of plaster that is consumed in the capital, and the quarries afford excellent stone.^u Several mineral springs might be mentioned, but the only one of any note, is that of Enghien in the valley of Montmorency.

The department of the Seine and Oise encompasses the department of the Seine, in which Paris occupies nearly the centre. When the Romans, under the command of Cæsar, arrived about fifty-five years before the vulgar era, at the mean and solitary city in the territory of the *Parisii*, which the barbarians called *Luthouezzy*, and their conquerors *Lutetia*,^x the houses or rather cottages were built of clay, and covered with straw, the country was poor, and the position was not considered favourable for a town.^y But the *Parisii* adopted readily the usages of civilized life; they were good mariners, and brave in war. *Lutetia* was gradually enlarg-

^k "It is watered by a small river* that never freezes, and which serves to turn a great number of mills."

* The Loet or Etampes (Vosgien)—the Juine (Enc. Meth.)—the Ivette (Moréri.)—The Juine rises at Neuville, passes by Malesherbes and Pithiviers, and uniting with the Etampes, takes the name of the Essonne, and enters the Seine at Corbeil. The Ivette is a branch of the Orge, which enters the Seine opposite Ville neuve St. George. (Vosgien.)—P.

^l "It was the birthplace of Guettard the naturalist. It is a place of considerable antiquity, since it is mentioned in documents of as early a period as the sixth century; some old buildings serve to confirm their testimony."

^m Essonnes, Essonc.

ⁿ "Cotton stuffs (*cotonnades*) and ginger-bread (*pain d'épice*)"—Essonne manufactures paper and gunpowder. (Vosgien.)—P.

^o "The powder-mill in its neighbourhood, which several accidents had rendered formidable to the place, has been removed to Bouchet—"

^p Properly, near the confluence of the Juine and the Etampes, which unite to form the Essonne.—P.

^q "Arrondissement."

^r "A quarter of a league from Essonne."

^s "It possesses several flour mills (*moulins*.) a cotton mill (*filature de coton*.) and a manufacture of hempen tubes (*tuyaux*) without seam; it is one of the principal marts (*magasins*) for the supply of Paris with grain and flour."

^t "The department of the Seine and Oise is one of the richest in corn, wine and sheep."

^u "They consist of chalk, building-stone* and gypsum, the last of which furnishes the immense quantity of plaster that is consumed in Paris."

* Chiefly calcareous.—P.

^x *Lutetia*. Cæsar. De Bell. Gall. VII. § 54.—*Lutetia Parisiorum*. Cæsar. De. B. G. VI. § 3

^y "When, fifty-five years before the vulgar era, the Romans, under the conduct of Cæsar, arrived at this city, then a mean place, and the only town belonging to the small tribe of the *Parisii*, by whom it was called *Luthouezzy*, a name which the Romans changed into *Lutetia*, they saw in its few dwellings, built of earth and cut straw, and situated on the island which now comprehends that part of Paris called the *Cité*, only an advantageous position in a miserable country."

ed and embellished; it became the seat of a prefecture, and the temporary residence of several emperors, particularly of Julian, who styled it his *dear Lutetia*.^a The only buildings connected with that remote period, are the baths, which were attached to the imperial palace.^b The feeble Romans might have been aware of their danger at the approach of the Franks, but it was not foreseen that the city was to become the metropolis of those barbarians, and fourteen centuries afterwards, the capital of an empire as vast as it was of short duration, and in which Rome itself was merely a provincial town.

Paris was enlarged after Clovis chose it for his residence; pillaged several times by the Normans, it was encompassed with fortifications by the weak successors of Charlemagne; but under the third dynasty, the limits both on the north and south, having been considerably extended, it was divided into four parts or quarters,^c and surrounded by a wall which on a surface of six hundred and sixteen English acres,^d enclosed several villages beyond the boundaries that were first traced under the Carolingians. Different streets may still serve to recall the names of these villages or burghs; the most remarkable were *Bourg-l'Abbé*, *Beau-Bourg* and *Bourg-Tiboud*, the name of the last has been applied to the street of Bourtibourg.^e Two forts which have been often rebuilt since the Roman conquest, defended the approaches to the city; the one was the Great Chatelet on the right bank of the Seine, at the entrance to the Pont au Change; the other or Little Chatelet guarded it on the left.^f Four large towers bounded the enclosure in the direction of the river; ^g that called the Tournelle rose on the left bank of the river, near a wooden bridge, which although since built of stone retains its ancient name;^h another, erected on the opposite bank at the extremity of Old Temple Street,ⁱ served as a gate to the city; it was first called *Porte Barbelle*, and afterwards *Barbette*. The tower and the gate of Nesle were built at one extremity of the present bridge of Arts, near the Mazarine library; a large tower on the other side defended the right bank of the Seine, it rose opposite the castle of the Louvre, then an old edifice beyond the walls, it was repaired or rebuilt by Philip Augustus.^j

^a *Τὴν γὰρ Λευκετιαν*—*dear Leucetia*.—P.

^b "The only building belonging to that period, is that of the *Thermae*, which formed part of Julian's palace."—At the time of his residence in *Lutetia*, Julian was governor of Gaul under the emperor Constantius.—P.

^c *Quartiers*.

^d "739 arpents."

^e "These villages or *bourgs*, which the names of certain streets still serve to recall, were *Bourg-l'Abbé*, *Beau-Bourg* and *Bourg-Tiboud*, the last of which gave its name to the street of Bourtibourg."

^f "—the other, the Little Chatelet, on the left bank, at the head of the Little Bridge (*Petit Pont*.)"

^g "Four large towers, situated on the banks of the river, marked, above and below, the limits of the city."

^h "—at the head of a wooden bridge, which although since built of stone, still retains its original name"—still called the *Wooden Bridge* (*Pont de Bois*).—P.

ⁱ "La Vicille rue du Temple."

^j "At one extremity of the present bridge of the Arts (*Pont des Arts*), the tower and the gate of Nesle, then called the gate of Philip Hamelin, rose in the place now occupied by the pavilion of the Mazarin library, while at the opposite extremity, fronting the old castle (*château*) of the Louvre, which had been recently rebuilt by Philip Augustus, and was then situated without the walls, a large tower defended the right bank of the Seine."

^k "1284 arpents."

^l "During the reign of Francis I. the limits of the capital were extended only on the north."

^m "Place du Palais-Royal."

ⁿ "Rue des Fossés-Montmartre—Rue Neuve-Saint-Eustache."

^o "About 1400 arpents."

Charles the Sixth enlarged the boundary on the north, and divided Paris into sixteen quarters, which covered a surface of 1,070 English acres.^k It was also extended in the same direction by Francis the First;^l the walls were traced from the square of the Palais Royal^m along the streets of Fossés Montmartre and Neuve-St. Eustacheⁿ to the gate of St. Denis, and from that gate to the Bastille; the surface thus enclosed was little less than 1,167 English acres.^o The number was increased to fourteen hundred in consequence of new additions made by Henry the Fourth.^p Others were made on the north by Louis the Thirteenth; they may be still traced from the bridge of Louis the Sixteenth,^q along the Royal Street^r and the Boulevards, to the bridge of Austerlitz; but the former limit on the south was not changed. On the right bank of the Seine and within the boundaries, were the Louvre, the palace and garden of the Tuileries,^s the abbey of St. Martin, the Temple, the Royal Square,^t and the house of Richelieu, then called the Palais Cardinal;^u the last edifice having been left to Louis the Thirteenth by his minister, became the residence of Anne of Austria, when the name was changed into that of Palais Royal, which it retained after Louis the Fourteenth had given it to his brother, the duke of Orleans. The court of justice and the cathedral, of which the fronts were concealed by old buildings, the Sorbonne, founded by Robert de Sorbon, the chaplain of St. Louis, and rebuilt by Richelieu, the college of Cluny, that was completed in the thirteenth century, and the church of St. Genevieve, or the burying place of Clovis and the shepherdess of Nanterre, were situated in the southern part of Paris.^v Several convents and charitable institutions rose beyond the northern enclosure; the most remarkable were the pest-house of St. Lazarus,^w founded in the eleventh century, the hospital of St. Louis,^x built in 1607, and the abbey of St. Anthony,^y which was afterwards changed into an hospital. Beyond the walls on the south were the abbey of St. Germain des Prés, of which the foundation dates from the time of Childebert the First; the church of St. Sulpice, which was finished by Louis the Fifteenth;^z the palace of the Luxembourg, of which the foundations were laid by Mary de Me-

^p "Under Henry IV., new additions increased it to 1660 arpents."

^q "Louis XIII. extended the limits on the north, and the line drawn by him may be still traced from the bridge of Louis XVI. (*Pont-Louis XVI.*)—"

^r "Rue Royale."

^s Tuileries. (Moreri. La Force.)—Thuilleries (Eng. authors.)

^t "Place Royale."

^u "Hôtel Richelieu, also called the Palais-Cardinal."—It was first called the Hôtel de Richelieu, then the Palais-Cardinal, and finally the Palais-Royal. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^v "The southern part of Paris comprehended, besides the island of St. Louis and the City* (*l'île Saint-Louis—la Cité*), in which were the cathedral and the palace of justice (*palais de justice*), the fronts of which were concealed by masses of building, three other important edifices: namely, the Sorbonne, founded by Robert de Sorbon, chaplain of St. Louis, and rebuilt by Richelieu; the college of Cluny, erected in the 13th century; and the church of St. Genevieve, in which Clovis and the shepherdess of Nanterre† were interred, and which was reconstructed in 1175. ||"

*The City occupies the island of Notre-Dame, in which the ancient *Lutetia* was situated.—P.

†The church of Notre-Dame.

‡St. Genevieve, born at Nanterre A. D. 419. (Moreri.)—P.

||The old church of St. Genevieve was first erected by Clovis, but having been ruined by the Normans, it was rebuilt at different intervals, and finally finished, in 1175, by Stephen bishop of Tournay. (Piganiol de la Force. t. v. p. 231—4.)—The present church of St. Genevieve (the Pantheon) was built by Louis XV.—P.

^w "Léproserie de St. Lazare"—house for the reception of lepers—lazar-house.—P.

^x "Hôpital St. Louis."

^y "Abbaye St. Antoine"—now Hôpital St. Antoine.—P.

^z The church of St. Sulpice was begun in 1655, during the reign of Louis XIV.—P

dicis in 1615; the abbey of Val de Grace, which was founded in 1645; the Garden of Plants, which was begun in 1635; and the house of correction,^a which was erected in 1656.

Paris was also enlarged by Louis the Fourteenth, and the hospital of Invalids^b was comprehended within the enclosure; during the same reign the old ditches were filled up, the ramparts and gates demolished, and two triumphal arches substituted for the gates of St. Martin and St. Denis. The boundaries of the city were so much enlarged in consequence of these improvements, that at the accession of Louis the Fifteenth, it covered a surface equal to 2,740 acres.^c The village of Roule^d was included some years afterwards within the limits that were fixed in 1728, and the extent was thus increased to 3,244 acres.^e Lamps of the same sort as those that are now seen in the streets, were erected in the year 1766, but a hundred years before that period, Paris was lighted by means of lanterns. To obviate the inconvenience arising from crooked streets, a law was first passed in 1785, regulating the plan according to which they were to be built in future; five years afterwards a new wall was raised, the limits have not been since much extended; they enclose a space somewhat less than 8,400 acres.^f

Having enumerated the principal additions made to Paris at different periods, we may mention the monuments and edifices by which it has been embellished from the accession of Louis the Fourteenth to the present day. The Mazarin college,^g now the hall of the Institute,^h the colonnade of the Louvre,ⁱ the Gobelins manufactory,^k the Observatory,^m the Foundling hospital,ⁿ the hospital of Invalids,^o the gates of St. Denis^p and St. Martin,^q the Royal Bridge^r, and the edifices surrounding the Place Vendome,^t were raised during the reign of Louis the Great.

The monuments of the following reign^u are the Bourbon

^a "Hospice de la Salpêtrière."—Properly, an alms-house for the reception of sick and aged females (particularly, the insane)—also used as a house of correction for disorderly females.—P.

^b "Hôtel des Invalides." ^c "3,228 arpents."

^d "Le Roule."—Le Roule or Le Rolle (Lat. *Rotulus*;) originally, a village; erected into a suburb, A. D. 1722. (La Force, t. II. p. 438—40.)—P. ^e "3,919 arpents."

^f "Paris was lighted with lanterns as early as 1666, but the lamps now employed (*réverbères*, reflecting lamps) were substituted for them in 1766. The first law regulating the laying out (*alignement*) of streets, was passed in 1783; five years afterwards, a new wall was erected, which taking into account the slight additions it has since received, gives to the capital an extent of 10,060 arpents.*"

*3,439 hectares 68 ares.

^g "Collège Mazarin"—called also the College of the Four Nations (*Collège des quatre Nations*;) because founded by Cardinal Mazarin for the education of 60 young noblemen from the four provinces recently subjected to Louis XIV. A. D. 1661.—After the revolution it was appropriated to the National Institute, and to a school of the fine arts, and received the name of *Palais des Arts*, by which name, and that of *Palais de l'Institut*, it is now known. The Mazarin library occupies part of the edifice. It was built on the site of the gate of Nesle (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^h "Palais de l'Institut" (Palace of the Institute)—also called the Palace of the Fine Arts (*Palais des Arts*.)—P.

ⁱ Begun in 1662. ^j Begun in 1665.

^k The royal manufactory of the Gobelins—a manufactory of the richest tapestry, so called from G. Gobelin, a dyer of Reims, who established a manufactory there in the 16th century.—The present establishment was founded by Colbert in 1667.—P. ^l Begun in 1666.

^m Begun in 1667. ⁿ Begun in 1669.

^o Begun in 1671, finished in 1706. ^p Begun in 1672.

^q Begun in 1674. ^r "Pont-Royal." ^s Begun in 1684.

^t From 1685 to 1701. ^u Louis XV.

^v "Palais Bourbon."

^w "Palais de la Chambre des députés"—under the imperial government, the Palace of the Legislative Body (*Palais du Corps Législatif*.)—P. ^x Begun in 1722. ^y "St. Roch." ^z Begun in 1736.

^{aa} Begun in 1739. ^{bb} Begun in 1752.

palace,^v at present the hall of the Chamber of deputies,^w the portal of the church of St. Roche,^y the massive fountain of Grenelle,^{aa} the Military School,^{bb} the new church of St. Genevieve,^{cc} the corn market,^{dd} the equestrian statue of Lewis the Fifteenth, the public buildings in the square that bears the name of the king,^{ff} Saint Martin's market,^{hh} and, lastly, the mint.^{jj}

The embarrassed state of the finances did not prevent Louis the Sixteenth from raising several useful and elegant buildings. The College of France^{ll} was completed, and the School of Medicine^{mm} was commenced.ⁿⁿ The court of justice^{oo} was embellished with a new front; ^{pp} the Odeon was built for the representation of French comedies,^{qq} and the present Italian theatre for the comic opera.^{rr} The magnificent front of the last building might have decorated one of the most frequented streets in Paris, but it was determined not to place it on a line with the minor theatres on the Boulevards.^{ss} Some years afterwards, the stone galleries of the Palais Royal were constructed by the duke of Orleans; ^{tt} the fine bridge of Louis the Sixteenth^{uu} was erected; the elegant fountain of the Innocents, a monument of the revival of the arts,^{vv} was repaired; ^{ww} and the French theatre^{xx} adorned the street of Richelieu.^{yy} ^{zz} The limits of Paris were also marked by fifty-five barriers,^{aaa} raised at a great expense and in bad taste; ^{bbb} and, lastly, the theatre of Feydeau was built during the same reign.^{ccc}

It seemed as if Bonaparte was anxious to indemnify the Parisians for the loss of liberty by improving their city. The embellishments which he added to the capital in the short space of twelve years surpassed those of the three preceding reigns.^{eee} The works of the period are the fine streets of La Paix, Rivoli, Mont Thabor, Castiglione, and many others. The quays of Orsai, Debilly, Desaix, Morland, Catinat, Bignon, the Louvre, the Invalids, the City,

^{cc} Although the foundations were begun in 1757, the ceremony of laying the corner-stone did not take place until the year 1764.

^{dd} "Halle au Blé." ^{ee} Begun in 1763, finished in 1767.

^{ff} "The equestrian statue and the buildings of the Place Louis XV."—The *Place Louis XV.* (Square of Louis XV.) is bounded by the Seine on the south, by the gardens of the Tuileries on the east, by the *Champs Elysées* on the west, and by a lofty range of palaces on the north. Its centre was occupied by an equestrian statue of Louis XV., demolished in 1792.—P. ^{gg} Begun in 1763.

^{hh} "The Market of St. Martin (*Marché St. Martin*.)"

ⁱⁱ Begun in 1765.

^{jj} "Hôtel des Monnaies."

^{kk} Begun in 1771.

^{ll} "Collège de France"—Collège Royal (Enc. Meth.)—Collège Royal de France (Alman. Royal)—founded by Francis I. A. D. 1529 rebuilt at the period above mentioned.—P.

^{mm} "Ecole de Médecine."

ⁿⁿ In 1774.

^{oo} "Palace of Justice (*Palais de Justice*.)"

^{pp} In 1776. ^{qq} In 1781.

^{rr} In 1782.

^{ss} "The Odeon was built for the *Comédie Française*, and the Italian Theatre (*Théâtre des Italiens*) for the comic opera (*opéra-comique*;) the latter with a large and noble front, which would have decorated the most frequented of the Boulevards,† if from a very singular prejudice, it had not been feared that by turning it in that direction, it would have been confounded with the petty theatres of the Boulevards."

* The present French Opera (Grand Opera or Royal Academy of Music) fronting the Rue Lepelletier (Boulevard Italien.) (Hervé.)—P.

† *Boulevard des Italiens* (Italian Boulevard.)

^{tt} In 1786.

^{uu} "Pont Louis XVI."

^{vv} The present structure, said to have been built on the site of an older one, was erected in 1550.—P.

^{ww} From 1787 to 1791.

^{xx} "Théâtre Français."

^{yy} "Rue de Richelieu."

^{zz} From 1787 to 1790.

^{aaa} "Barrières"—gates. ^{bbb} From 1786 to 1789.

^{ccc} "The Theatre of the Rue Feydeau was destined to receive the company that had been previously established on the Boulevard des Italiens." In 1790.

^{eee}—equalled them.—This was published in 1829, under the government of the Bourbons.—P.

the Conference and Tournelle were constructed. The bridges of Arts,^a the City, Austerlitz^b and Jena,^c were successively erected; the canal of Oureq facilitated the conveyance of goods, and thus increased the commerce of the capital.^d Twenty-four new fountains served to adorn and purify the streets; we cannot refrain from mentioning those on Chatelet place, Vaugirard street, the market of St. Germain, the court of the Medical School, the boulevard of Bondi, and the fountain of the Elephant, the largest of them all, but it remains still in an unfinished state. Eight covered markets were begun and finished; the old slaughter houses were demolished, and others were raised beyond the barriers, that the inhabitants might not be exposed to the disgusting spectacles, which until then were not uncommon in many parts of Paris.^e Four spacious cemeteries were enclosed without the walls, and granaries of a great size were built on the site of the ancient arsenal.^f The same period of despotism and glory was marked by the commencement or completion of different monuments. The colonnade of the Louvre was embellished and perfected, the works by which the same palæe was to be united to the Tuileries, were begun.^h A triumphal arch loaded with ornaments, in dimensions the same as the one erected to Septimius Severus at Rome, rose on the Carrousel to commemorate the Austrian campaign of 1805.ⁱ A similar monument of colossal size crowns the entrance to the Elysian Fields.^j The church of the Magdalen was enlarged,^k and the present peristyle was built round the chamber of deputies.^l A pillar after the model of the one raised to Antonine at Rome, covered with bronze basso-relievos, and surmounted by the eo-

^a In 1804.

^b In 1806.—Now called the bridge of the King's Garden (*Pont du Jardin du Roi*) [*Pont du Roi* (Hervé's Guide to Paris, p. 339.) It is situated opposite the Garden of Plants.—P.]

^c In 1813.—Now called the bridge of the Invalids (*Pont des Invalides*.)

^d In 1809.

^e They were begun in 1810, but they were not finished until after the restoration.

^f Begun in 1807.

^g "Several fine streets were opened, among which those of La Paix, Rivoli, Mont-Thabor* and Castiglione may be enumerated; the quays of Orsai, Debilly, Desaix, Morland, Bignon, the Louvre, the Invalids, the City (*Cité*), the Conference, and the Tournelle, were constructed; the bridges of the City (*Pont de la Cité*) and the Fine Arts (*Pont des Arts*), and those of Austerlitz and Jena, were successively erected; the canal of the Oureq and the large basin of La Villette furnished additional facilities to commerce; the streets were adorned and purified by 65 smaller fountains (*bornes jetant de l'eau*), and by 24 new fountains of a larger size (*nouvelles fontaines*), among the last of which the most remarkable were those of the Place du Chatelet, the Rue de Vaugirard, the Market of St. Germain (*marché St. Germain*), the School of Medicine, and the Boulevard of Bondy (*boulevard Bondi*), and also the colossal fountain of the Elephant, which still remains unfinished; eight covered markets supplied the place of the wretched booths of oil cloth, by which the hucksters had previously been protected; several new sewers served to drain the streets; five extensive slaughter-houses, built in an elegant style of rustic architecture, were erected on the skirts of the city, in order to put a stop to the disgusting practice of slaughtering animals in private establishments, in the heart of the town; four spacious cemeteries, situated beyond the barriers, were substituted for those within the walls; † immense granaries (*greniers de réserve*) occupied the site of the former arsenal; and the building of the wine market (*Halle aux Vins*) was begun."||

* Mount Tabor—so called from a victory gained by Bonaparte over the Turks, at Mount Tabor in Palestine, 1799.—P.

† The canal of the Oureq supplies several of the fountains in Paris.—P.

‡ In virtue of a decree issued in 1804.

|| The corner stone was laid in 1811.

^h In 1808.

ⁱ From 1806 to 1809.

^j From 1806 to 1814; but it is still unfinished.

^k From 1807 to 1814.

^l In 1807.

^m Finished in 1810.

ⁿ "The magnificent colonnade of the Louvre was embellished and terminated; the gallery intended to complete the connexion between the Louvre and the Tuileries,* was begun; a triumphal arch, loaded with ornaments, and built after the model of that of Septimius Severus at Rome, rose in the Place du Carrousel to commemorate the Aus-

lossal statue of its founder, adorned Vendome place.^m Last-ly, the exchange,^o the most sumptuous edifice in Paris, was founded on a site, formerly encumbered with o'd houses.^p

The fall of the extraordinary man by whom these works were accomplished, and the exhausted state of the finances after two years of invasion and defeats, interrupted, but did not prevent, the embellishments of the capital. The blessings of a long desired peace gave such an impulse to individual enterprise, that more workmen were employed than in the time of Napoleon. Gardens and fields were changed into streets,^q and villages rose beyond the gates. The mania of building became the disease of the rich and of speculators without capital; it was not until many of them were ruined, until whole districts or quarters were deserted, that their folly was discovered.^r Some works that had been long projected or begun, were after many interruptions continued; the granaries, the slaughter-houses, the markets of Saint Martin and Saint Germain were finished; the statues of Henry the Fourth and Lewis the Fourteenth were erected on the Pont-Neuf and the Place-Victoire. A monument was raised to Lewis the Sixteenth by the city of Paris, and it was determined to place the statue of Lewis the Thirtieth on the Royal Square, not on account of any admiration for the prince, but because his statue had been there before.^s

Every successive addition made to Paris was in all probability rendered necessary by a corresponding increase in the population; but nothing like accurate information can be obtained concerning the number of inhabitants before the fourteenth century. It cannot be doubted that both before

trian campaign of 1805; a similar monument, remarkable for its colossal dimensions, crowned the terrace (*plate-forme*) which terminates the avenue of the Champs-Élysées; † the church of La Madeleine, modified in its construction, received the title of the Temple of Glory (*Temple de la Gloire*); a peristyle, serving as a back-front (*arrière-façade*) to the Palace of the Chamber of Deputies, was made to correspond with that of the temple; a column, after the model of that of Antonine ‡ at Rome, covered with basso-reliefs in bronze, and surmounted by a colossal statue of its founder, || decorated the Place Vendome.—"

* The gallery connecting the Louvre and the Tuileries on the south, was begun by Henry IV. Bonaparte formed the plan of connecting the two buildings on the north by a similar range of building, which he begun and completed for about one third of the distance. When entirely finished, the vast square of the Carrousel will be completely enclosed.—P.

† The triumphal arch of *L'Etoile* (the Star)—called also the *Barrière de l'Etoile*; situated at the *Barrière de Neuilly*, at the extremity of the broad avenue which extends from that barrier to the Place Louis XV. through the whole extent of the Champs Élysées.—P.

‡ Trajan. (Ed. Encyc. Hervé.)—P.

|| Removed at the restoration.—It is now to be replaced.—P.

o "Palais de la Bourse."

p From 1808 to 1814.

q "New quarters were formed within the walls, where there had been only fields and gardens."—A considerable part of the space enclosed within the walls is still unoccupied.—P.

r "The ruin of many of them served to check this extravagance, and entire quarters, scarcely finished, attest by their solitude the extent of the delusion."

s "Several works, long since projected or begun, have been slowly continued; at the Tuileries, an iron railing, in a style of elegant simplicity, has been substituted for the wall on the terrace of the Feuillans; some of the arcades of the Louvre have been built; the granaries (*greniers de réserve*), the slaughter-houses, the wine market, the markets of St. Martin and St. Germain, the canals of St. Denis and St. Martin, and the quays of Bignon and the Invalids, have been finished; the statues of Henry IV. and Louis XIV. have been erected, the former on the Pont-Neuf, and the latter in the Place des Victoires; the vast buildings of the treasury department (*ministère des finances*) have added to the beautiful regularity of the Rue de Rivoli; the Exchange and the Temple of Glory, the last of which has again become the church of La Madeleine, have been completed; a monument to the memory of Louis XVI. has been raised in the square of Louis XV. (*Place Louis XV.*) which the city of Paris has undertaken to embellish at its own expense; and lastly, the statue of Louis XIII. is to be reinstated in the Place Royale, not from any motives of admiration, but because it formerly occupied the same locality."

and after that early period, little or no attention was bestowed on a subject, to which political writers of the present day attach so much importance. It is difficult, however, to suppose with M. Dulaure, that Paris contained only forty-nine thousand inhabitants in the reign of Philip the Fair.^a The chroniclers of the time assert that there were fifty thousand men capable of bearing arms, which indicates a population of more than a hundred and twenty thousand individuals. It may be allowed that chroniclers are not the best authority, but it should be recollected that the capital consisted then of thirty-four parishes, and it might be shown that the average number of inhabitants in each parish was at least equal to three thousand.^b If it were necessary to bring forward other arguments, it might be remarked that there were sixteen colleges in Paris in the year 1336,^c and that eight years afterwards a pestilential disease lasted several months, and while it was at its height, not less than five hundred persons died daily. The number of inhabitants must have been much greater in the following century, for a plague that began in 1418, and lasted three months, carried off a hundred thousand individuals.^d In the year 1467, Louis the Eleventh reviewed the men between sixteen and sixty, capable of bearing arms, and their number amounted to more than sixty and less than eighty thousand, so that the population may be supposed greater than 180,000. If 25,000 students from foreign countries and different parts of France, then in Paris, be included, the total population was without doubt greater than 200,000 individuals.^e The number of houses in Henry the Second's time amounted to 12,000, from which it may be inferred that the population was equal to about 240,000. When Henry the Fourth besieged Paris in a season of famine and devastation, there were in the town, exclusively of the suburbs, more than two hundred thousand persons. The total number of inhabitants amounted to 492,000 about the end of Louis the Fourteenth's reign; since that period the population has always been progressive.^f

^a M. J. A. Dulaure, *Histoire civile, physique et morale de Paris*, tom. iii. p. 281, 3e édition, 12mo.

^b "We cannot, however, agree with a distinguished writer (M. Dulaure,) who estimates the population of the capital, during the reign of Philip the Fair, at only about 49,000 souls. Whatever be the exaggeration of the chroniclers of the time, in valuing at 50,000 the number of individuals capable of bearing arms, which would indicate a population of more than 120,000 souls, it cannot but be admitted, in our opinion, that a city which then comprehended 34 parishes, must have contained about that number of inhabitants, for each parish must have reckoned at least 3000 individuals, in order to maintain the great number of priests that served them."

^c The colleges of the Sorbonne, Boissy, Huban, Mignon, Chanac, Boncourt, Burgundy, the Lombards, the Germans, Tours, Lisieux, Autun, Cambray, Aubusson, Tournay and Justin.

^d "—since in 1418, a plague that lasted three months, carried off 100,000 individuals."

^e "In 1467, Louis XI. reviewed the men between sixteen and sixty, and as their number amounted to between sixty and eighty thousand, the whole population may be reckoned at more than 180,000, and if the 25,000 students then in Paris, from different parts of France, be included, at more than 200,000."

^f The registers afford better means of determining the increase and fluctuations in the population since the accession of Louis the Fifteenth: the following are some of the results.

In 1719	- - - -	509,000
In 1762	- - - -	576,000
In 1776	- - - -	658,000
In 1785	- - - -	685,000
In 1791	- - - -	666,000
In 1798	- - - -	640,000
In 1802	- - - -	672,000
In 1815	- - - -	714,000
In 1827	- - - -	890,000

The remarkable decrease in the above series from the year 1791 to 1802, must be attributed to revolutionary troubles.[†]

Paris contained before the revolution a hundred and sixty catholic houses of worship: viz. fifty parish churches, ten others possessing the same privileges, twenty collegiate churches and eighty chapels of ease; there were besides eleven abbeys, three of which were inhabited by women, fifty-three convents and forty-six nunneries.⁵ It does not contain at present more than thirty-eight catholic churches, namely, twelve parish churches and twenty-six chapels of ease, besides thirty-five monasteries for women, four for men, and as many monkish seminaries.^h Six chapelsⁱ belong to different sects: viz. three to the Calvinists, one to those of the Augsburg confession,^j one to the eastern Christians,^k and one to the Jews.

There are nine public libraries, many scientific collections, others connected with the arts, schools of law, medicine and theology. It is foreign to our purpose to mention all the schools, seminaries or colleges in which the various departments of knowledge are taught; of these the polytechnic school is not the least important, and it may be remarked that the method of instruction which was first introduced there, has been since adopted in different countries. The number of public institutions amounts to thirty-six, of public schools to a hundred and thirty-five; there are twenty-three learned societies, independently of the Royal Institute, the most celebrated of them all. Much good has been effected by philanthropic societies, by benevolent institutions; knowledge has thus been communicated to those, who otherwise must have remained ignorant, the evils of poverty have thus been mitigated. As ostentation is not a pretext for the noble duty of relieving the poor, or mitigating human suffering, the neglect of it cannot be imputed to carelessness or indifference. The charitable institutions in Paris, the numbers that subscribe to them, the zeal and judgment with which they are managed, are the best proofs of progressive improvement, the best answers that can be given to the narrow-minded men, who have vainly attempted to calumniate the present generation.¹

⁵ "Since the accession of Louis XV., the public registers may be relied on with a good degree of confidence, and by means of them we may safely establish the progressive increase and fluctuations in the population of Paris—"

[†] "The population in this series, is calculated according to the births, to which has been added the number of illegitimate children, taking care to retrace one third for those which, although born in Paris, do not actually belong to the city. It will be perceived that the revolutionary troubles occasioned a considerable diminution from 1791 to 1802; but since the return of peace, the increase of the population has again become rapidly progressive."

¹ Rather from 1785, or at least 1789, to 1798.—P.

⁵ "There were besides 3 abbeys for men and 8 for women, and also 53 convents (*communautés*) for men and 46 for women."

^h "35 convents (*communautés*) for women, 4 convents (*congrégations*) for men, and 4 seminaries."

ⁱ "Temples"—churches.

† Lutherans.

^k "—to the Greek Church."

¹ "Among the establishments for the purposes of education and public instruction, Paris possesses 9 public libraries, numerous collections connected with the sciences and the arts, celebrated schools of theology, law and medicine, public courses of instruction in all the branches of human knowledge, 7 colleges, 7 special schools, namely, the school of civil engineering (*ponts et chaussées*.) that of mines, that of geographical engineers, that of the staff (*état major*.) and those of music, the fine arts, and the oriental languages, the polytechnic school, one of the most important, of which the plan and mode of instruction have been imitated in many foreign countries, 37 private institutions, 56 boarding schools (*pensionnats*.) 135 primary schools (*écoles populaires*.) the Royal Institute, and 23 other learned societies. There are also 16 philanthropic societies, besides a great number of charitable establishments. These institutions for the diffusion of light and knowledge, and for the relief of indigence and misfortune, are not founded through ostentation, nor neglected through indifference: the schools, the libraries and the collections, the learned societies and the benevolent associations, are frequented with a zeal which places this city in the highest rank of intelligence, and notwithstanding the vain calumnies of certain narrow and retrograde minds, attests the increasing improvement of the present generation."

Paris is subdivided into twelve mayoralities,^a and its environs form the two subprefectures of St. Denis and Sceaux. The small town of St. Denis^b may be mentioned on account of an ancient Benedictine abbey, and also on account of a church, a Gothic building, perhaps more remarkable for lightness than any other in France, it was begun in the seventh century, and finished in 1181. The orphan daughters of the Legion of Honour are at present educated and maintained in the ancient abbey. A feeder of the Ourcq canal passes at the extremity of the town, and contributes to the trade of the inhabitants. Saint Denis is also a place of some importance on account of four fairs that are held in the course of the year; it is calculated that on an average £.62,500 worth of cloth, £.25,000 of linen, and £.16,000 of woollen stuffs are sold. More than ninety thousand sheep are bought at the fair of Landit, a neighbouring burgh.^c

Vincennes is situated in the district of Sceaux; the old towers and the dungeon which were long used as a state prison, are built on the royal manor of Philip Augustus;^d they were begun by Philip of Valois, and finished by Charles the Fifth. The first of these kings^e changed the wood into a park by enclosing it with a wall, and it was under a venerable oak, which is said to have existed at so late a period as the sixteenth century, that St. Louis administered justice.^f Lewis the Tenth, Charles the Fourth, Charles the Fifth, Charles the Ninth^g and Cardinal Mazarin^h died in the castle of Vincennes. The village of Bercy on the banks of the Seine is the principal depot of the wines, brandy and oil that are consumed in the capital. The aqueduct of Arcueil is built on the site of the one that was raised by the emperor Julian, an ancient work of which some imposing ruins still remain.ⁱ The neat village of Fontenay aux Roses possessed the privilege of supplying the court and the par-

^a "Paris forms only a single arrondissement, and even a single commune subdivided into twelve mayoralities (*mairies*.)"—The prefect of the department of the Seine performs the duties of subprefect within the limits of the city or commune of Paris, in the same manner as the prefects of the other departments officiate as subprefects in the arrondissement in which they reside; in this sense, Paris may be said to form a single arrondissement. The twelve divisions into which the commune of Paris is divided are called mayoralities (*mairies*) and communal arrondissements, and also cantons or judicial districts.—P.

^b St. Denys.

^c "The small town of St. Denis was formerly celebrated for its ancient abbey of Benedictines. The church, which was begun in the seventh century, and finished in 1181, is a Gothic edifice, remarkable for its lightness.* The buildings of the abbey are at present occupied by the royal establishment for the education of the orphan daughters of the members of the Legion of Honour.† The commerce of St. Denis has been rendered more active by the canal which passes by the skirts of the town and afterwards unites with that of the Ourcq;‡ it, however, owes its importance to the fairs which are held there four times in a year, and in which, it is calculated, there are annually sold, on an average, 1,500,000 francs worth of cloths (*draps*), 300,000 francs worth of linens (*toiles*), 200,000 francs worth of woollen stuffs (*lainages*), and 800,000 francs worth of Rouen goods (*rouenneries*.) At the fair of Landit, more than 90,000 sheep are sold annually."

* The remains of the royal family of France, since the time of Dagobert, have been deposited in the church of St. Denis, in crypts or subterranean chapels round the choir. By a decree of the convention in 1793, the bodies of the princes of France, buried at St. Denis, were ordered to be removed from the vaults, and thrown promiscuously into two large pits without the church, where they still remain. A chapel has been erected by Louis XVIII. in expiation of this sacrilege, in which are inscribed, on black marble tablets, the names of the princes whose tombs were violated. (Hervé.)—P.

† Maison Royale de St. Denis.

‡ Canal of St. Denis.

^d "Vincennes, in the arrondissement of Sceaux, is remarkable for its Donjon. These old towers, which were long used as a state prison (*prison d'Etat*.) occupy the site of the royal mansion-house (*maison royale*) of Philip Augustus."—The old castle of Vincennes consists of a Donjon and nine other square towers. The Donjon has a separate ditch and drawbridge. In 1270, there was a royal mansion (*maison royale*; Lat. *manerium regale*) at Vincennes, which appears to have been built by Philip Augustus, who enclosed the wood with walls.

VOL. III.—NO. 52

41

liament with roses, a privilege that accounts for its name. It was customary for the peers and magistrates to hold an assembly in the month of May, and each person received a bunch of flowers in which the number of roses was arranged according to the rank of the individual; but the ceremony gave rise to so many disputes about precedence that it was at last abolished.^j It is certain, however, that more roses are at present cultivated at Fontenay than in any other place round Paris. The burgh of Sceaux^k on the small river Bievre shares with Poissy the advantage of a cattle market for the supply of Paris. The luxury of the Parisians exerts a great influence in the surrounding districts, and village girls appear on Sundays in the same dress as the belles of the capital.^l

The department of the Eure, formerly included in the ancient province of Normandy, is contiguous on its eastern boundary to that of the Seine and Oise. A great many horses, and the finest oxen that appear in the markets of Sceaux and Poissy, are reared in the pastures and artificial meadows in the department; the inhabitants manufacture a considerable quantity of corn, cloth and cotton stuffs.^m Several places are connected with historical events that are not uninteresting even in the present day: the troops of Charles the Bad, king of Navarre, were defeated between Evreux and Vernonⁿ by Duguesclin in 1364; sixty years afterwards, the English gained a victory over Charles the Seventh in the neighbourhood of Verneuil; lastly, the army under the command of the duke of Mayenne was destroyed on the plains of Ivry by Henry the Fourth.^o

Vernon rises on the left bank of the Seine, and a bridge of twenty-two arches serves as a communication between the town and one of the suburbs. The public records are preserved in an old tower, all that remains of the fortifications. Evreux, a town built of wood, is situated in a fruit-

(Piganiol de la Force, t. VIII, 41, 43.)—The castle of Vincennes is still used as a prison, not for those confined by *lettres de cachet* or secret imperial orders (happily, such despotism is abolished,) but for such as are imprisoned by due process of law, as in the case of the ministers of Charles X.—P.

^e Philip Augustus.

^f The castle contains a neat Gothic chapel, built by Henry II. The Duke D'Enguien was executed at Vincennes, March 21, 1804; a granite column and a weeping willow, placed in one of the ditches, serve as monuments of the fatal deed. (M.B.)—The Duke D'Enguien was shot in one of the ditches, by the orders of Bonaparte, just after midnight, March 20, 1804.—P.

^g Charles V. was born in the castle of Vincennes, A. D. 1338, and died at the castle of Beauté sur Marne, A. D. 1380. Louis X. (A. D. 1316,) Charles IV. (A. D. 1328,) and Charles IX. (A. D. 1574,) died in the castle of Vincennes. (Moréri.)—P.

^h "Cardinal Mazarin, who had been appointed governor of the castle.—"

ⁱ The aqueduct of Julian was intended to supply the *Thermæ* in his palace, (now Palais des Thermes.) The modern aqueduct was constructed by Mary de Medicis—finished 1624. Arcueil has become a place of interest to men of science, from the valuable memoirs (*Mémoires d'Arcueil*) published by a society for the cultivation of the physical sciences, established at the country residence of Berthollet.—P.

^j "The neat village of Fontenay aux Roses derives its name from the privilege it formerly possessed of supplying the court and the parliament with roses. In the month of May, in a public assembly, each of the peers and magistrates received, according to his rank, a bouquet of roses; but the disputes that arose about precedence led to the abolition of the ceremony."^k Seaux. (Vosgien.)

^l "The luxury of Paris exercises such an influence on the surrounding country, that the village girls in their dress have preserved nothing of the ancient costume; on the contrary, they have assumed that of the belles (*grisettes*) of the capital, with whom they mix freely in the rustic balls (*bals champêtres*.) which on festival days, attract to Sceaux a numerous crowd of visitors."

^m "It exports a considerable quantity of eorn, and its numerous iron works (*usines*.) cloth manufactories and cotton mills (*filatures de coton*) prove the activity of its industry."

ⁿ Near the village of Cocherel. M. B.

^o "In 1590, the plains of Ivry were the scene of the victory gained by Henry IV. over the duke of Mayenne."

ful valley, watered by the Iton. It is a place of great antiquity; excavations have been made at different times, and many ruins have been discovered; indeed it cannot be doubted that it occupies the site of the Celtic city, originally called *Mediolanum*, and at a later period *Ebuovices* by the Roman conquerors. The iron arches that support the bridge of Arts and the bridge of Austerlitz, were founded at the iron works near Conches, at no great distance from Evreux; the industrious inhabitants are casting at present the different parts of an iron steeple, which is to weigh 900,000 kilogrammes or 884 tons, it is intended to be placed on the cathedral of Rouen.^a

Other towns are situated in the country on the north of the Seine. Gisors contains three thousand inhabitants; the principal building is a church, of which the ornaments were sculptured by John Goujon.^b The old tower that rises on an eminence, is all that remains of a castle once inhabited by queen Blanche. The road from Gisors traverses a long ridge on the left of the Great and Little Andely, two small towns which at present form only one.^c Nicholas Poussin was born in an adjoining hamlet;^d a monument has been erected to his memory at Little Andely. At no great distance are the ruins of a fortress which according to tradition was built by Richard Cœur de Lion.

The village of Fleury is situated in the middle of the valley through which the Andelle flows.^e The sinuous course of the small river, the manufactories at irregular distances, Charleval on one side, and the hill of Deux-Amans^f on the other, the declivities covered with pastures, and the woods which crown their summits, render the valley as agreeable as any in Normandy. Charleval bore the name of Nogeon sur Andelle until the time that Charles the Ninth laid the foundation stone of a country seat, that was never finished, but different chambers in it were converted into dwellings for the peasantry.^g Romilly rises on the Andelle near its confluence with the Seine; the river puts in motion the works on which the importance of the town depends; more than three hundred persons are employed in making wire, kettles and different articles of brass or copper; it is believed that the weight of the products which issue every year from these works cannot be less than 900,000 kilogrammes.^h

^a "Conches possesses important iron-works, in which were cast the iron arches of the bridge of the Fine Arts (*Pont des Arts*) and of the bridge of Austerlitz, and where they are now casting the spire of the cathedral of Rouen, the weight of which is to be 900,000 kilogrammes"—more than 900 tons. See note ¹ p. 989.—Conches is 4 leagues S. W. of Evreux. (Vosgien.)—P.

^b "The ornaments of its church were sculptured by J. Goujon."—There is only one parish-church in Gisors. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^c "The road to Rouen traverses a long plateau, beyond Gisors, leaving on the left" the Great and Little Andelys,¹ two small towns which are at present considered as forming only one."

^d Consequently the road is on the right of the Andelys. (See *Tableau des Postes de France*.)—P.

^e The Andelys (*Les Andelys*) at present, the chief town of an arrondissement—consisting of two small towns, separated by a paved road, and only a quarter of a league distant from each other: namely, Little Andely (*Le Petit Andely*) on the right bank of the Seine, and Great Andely (*Le Grand Andely*) on a small stream called the Gambon. (Vosgien.)—P.

^f Nicholas Poussin was born in Great Andely. (Moreri. Enc. Meth.)—P.

^g "The road to Rouen [note ^c of this page] descends into the pleasant valley of the Andelle, in the middle of which the village of Fleury is situated."

^h "Hill of the Two Lovers (*montagne des Deux-Amans*.)"

ⁱ "—but of which there still remain a guard room and several gilded chambers, that serve as dwellings for the peasantry."

^j "The foundry of Romilly," situated near the point where the Andelle unites with the Seine, is the principal manufacturing establishment supplied by the former of those rivers. Three hundred workmen are there employed in making copper plates, brass and copper

kettles and brass wire; the annual amount of the products is estimated at 900,000 kilogrammes."

^k Romilly sous Andelle, a village of Normandy, celebrated for its copper foundry. (Vosgien.)—P.

^l "—but which have latterly employed more than six thousand."—The very superfine French cloths are made at Louviers in Normandy. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^m Situated on the left bank of the Seine. (Enc. Meth.)—It is situated at the confluence of the Andelle and the Eure with the Seine It has a bridge over the latter of 22 arches. (Vosgien.)—P.

ⁿ Quillebeuf—Lat. *Henricopolis*.—P.

^o "Owing to the difficulties of the navigation, arising from the shifting sands accumulated by the Seine, which prevent large vessels from ascending the river to Rouen, and compel them to discharge their cargoes at Quillebeuf, the harbour of the latter is of considerable commercial importance."—There is a quay at Quillebeuf, at which all the vessels moor, that are destined for Rouen, and where the largest are discharged, on account of the shifting sand banks in the river. (Vosgien.)—Ships of 150 to 200 tons can ascend to Rouen by the aid of the tide, larger ones being lightened further down the river. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^p "—Audomer, a French lord (*seigneur*), who built there a bridge over the Rille—"It stands on the Rille, over which there is a bridge, built by one Audomer or Audemer, whence its name. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^q "The houses are built of brick and with a certain degree of elegance, the streets are handsome, and the public squares regular."

^r Carentone. (Vosgien.)

^s "One of the most considerable fairs in France is held there annually, at which the sale of horses is so extensive as to attract to it more than 40,000 persons."

^t Department of the Orne.

Louviers on the right of the Eure may be seen from the heights that command Romilly; it is well known on account of its numerous cloth manufactories, in which only two thousand workmen were employed forty years ago, but which furnish occupation at present to more than six thousand.¹ The wealth and industry of the inhabitants have enabled them to adorn their town with several fine edifices, an elegant theatre and different public walks. Pont de l'Arche, a small place of fifteen hundred inhabitants, was built by Charles the Bald; it is situated below Louviers on the right bank of the Seine,² at a point in the river where the tide is already perceptible.

The small town of Quillebeuf^k at the mouth of the river,¹ was originally called *Erricarville*; it was a strong place of some consequence before the fortifications were razed by Louis the Thirteenth; it does not contain at present more than fifteen hundred persons. As the moving sands that are accumulated by the Seine, render it impracticable for merchant vessels to ascend to Rouen, their cargoes are transported in lighters from the harbour of Quillebeuf.^m Neat villages are scattered through the country between the river and Pont-Audemer; they are surrounded by orchards and meadows. The time in which the last town was founded, cannot be exactly determined; it is known, however, that it was called after Audemer, a Frenchman, who built a bridge on the Rilleⁿ in the thirteenth century. It is encompassed with walls and ditches, the houses are built of brick, the streets are straight and regular.^o Bernay, to the south of Pont-Audemer, may be mentioned as the capital of a sub-prefecture; the small river Charentonne^p flows below its walls. It contains, at a certain season of the year not fewer than forty thousand persons, the most of whom repair to it on account of a fair, in which more horses are sold than in any other in France.^q

It would be tedious to enumerate all the manufacturing establishments in the department; suffice it to say that they amount to fifteen hundred, that they furnish employment to thirty thousand persons, and that the value of their products amounts to at least 26,000,000 francs or £.1,083,000.

The Orne gives its name to a department,^r in which calcareous rocks, granite and others of an ancient date form high hills and narrow valleys covered with pastures or arable

land. The people do not cultivate much corn, but they rear a great many horses and oxen. Linen, cotton and different manufactories furnish employment to great numbers; wealth is thus diffused among the four thousand inhabitants of Vimoutiers^a on the Vie, and among twenty thousand persons of both sexes in the neighbourhood.^b Argentan rises on the Orne, and is commanded by the ruins of a strong castle, the only remains of its fortifications; its ramparts have been long since changed into public walks; it carries on a trade in a particular kind of lace, which the French call *Point-d'Alençon*.^c The village of Sainte-Honorine-la-Guillaume has become more flourishing since granite quarries were worked in the vicinity;^d it contains at present two thousand inhabitants. The Rille flows near a lofty forest that bounds the department of Eure, and passes through the neat town of Aigle,^e a place that carries on a great trade in pins and needles;^f one of its manufactories is provided with machinery by which two hundred thousand needles can be made in a day. The straight and well built streets of Mortagne are situated on the declivity of a hill;^g the town may be considered the centre of a considerable trade in the coarse and fine linens that are exported to the colonies.^h Belesme^k stands on an eminence that commands a plain and the forest that bears its name; it is regularly and well-built, and the inhabitants manufacture coarse linens and cotton stuffs.^l

We have had occasion to mention the *Saïi* in the account of the Roman provinces in Gaul. The Orne waters Seez, anciently *Saïum*,^m their principal city, which was built before the conquest of Cæsar. The Normans destroyed it in the ninth century;ⁿ Lewis the Young set fire to it in the

^a Vimoutier or Vimontier. Lat. *Vimomasterium*. (Vosgien.)—P.

^b "The department of the Orne is as varied in its physical constitution as in its industry. Chalk,^{*} limestone of an earlier date,[†] and granite, the last of which forms lofty hills and narrow valleys,[‡] are covered with soils suited for cultivation and pasturage. But little corn is raised in the department, but it rears many horses and oxen, and possesses important iron-works (*usines*) and several cotton mills (*filatures de coton*.) The linen manufacture[¶] is also one of its branches of industry; it is that which diffuses prosperity among the 4000 inhabitants of Vimoutiers, a flourishing town situated on the small river Vie, and which employs more than 20,000 persons of both sexes in the neighbourhood."

^{*} "Calcaires crayeuses"—chalky limestone. Qu. hard chalk or lower chalk—situated below the soft white chalk, sometimes resembling limestone in colour, hardness and texture, but distinguished by the chalk fossils.—P.

[†] Secondary limestones, situated below the chalk. Transition limestones, near the granite?—P.

[‡] The great Chalk Basin of S. England and N. France skirts the department on the north, while the projection from the primitive region of Brittany, extending eastward towards the plateau of Beauce, skirts it on the south. In the intermediate parts are found the secondary limestones above indicated.—P.

[¶] Iron is wrought in the department to the amount of 5000 tons of cast, and 3000 of wrought iron annually. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^{¶¶} "Fabrication de toile de crotte" [crotte]—manufacture of *crottes*. *Crotte*, a kind of mixed cloth of hemp and linen, made in Normandy—the chain of hemp and the woof of linen. (Savary, Dict. Comm. t. II. p. 769. Enc. Meth. Dict. Comm. t. I. p. 756)—P.

^c "It manufactures that kind of lace formerly celebrated under the name of *Point-d'Alençon*." The point lace of Alençon has long enjoyed a great reputation through France, England, Germany, &c. The point lace of Argentan (*point d'Argentan*) is also celebrated. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^d The royal stud (*haras*) of Le Pin is situated in the neighbourhood of Argentan. M. B.

^e "The village of St. Honorine la Guillaume (*Sainte-Honorine-la-Guillaume*.) a few leagues to the west of Argentan, has become of considerable importance from its granite quarries"—P.

^f L'Aigle (Vosgien,) Laigle (Alm. Royal,) Aigle (Enc. Meth. Moreri.)—P.

^g "Near a large forest that borders the department of the Eure, the small river Rille flows through the neat town of L'Aigle, which is celebrated for its pins and needles"—P.

^h Two thousand, according to the translator.—P.

ⁱ "On the declivity of a hill, fronting the east."

^j "It is the centre of a considerable manufacture of strong and light linens (*toiles fortes et toiles légères*) for the supply of the colonies."—

twelfth, and it was taken in the fourteenth by the English who razed the fortifications.^o It was a more important place before the Norman invasion than at present;ⁿ it does not now contain five thousand inhabitants.^p The cathedral is a fine Gothic edifice: the diocese is very ancient;^q St. Latinian, the first bishop, died about the beginning of the fifth century.^r

The distance from Seez to Alençon is not more than five leagues; few visit the last place without remarking the simple and elegant architecture of the prefect's residence,^s and the fine appearance of the corn market, a circular building, and also of the townhouse, in the last of which the two towers are the remains of the castle that was inhabited by the dukes of Alençon. Marshal Matignon who had the courage to disobey the commands of government on St. Bartholomew's day, the historian Mezeray, and the deputy Valazé were born in the town. Although less important than it once was, it carries on a greater trade in lace than at any former period; and it appears that more than two thousand persons are employed in embroidering and manufacturing muslin.^t

Domfront, an insignificant and ill-built town near the western extremity of the department, is only remarkable for its position; it rises on the summit of a steep rock, divided by a vertical fissure more than two hundred feet in depth, at the bottom of which flows the small river Varennes. The industry of the inhabitants consists chiefly in making coarse linen and different stuffs; but it is the capital of a district^u in which the smallest villages are engaged in manufactures. Some of these villages are called burghs, they contain about three or four thousand inhabitants; we may mention four

The distinction in these linens is not in the degree of fineness of thread, but in that of thickness and closeness of texture.—They manufacture at Mortagne, great quantities of very strong hempen cloths, and also moderately strong hempen cloths for napkins. They also manufacture coarse hempen cloths called canvas (*canvas*.) (Savary, t. III. p. 425.)—P.

^k Belême, Bellesme (Enc. Meth.) Bellême (Alm. Royal.)—Situated 4 leagues S. of Mortagne. (Vosgien.)—P.

^l "Toiles communes—cotonnades."

^m *Saïi*. (D'Anv. Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc.)—Sées, Sées, Sez, Sais or Setz; Lat. *Sagium, Saïum, Saïorum Civitas* (Enc. Meth. Geog. Mod.)—P.

ⁿ "About the ninth century, when the Normans destroyed it, it was much more considerable than at present."—The diocese of Seez is 24 leagues in length, by 13 in breadth; it was much more extensive in the ninth century, when the Normans invaded it. (Enc. Meth.)—(?)—P.

^o "It was burnt in the twelfth century by Louis the Young, and in the fourteenth, by the English, who razed its fortifications."—Louis the Young besieged it in 1174, but the resistance of the inhabitants compelled him to raise the siege; in 1353, it was burnt by the English. (Enc. Meth.)—(?)—P.

^p "It contains 5000 inhabitants."—Population 5400 (Vosgien.)—5500 (Alm. Royal, 1822.)—P.

^q Seez is still the seat of a bishopric.—P.

^r "St. Latinian was the first bishop of Seez, at the commencement of the fifth century." ^s "Hôtel de la préfecture."

^t "In other respects, although some of the streets are broad, clean and well paved, the town has a gloomy aspect; a defect that may be attributed to the grayish colour of the granite of which its houses are constructed. Marshal Matignon,^{*} who refused to perpetrate the horrible massacre of St. Bartholomew, was born at a little distance from one of its five suburbs; but the historian Mezeray,[†] and the deputy Valazé,[‡] were born within the town. Although the manufacture of lace is less important than it was formerly, it is still carried on to a considerable extent at Alençon;^{||} more than 2000 persons are also employed there in manufacturing and embroidering muslin."

^{*} J. de Matignon, born at Louvray in Normandy, A. D. 1526. He refused to massacre the Protestants on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572, at Alençon and St. Lo, of which places he was then governor.—P.

[†] Fr. Eudes de Mezeray [Mezerai,] the historian, was born at the village of Ry near Argentan [at the village of Mezeray, near Argentan. Moreri.] He took the name of *de Mezeray*, from that of a hamlet in the parish of Ry. (Beauvais.)—P.

[‡] C. E. Dufrique de Valazé, born at Alençon, 1751. He was an active member of the Gironde party, and was consequently condemned by Robespierre, but he anticipated his fate by suicide, Oct. 30, 1792.—P.

^{||} See note ^c of this page.

^u "Arrondissement"

of them: Athis is noted for cloth and silk, Ferté Macé for cottons and ribbons, Flers for tools and snuff-boxes, Tinchebrai for iron works and paper mills.^a

The Channel^b bounds the extensive coasts of the department^c into which we are about to enter. Metals, argil well adapted for porcelain, slate and granite quarries are worked on the hills; the plains are fruitful in corn and pastures, but the whole country is almost destitute of timber. Such are the principal products in a department ill provided with roads and other means of communication; it may excite surprise therefore that it is one of the most populous in France, but the inhabitants are laborious and well informed, they devote themselves to fishing, agriculture, commerce and manufacturing industry.^d

Mortain, the small capital of the most southern district,^e is encompassed with granite rocks; the inhabitants manufacture paper and earthen ware.^f Avranches,^g one of the most ancient Armorican cities, is situated on a hill^h at no great distance from the sea; it bore the Celtic name of *Ingena*, it was afterwards called *Abrincata*, and at a still later period, *Abrinca* or *Avrinca*. The early inhabitants, the *Abrincata* or *Avrincata*, were formerly settled in the country of *Avranchin*. The present cathedral dates from the twelfth century, but before that time Avranches was the capital of a diocese, and a place of importance, as a fortified town.ⁱ The safe and convenient harbour of Granville was constructed in 1784; eight years afterwards the inhabitants defended themselves successfully against an attack of the English.^j The town contains a population of eight thousand souls; it is ill-built and encompassed with walls; most of the people are engaged in commerce, they equip many vessels for the coasting trade and cod fisheries.^k Coutances^l is probably a place of as great antiquity as Avranches; it was the *Cosedia* of the Celts and the *Constantia-Castra* of the Romans;^m the country round it was formerly called Cotentin,ⁿ a name by which it is still designated in Norman-

^a "Some places, to which they have given the name of *bourgs*, ought rather from their population of three or four thousand inhabitants, to be considered as towns (*villes*); four of them only will be mentioned; namely, Athis, noted for its plain and ribbed cassimeres (*reps et casimirs*); La Ferté-Macé, for its plain cottons (*toiles de coton*); its tapes (*rubans de fil*); and its box-wood snuff-boxes (*tabatières de buis*); Flers, for its tools^o and twilled cottons (*cotonnades croisés*); and lastly, Tinchebrai,[†] for its forges and paper mills."

^{* "Outils."—Qu. *coutils*, tent-cloths, tickings—a very strong and coarse kind of cloth, generally made of hemp, manufactured in the greatest quantities in Normandy and Brittany. (Savary, t. II, p. 730.)—P.}

[†] Tinchebrai. (Vosgien.)

^b "La Manche"—English Channel.

^c Department of the Channel (*Département de la Manche*).

^d "Bounded by the Channel, as its name indicates, the long and narrow department we are about to enter, comprehends a great extent of coast, some land that is fertile, principally in corn, but little forest, much pasture, and a chain of low hills (*petites montagnes*), that furnish slate and granite, besides metals and clay suitable for porcelain.* From this brief enumeration of its natural advantages, connected with the fact that it is not provided with sufficient means of communication, we should be surprised to learn that it is one of the most populous departments in France,† did we not know that its inhabitants are very industrious, and devote themselves successfully to agriculture, fishing, commerce and manufactures."

* These hills form the eastern front of the primitive region in N. W. France, and are immediately connected with the similar region in S. W. England; a line drawn from Cape La Hogue N. W., striking the granite of Daitmoor.—P.

† Population of the department (1802), 1,663 inhabitants per square league—that of the whole of France, on an average, being 1,086, that of the Lower Seine 1800, and that of the Seine and Oise, in the immediate vicinity of Paris, 1502. (Peuchet, *Statist. de la France*, p. 153, 230, 97, 95.)—P.

^e "—the small capital of a subprefecture (*arrondissement*), that first presents itself in the most southern part of the territory."—The *arrondissement* of Mortain occupies the south-eastern extremity of the department, and is the only one contiguous to the department of the Orne, last mentioned—that of Avranches is directly west of it, and occupies the south-western extremity of the department.—P.

[†] "Stone ware (*poteries de grès*)"

^g Avranches.

dy. The Bulzard flows beneath the walls,^o and the remains of a Roman aqueduct may be seen in the fruitful meadows near the banks of the river. The town is the seat of a bishopric; the cathedral may be compared with the finest Gothic edifices in France.

The works which were begun during the reign of Lewis the Sixteenth, continued under the imperial government, and almost neglected since 1813, have rendered Cherbourg an important place both as a strong town and a sea-port. Eight formidable redoubts guard the entrance, while three forts and a large battery are placed in such a manner as to defend the anchorage, of which the depth at low tide is not less than forty feet. It is enclosed by an embankment 3866 yards in length, 80 in breadth at the base, and 30 at the summit. Although the embankment was commenced in the reign of Lewis the Sixteenth, it is not yet finished, but so many difficulties have been already overcome, that it may be considered a gigantic undertaking. It was necessary to construct a great many conical frames 69 feet in height, 60 in diameter at their summit, and 140 at their base; they were afterwards filled with stones, and let down into the water. The spaces between them were covered with loose stones, still the barrier was insufficient to resist the impetuosity of the waves, and the work was only accomplished by successive accumulations. The whole mass is formed by enormous blocks of granite and sand-stone together with 40,000,000 cubic yards of loose stones. The former harbour of Cherbourg was merely adapted for merchant vessels, more than 50 ships of the line may ride at anchor in the present during the lowest tides. It is encompassed with store-houses and dockyards, in which the largest ships may be built; but the town is an assemblage of clumsy houses, of narrow and crooked streets; the only monument worthy of notice, is the one that was erected to commemorate the landing of the Duke de Berry in 1814.^p The temperature of Cherbourg is very mild relatively to the latitude; in

^h "Declivity (*coteau*)."—Situated on a hill, at the foot of which flows the Sée [*Séez*], half a league from the sea. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

ⁱ "Its Celtic name was *Ingena*, afterwards exchanged for that of *Abrincata*,* which finally became *Abrinca* or *Avrinca*.† The people to whom it belonged were the *Abrincata* or *Avrincata*,* and the territory which they inhabited was formerly called *Avranchin* (*L'Aeranchin*).‡ Avranches was the seat of a bishopric [before the revolution,] and its cathedral dates from the twelfth century.§ At that period, it was a place of importance as a fortified town (*place d'armes*).||"

* *Abrincata*. (D'Anv. Enc. Meth.)—*Ingena* (Avranches), afterwards called *Abrincata*. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc.)—P.

† *Abrinca* (Moreri. Enc. Meth.)—*Abrinca*, *Arbinca* (Robert Cenalis.) Moreri.—P.

‡ Before the revolution.—Avranchin, a small district in Lower Normandy, between Cotentin on the north, and Maine and Brittany on the south—so called, from Avranches, its capital. (Enc. Meth. 1782.)—P.

§ Built in 1121.
|| In 1203, the Bretons took it and demolished the fortifications, but they were afterwards rebuilt. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

¶ Situated on a rock projecting into the sea. (M. B.)—Partly built on a rock of difficult access, and partly in a plain around the harbour. (Moreri.)—P.

^k "The coasting-trade, the oyster-fishery, and particularly the cod fishery, enable it to carry on an active commerce."¹

¹ Constance, Coutance. (Moreri.)—P.

^m "Its original name was *Cosedia*; in the *Notitia Imperii*, it bears the name of *Constantia Castra*.*—*Cosedia*, a town of Gaul, in *Lugdunensis Secunda*. D'Anville places it on the sea coast to the north of *Constantia* (near Montgardon. *Tab. Geog. de la Gaule*.) (Enc. Meth.)—*Constantia* (Coutances.) (D'Anv. Enc. Meth.)—P.

* *Castra Constantia*. (Ammian. Marcell. L. XV.)

ⁿ "Le Cotentin" (Côtantin, Constantin. Moreri)—a maritime district of Lower Normandy, bounded by the sea on the north and west, and partly on the east, by Avranchin on the south, and by Bessin and the Bocage, (or the districts of Bayeux and Vire,) on the east; forming the promontory at the N. W. extremity of Normandy.—P.

^o It stands partly on a height, and partly in a plain, near the small river Siolé. (Enc. Meth.)—Situated on the Burd. (Moreri.)—P.

^p "The immense works, that were begun during the reign of Louis XVI., and continued under the imperial government, but which have

winter the thermometer is always five degrees higher than at Paris, a fact which tends to confirm what has been already said concerning the influence of the sea in modifying climate. The proximity of Cherbourg to Cape Hogue renders it very probable that it occupies the same position as the ancient *Corialum*. It bore the name of *Carasbur* in the tenth century;^a it was included at a later period in the appanage of Charles the Bad, who delivered it to the English, and it was the last conquest made by Charles the Seventh.^b The English, having made themselves masters of the town in 1756, plundered the inhabitants, razed the fortifications, and destroyed the harbour. It was more fortunately in 1815, for the Prussians attacked it without success. Cape Hogue or Hougue, the *Caput Oga* of the ancients, is about six leagues on the south-east of Cherbourg; it is mentioned in history on account of the naval engagement which took place between the French and English in 1692. Marshal Tourville had not more than forty-six ships, Admiral Russel commanded a fleet of more than ninety sail. The Frenchman fought gallantly during ten hours, and was at last completely defeated, but his science and courage extorted the admiration of his enemies.^c

been almost interrupted since 1813, have rendered Cherbourg a place of great importance, not only as a military and naval station (*place de guerre—port militaire*), but as a commercial town. Eight redoubts defend the town, while three forts and a large battery are placed in such a manner as to guard the entrance of the road. The depth of the latter, at low tide, is not less than forty feet. It is closed by a dike 1933 toises in length, of which the breadth at the base is forty toises, and at the summit fifteen. Although this dike was begun in the reign of Louis XVI., it is not yet entirely completed. Its progress has been obstructed by so many difficulties, that it may be regarded as a gigantic enterprise. They at first employed conical frames, 69 feet in height by 60 in diameter at their summit and 140 at their base; these were loaded with stones and sunk to the bottom, and the intervals between them filled up with loose stones; but the force of the sea overturned them, and it is only by means of accumulated masses of stone, that they have been able to resist the fury of the waves. 500,000 cubic toises of materials, consisting of loose stones and enormous blocks of granite and sandstone, have been employed for this purpose. The dike serves as a shelter to the vessels moored in the road. There was formerly at Cherbourg, only a harbour for merchant vessels, but a harbour for ships of war (*port militaire*) has been since excavated, sufficiently large to contain 50 sail of the line always afloat, even at the lowest tides. It is surrounded with storehouses and dockyards, in the last of which ships of the first class may be constructed. The town is irregularly built; the marine hospital is the only remarkable edifice, and the only monument worthy of notice is that of granite, on the parade (*place d'armes*), erected to commemorate the landing of the Duke of Berry in 1814.—The road is capable of holding 500 ships, and enormous sums of money have been expended in the attempt to construct a mole, by sinking cones to render it a secure station for line of battle ships, [i. e. to form what is now called a Breakwater.] This mole or dike crosses the entrance of the road, leaving a passage at each end 1000 feet wide, on which are block-houses and forts. In order to form a port for a fleet, Buonaparte had a basin cut in the solid rock, the bottom of which was sunk thirty feet below the level of the sea at low water. This work was finished in 1813, and opened in the presence of the Empress with an imposing ceremony. (Tuckey's Mar. Geog. v. ii. p. 17, 18.)—The excavation for the basin is 1000 feet long, 770 wide, and 50 deep. A wet dock of the same dimensions was begun by Buonaparte in 1813, and nearly completed in 1822, at which time it had cost, with the basin, the sum of nearly five millions sterling.—P.

^a "The proximity of Cherbourg to Cape La Hogue renders its position identical with that of *Coriallum*. It was called *Curasbur* in the tenth century, at which period it was fortified and commercial."—*Coriallum* is placed by D'Anville in the immediate vicinity of Cape La Hogue [at Havre de Gouril.] (Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc.)—Latin name of Cherbourg, *Cesaris Burgus* (Enc. Meth.) *Cesarisburgum*, *Caroburgum*, or *Caroburgus* (Moreri).—P.

^b A. D. 1453. (Moreri).—P.

^c "In 1753,* the English pillaged it, and destroyed the harbour and fortifications; but the Prussians tried in vain to get possession of it, in 1815. Cape La Hogue or La Hougue,† called *Caput Oga* by the ancients,‡ is about six leagues to the north-west of Cherbourg; it is celebrated for a naval engagement in 1692, in which Marshal Tourville, after having fought a whole day with 46 ships against an English fleet of 90 sail, was completely defeated, but not until he had exhibited pro-

Valognes is situated in a pleasant valley watered by the Merderet, at no great distance from *Alauna*, an ancient city now in ruins.^d Carentan, a place of 3000 inhabitants, is defended by a strong castle; it was formerly surrounded with fortifications that have fallen into decay. Saint Lo, the capital of the department, was the Celtic *Briovera*, which signifies *a bridge on the Vere* or *Vire*, the river that waters the town. *Saint Laudo* who was born there, had the honour of giving his name to his native city; he lived during the reign of Clovis, and became bishop of Coutances. The ancient cathedral of Saint Lo is a light and graceful building, and the church of the Holy Cross is certainly the finest monument of Saxon architecture in France. The town was one of the most populous in Normandy, before the province was conquered by Edward the Third; it has risen into importance of late years, it carries on a trade in cotton manufactures and hardwares.^e

The ship *Calvados* formed part of the fleet which Philip the Second sent against England in 1583; it was wrecked on the rocks that extend to the distance of six leagues between the mouths of the Vire and the Orne. The same rocks were afterwards called *Calvados*, and they have given

digies of science and valour which even extorted the admiration of his enemies.‡"

* The translator is wrong in his date of 1756. See Hume and Smollet, Jones' Ed. vol. II. p. 438.—P.

† Called also Cape La Hague. (Tuckey).—P.

‡ Latin name of Cape La Hogue (pronounced *La Hougue*, in the neighbourhood.) *Ogas* (Vitalis, 12th cent.), *Oggia* (Cenalis, 16th cent.), *Caput Oga* (Baudiand, 17th cent.), *Oga* (generally.) (Enc. Meth. Geog. Mod.)—P.

§ The French fleet under Tourville consisted of about 50 sail of the line. (Ed. Enc.)—The French fleet did not exceed 63 ships of the line. (Smollet's Hist. Eng. vol. VIII. p. 446, 3d Ed. 1769. Jones' Ed. vol. II. p. 26.)—French fleet 46 ships (Enc. Meth.) 44 ships (Beauvais).—Allied fleet, consisting of the English squadron under Admiral Russel, and three united Dutch squadrons, 99 ships of the line, besides frigates and fire ships. (Smollet, *ut supra*).—‡ he fleets hove in sight of each other at 3 o'clock A. M. May 19th, and the battle began about 8 o'clock A. M. and continued till 3 P. M., when the fleets were parted by a fog; but this abating, a chase commenced, and at 8 in the evening there was another brief engagement. (The battle lasted 12 hours. Beauvais.) May 2d, about half the French fleet were driven into La Hogue and destroyed, and the rest escaped through the Race of Aldeney.—P.

^d "The neat town of Valognes,* five leagues to the south-east of Cherbourg, is situated in a pleasant valley watered by the Merderet, at a little distance from the ruins of the ancient city of *Alauna*; it was the birthplace of Letourneur; and the celebrated physician Vicq-d'Azir.‡"

* Valogne.

† *Alauna*, Moutiers d'Alaune. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc.)—*Crociatonum*, Valognes. (D'Anv. Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc. Tab. de la Gaule.)—At Aleaume, near Valognes, are Roisan monuments, the remains of the ancient city of *Crociatonum*, the capital of the *Unelli*. (Vosgien).—*Crociatonum* is generally supposed to have occupied the site of Carentan. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc. *au mot*).—P.

‡ P. Le Tourneur, born at Valognes 1736, known by numerous translations from the English (Young's Night Thoughts, Ossian, Shakspeare, &c.)—P.

§ F. Vicq-d'Azir, born 1743, more particularly celebrated as an anatomist and physiologist.—P.

^e "Carentan, a town of three thousand inhabitants, defended by a strong castle, and surrounded with fortifications now in ruins, is situated in the midst of unhealthy marshes. St. Lo,* the capital of the department, is traversed by the Vire. It is supposed to have borne originally the name of *Briovera*, which signifies in Celtic, the bridge over the Vere,† or rather the Vire. The name which it bears at present is derived from St. Laudo, who was born during the reign of Clovis, and was afterwards bishop of Coutances.‡ The ancient cathedral of St. Lo is remarkable for its elegance and lightness, and the church of the Holy Cross (*église de Sainte-Croix*) is considered the best preserved of all the monuments of Saxon architecture in France. Before the conquest of Normandy by Edward III., this town was one of the most important in the province for its industry, and at present it contains numerous manufactories of stuffs (*tissus*)|| and is noted for its cutlery."

* "Saint Lô."—St. Lo (Enc. Meth. Savary.) St. Lô (Alm. Royal).—P.

† "Pont sur la Vère."—The river is now called the Vire. (Vosgien).—P.

‡ Some writers pretend that the town is of ancient origin, and that its earliest name was *Briovera*, composed of two words, *bria* or *briva*, a bridge, and *Vera*, the river Vire. But it is more probable that it owes its origin and its earliest name to a church built under the auspices of St. Lo (*Sanctus Laudus* or *Laudo*), bishop of Coutances, who was born in a castle there situated, and who lived under the successors of Clovis. (Enc. Meth.)—St. Lo was raised to the see of Coutances, A. D. 528. The reign of Clovis extended from 481 to 511. (Moreri).—P.

|| The term *tissu* is applied generally to all kinds of cloth (texture) woven by the shuttle in a loom, whatever be the materials. It is also applied particularly to a kind of coarse girth or webbing. (Savary).—St. Lo manufactures serges and shalloons (*serges, ras.*) (Enc. Meth.)—It has manufactories of cloths (*draps*.) stuffs (*laines*), galloons, thread and serges. (Vosgien).—P.

their name to a maritime department; they form during high tides a flat surface several hundred yards in length, and about thirty in breadth; sometimes, however, they are wholly concealed by the ocean. Calvados is bounded on the side of the continent by the departments of Manche, Orne and Eure; it yields rich harvests, it abounds in cattle, it is well supplied with coal.^a

Isigny^b rises on the bay in which the Vire throws itself into the channel; it possesses a small harbour, and carries on a considerable trade in the produce of the neighbouring country. The town contains only 2000 inhabitants, and it sends annually more than 3,600,000 pounds of butter into different parts of France.^c The country between Isigny and Bayeux, a distance of seven leagues, is covered with orchards, rich pastures and fruitful fields. The latter place was the ancient *Aragenus* or *Baiocasses*,^d which in the time of Cæsar, was surrounded with forests, and possessed a celebrated school under the direction of the Druids. A spacious and elegant street extends from one extremity of the town to the other, forming an exception to the rest, which are for the most part ill built. The cathedral, a fine Gothic edifice, is adorned with a magnificent portal, surmounted by three lofty towers: but the exterior is not the only part that fixes the attention; it has a treasury in which there are several curiosities, among the most remarkable of which, is the tapestry worked by queen Matilda, representing the exploits of William the Conqueror. Lace and porcelain are the principal articles manufactured in the town; it has given birth to the eloquent Alain Chartier and to Oliver Basselin, a lyric poet, celebrated as the inventor of the *Vau de Vire*; his lively songs were at first confined to the banks of the Vire, but having become fashionable at Paris, they were styled *vaudevilles*.^e Vire, so called from the river that waters it, was gradually built round the castle which dates

from the time of Philip Augustus.^f Condé sur Noireau,^g situated in a deep valley at the confluence of the Dronance and the Noireau, contains five thousand inhabitants, together with several cotton and linen manufactories.^h

A hill rises in a district covered with woods, fruit trees, and pastures; the Anté, a small river, flows below it, and Falaise, a Norman city, is built near the base.ⁱ The town is encompassed with three suburbs; Guibray, one of them, might be sufficient to render it a place of celebrity, for two very important fairs^j are held there every year, the first of which begins on the tenth, and lasts to the twenty-fifth of August, while the other continues eight days from the eighth of September; an immense number of horses are sold during the first fair;^k the second is set apart for the sale of cattle and different articles of merchandise. In the same suburb are situated the remains of a strong castle with a tower in a good state of preservation; it was the birthplace of William the Conqueror.^l An excellent road leads from the town to the capital of the department.

It is vain to determine the time in which Caen was built: it does not appear to be very ancient, but the date of the foundation is unknown. It was formerly encompassed with walls, and flanked with twenty towers: many of the streets are broad and adorned with well built houses; the public buildings are imposing, and such is the excellent quality of the stone in the neighbouring quarries, that Caen may in time become one of the finest towns in France. The Royal Place forms a large square; the townhouse, a simple and elegant edifice, rises at one extremity, and a public walk extends round the centre, which is adorned with a bronze statue of Lewis the Fourteenth. The abbey church is finer in point of architecture than any in Caen, within it are contained the tombs of William the Conqueror by whom it was built, and of his wife Matilda.^m The town is chiefly impor-

^a "A chain of rocks that extends from east to west, to the distance of six leagues, between the mouths of the Vire and the Orne, derived its name of Calvados* from the wreck of a ship of that name, which formed part of the fleet that Philip II. sent against England in 1588.† In high tides, these rocks present above the water only a flat surface of a few hundred metres in length by about thirty in breadth, and sometimes even entirely disappear. They have given their name to a maritime department,‡ bounded on the land side by the departments of the Channel, the Orne and the Eure, and important from its corn, cattle, coal mines§ and manufactures."

* *Le Calvados*.

† Not 1553, as in the translation. See Hume's Eng. p. 510—13, Jones' Ed.—P.

‡ Département de Calvados (*département du Calvados*).—P.

§ There are mines of coal and iron in the department. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^b Isigni. (Vosgien.)

^c "At the bottom of the bay, in which the Vire enters the Channel in the midst of shifting sands, Isigny possesses a small port and carries on a considerable commerce in the products of its territory, noted for the goodness of its cider and the excellent quality of its butter, of the last of which it exports annually more than 1,600,000 kilogrammes; it has a population of only 2000 inhabitants."—Isigny is situated at the mouth of the Vire (Vosgien)—at the confluence of the Esques with the Vire, eight miles from the sea; vessels of 8 or 9 feet draft go up to it with the tide (Tuckey. vol. II. p. 16.)—The Vire becomes navigable at St. Lô, leaves Isigni on the right, receives the river Esque and then falls into the Channel, where it forms a small bay (*gulf*), fordable at low tides. (Vosgien.)—P.

^d The name of *Aragenus*, which belonged to the little river Aure [on which Bayeux is situated,] as well as to the city of the *Bajocasses*, has been replaced by that of Bayeux. (D'Anv.)—The people who anciently inhabited the diocese of Bayeux, are supposed to have been the *Belloassi*, mentioned by Cæsar (L. VII. § 69.) Bayeux has been variously named by Latin authors, *Bajocæ*, *Bajocassium* *Civitas*, *Julio-bona* *Biducassium*, and *Bajocum*. Gregory of Tours calls the people who inhabited it the *Baiocassini*, and Ausonius (Carm. 4th) the *Baiocasses*. (Moreri.)—The *Belloassi*, of Cæsar, have been confounded by some authors with the *Velocasses*, but the latter inhabited the territory of Cassel in Flanders. (Cæsar. Edit. Scalig. Elzev. 1635—Nomenclator Geographicus A. Ortelii adj.)—P.

* Tu Baiocassis stirpe Druidorum satus,
Si fama non fallit fidem,

Belani sacratum ducis e templo genus—

Ausonii Commemoratio Professorum Burdigalensium, IV. Attius Paterna.—P.

^e "It gave birth to Alain Chartier, the father of French eloquence, and to Oliver Basselin, no less celebrated for having invented the *Vau-de-Vire*, a kind of satirical song, first confined to the banks of the Vire, but which having become fashionable in the capital, took the name of Vaudeville."—Alain Chartier, born at Bayeux 1386, was called in his time, the father of French eloquence (*Père de l'éloquence française*). (Beauvais.)—O. Basselin, a fuller of Vire in the 15th cent., composed many convivial songs (*chansons à boire*), which he sung at the foot of a hill, called the Vaux, on the banks of the Vire, whence they took the name of *Vaux-de-Vire*, afterwards corrupted into *Vaudeville*. (Dict. Hist. Caen. Beauvais.)—The Vaudeville originated in the valleys (*vaux*) of the Vire. (Vosgien.)—Vaudevilles are short comic dramas, with a song (the Vaudeville) every few minutes—performed more particularly at the Theatre Vaudeville in Paris.—P.

^f "—is a neat town, which in the time of Philip Augustus was only a castle." ^g Condé sur Nereau. (Moreri.)

^h "—together with a great number of cotton mills (*filatures de coton*) and manufactories of different stuffs (*tissus*)."—It has manufactories of serges, particularly the kind called *lingettes* (Savary)—cloths (*draps*) (Enc. Meth.)—P.

ⁱ "Falaise, a long and narrow town of Norman origin, is built on a hill near the banks of the small river Anté, in the midst of a territory covered with woods, pastures and fruit trees."—It rises on an eminence in the form of a ship, and its castle, which is built on a rock, occupies the place of the stern. (Moreri.)—It derives its name from its position on a rock [*falaise*, a bluff.] (Enc. Meth.—Its situation resembles that of the old town of Edinburgh.—P.

^j "—two of the largest fairs in Europe."—The fair of Guibray is the most celebrated in the kingdom after that of Beaucaire. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^k "The first is noted for the sale of fine horses (*chevaux de luxe*)." ^l William the Conqueror was born in the castle of Falaise, A. D. 1027.—P.

^m "The *Place Royale** is a spacious and regular square; the townhouse, a simple and elegant edifice, rises at one extremity, while the centre, which serves as a promenade, is adorned with a bronze statue of Louis XIV.† The churches are not at all remarkable, with the sin-

tant on account of an university, a botanical garden, a public library of forty thousand volumes, and a very valuable collection of natural history. It possesses also an academy of science and belles-lettres, Linnean, antiquarian and agricultural societies; the transactions which are published every year, attest the zeal and knowledge of the members.^a The celebrated Lamouroux, by whose premature death science sustained no ordinary loss, occupied a few years since, the chair of natural history in the university.^b The town has given birth to Malherbe, Segrais, Malfilatre^c and Huet, bishop of Avranches. It stands in a fruitful and pleasant valley, at the confluence of the Odon and the Orne; activity reigns in its small harbour, and a public walk, remarkable for its beauty,^d is bounded on one side by verdant meadows, and on the other by the river. If it be added that the inhabitants are alike distinguished by their knowledge and industry, it cannot be wondered that the good effects of their example extend to most places in Normandy.

The remaining towns in the department are comparatively of little importance. Lisieux^e is encompassed with ditches and old walls;^f it was formerly the capital of a diocese,^g in which the first bishop was Litarde, who flourished in the sixth century.^h There is reason to believe that it occupies the site of *Noviomagus*, a Celtic city, and it is certain that it

is the only exception of that of the abbey of St. Stephen,† in which are contained the tombs of William the Conqueror, by whom it was founded, and of his wife Matilda. Among the other public buildings, the ancient strong castle, which formed part of the fortifications built by that prince, and a large hospital, are also deserving of attention."

* Royal Square. † An equestrian statue, in a Roman habit. (Ed. Encyc.)
† L'Abbaye aux Hommes.—There were two abbeys in Caen, viz. that for men (*Abbaye aux Hommes*, Enc. Meth.—*St. Etienne de Caen*, Moreri.) and that for women (*Abbaye aux Dames*, Enc. Meth.—*St. Trinité*, Moreri)—the former founded by William the Conqueror, and the latter by his wife Matilda.—P.

^a "The town is chiefly important as the seat of a university, in connexion with which it possesses a botanical garden, a public library containing 40,000 volumes, a cabinet of natural history at the town-house, remarkable for its extent and arrangement,^{*} and also several learned societies, viz. the academy of sciences and belles-lettres, the Linnean society, the society of antiquaries and that of agriculture; the memoirs published annually by these societies, attest the zeal and knowledge of their members."—The university was first founded in 1431 by Henry VI. of England, for the study of civil and canon law; the faculties of theology and the arts were added in 1436, and that of medicine in 1437. (Ed. Encyc.)—The academy [university] of Caen consists of three faculties, viz. those of law, sciences and letters. There is also a royal college [lyceum] at Caen. (Alm. Royal.)—P.

* The collections of Lamouroux, which were very complete and extensive, particularly in marine productions (animal and vegetable,) are now deposited in the museum of Caen.—P.

^b J. J. N. Huot, Notice sur la vie et les travaux de J. V. F. Lamouroux (Annales des Sciences Naturelles, t. V.)—[Lamouroux died at Caen in 1825.—P.]

^c Three distinguished French poets—Malherbe born 1555, Segrais 1624, and Malfilatre 1733.—P.

^d "—a fine promenade called the Course (*Cours*.)"

^e "Lisieux."

^f The edifices most worthy of attention, are the cathedral and the episcopal palace, the last of which is noted for a fine staircase. M. B

^g Suppressed during the revolution.—P.

^h Present at the first council of Orleans, A. D. 511. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

ⁱ "It bore among the ancients the name of *Noviomagus*, which was afterwards exchanged for that of *Lixovium*."—*Noviomagus*, afterwards *Lexovii*, Lisieux. (D'Anv. Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc.)—The Latin names of Lisieux are, *Civitas Lexoviorum* s. *Lixoviorum*, *Lexovium* and *Lixovium*. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Mod.)—*Lexobii* (Cæsar. edit. Maittaire.) *Lexovii* (Pliny.) *Lexobii* or *Lexovii* (Strabo.) *Lexubii* (Ptolemy.) was the name of the people, afterwards that of their capital.—*Neomagus*, the capital of the *Lexubii* (Ptolemy.)—*Lixovium* does not occur in either of these ancient authors. It is the modern Latin name of Lisieux.—P.

^j "It is the centre of an extensive manufacture of linens (*toiles*), blankets (*couvertures*) and ribbons (*rubans*), which furnishes employment to more than 3,000 workmen."—It has manufactories of linens and flannels (Vosgien)—linens, particularly *cretannes* [see note ^b ¶ p. 1003.] and woollen stuffs (*serges*, *frocs*.) (Savary.)—The term *couvertures*, without qualification, is used for woollen blankets, by Savary. (It is now also used for cotton coverlets.) He observes that Normandy is

was one of the places that the Romans called *Lixovium*.¹ It carries on at present a considerable trade in linen, cotton stuffs and ribbons, a trade which furnishes employment to three thousand workmen.² The inhabitants of Pont l'Évêque^k are engaged in the same sort of industry, but it is thinly peopled and ill built.¹

The heights above Honfleur are covered with lofty trees, but a vista reveals the rich country in the neighbourhood—the embouchure of the Seine, and the sea that bounds the horizon. The town itself is an irregular assemblage of dirty houses, and the most frequented church is built of wood. Two pharos direct vessels to the harbour; although it is small, the commercial intercourse between Honfleur and Havre, and the equipments necessary for the herring, cod and mackerel fisheries, render it the scene of much activity and confusion. But the port was once more flourishing than at present; some distinguished navigators were born there; it was from Honfleur that Chinot-Palmier and captain Gonnevillle departed in the sixteenth century on their voyages of discovery. The town is called *Honnefleu* in several old charts, a name which, according to an antiquary of some celebrity, signifies in northern languages a hamlet on a small gulf; the etymology, it must be admitted, accords with the position.^m ⁿ

one of the provinces in which blankets are manufactured in greatest quantity.—P

^k Pont-l'Évêque. (Moreri.)

¹ "Pont-l'Évêque, although a town of less interest than the preceding, carries on, however, a considerable manufacture of linens (*toiles*), but it is poorly peopled and ill built."—Population about 2000.—P.

^m From *ham*, hamlet, and *fluct*, a small gulf. See Notice des Gaules by Valois.

ⁿ "The traveller on the road from Pont-l'Évêque to Honfleur, cannot fail to admire the fine prospect that presents itself at the extremity of the high plateau which commands the latter: he finds himself surrounded by woods, but through a vista that serves to heighten the beauty of the landscape, he perceives at a distance the mouth of the Seine, the sea stretching to the horizon, and the houses of Honfleur rising along the declivity of the *Côte de Grâce*, the summit of which is shaded with trees, and crowned by a chapel held in veneration by mariners. The town is irregular and dirty, and the most frequented church is built of wood; but the harbour, which can receive only 30 ships, and the entrance to which is pointed out by two light-houses (*phares*), exhibits a great degree of activity from its constant intercourse with Havre, its general commerce, and its herring, whiting^o and mackerel fisheries. The port was formerly more flourishing than at present; it has supplied France with many good seamen (*marins*.) It was from Honfleur, in the 16th century, that Chinot-Palmier, and a few years afterwards, Captain Gonnevillle, departed for the discovery of the *Terra Australis*.¹ The town is designated in old charters (*chartes*) by the name of *Honnefleu*, the root of which signifies in the northern languages, a hamlet on a small gulf—an etymology that appears to be very probable.²"

^o "Merlan"—*Godus Merlangus*, Linn.—P.

¹ Chinot-Palmier, a gentleman of the vicinity, who in 1503 first discovered the *Terra Australis*, which he called the Southern Indies (*Indes Meridionales*), sailed on his voyage from the port of Honfleur. (Enc. Meth.)—N. Binot Paulmier de Gonnevillle, born at Honfleur about the middle of the 15th cent., was employed in 1505 to conduct an expedition to the East Indies. On his return he pretended to have discovered a country (*terre australe*) beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which has never yet been revisited. He brought with him a son of the king of the country, named Essomerie, whom he constituted his heir. The Abbé Paulmier de Gonnevillle, great grandson of Essomerie, published an account of his discovery in 1663. (Beauvais.)—Burney supposes the country discovered by him, to have been Madagascar—others New Holland, or even New Zealand. Essomerie married into the family of the Sieur de Gonnevillle, whence his descendant, the Abbé, derived his name. In 1738, M. Lozier Bouvet sailed from L'Orient, in search of the land discovered by Gonnevillle; and Jan. 1, 1739, discovered the island of *Cap de la Circoncision*, in 54° 20' S., and 25° 47' E. from the meridian of Teneriffe (13° 6' E. from Greenwich.) (Burney's Hist. of Voyages and Discov. in the S. Sea. Vol. I. p. 378—9. Vol. III. p. 275—7. Vol. V. p. 31—4.)—It is obvious from this statement, that the Chinot Paulmier of the Enc. Meth. is the Binot Paulmier de Gonnevillle of Beauvais (the Sieur de Gonnevillle of Burney), and that the compiler of the original (M. B.) has bisected his long name, and thus made two separate navigators and two distinct voyages, where there should be but one only. A fine parallel to this mistake may be found in the *Dict. Hist. et Biograph. de Prudhomme*, in which the Abbé Paulmier de Gonnevillle is called the Abbe Paul Myer. Such writers as these seem to think that one name, and even half a name, is enough for one man.—P.

² "From *ham*, hamlet, and *fluct*, a small bay (*golfe*). See Valois, Notice des Gaules."—[Honfleur is called in old documents (*titres*.) *Honnefleu* and *Honneflotum*; this name, according to M. de Valois, *Not. Gall.* p. 241, * is derived from *ham* a village or hamlet, and *fluct* or *flot*, written *riet* in the Low Countries,† which signifies a small bay (*golfe de mer*.) (Enc. Meth.)—P.]

The distance by sea from Honfleur to Havre^a is not more than three leagues, and steam vessels sail from the one place to the other in less than an hour.^b The first object that a stranger observes on entering the port of Havre, is the tower of Francis the First, an old building connected with the fortifications that were erected by the same prince; it serves at present as a station to watch the approach of ships.^c Three basins communicate with the harbour; it is defended by a citadel, and the whole town is surrounded with bastions. The streets in the Old Quarter are sufficiently regular, but the houses are ill built; the New Quarter extends along the basin of Ingouville, and it accords better with the commerce of the port, which has constantly increased since the peace. But the finest part of Havre fronts the iron works and the dock yards; a large court planted with trees forms a public walk, and well built quays or spacious streets traverse the town from the gate of Ingouville to the harbour.^d It may be remarked, however, that the public buildings correspond ill with the wealth of the inhabitants; the customhouse is a very large edifice, but the townhouse, the subprefecture, the exchange, the court-house^e and the two churches are very ordinary in point of architecture. The town has produced a few distinguished men, but it was the birthplace of Bernardin de St. Pierre.^f Many country houses are situated near the suburb of Ingouville which contains five thousand inhabitants. Two light-houses are erected on the hill behind Havre at the extremity of the ridge that forms Cape Heve; ^g they were built to indicate during the night the dangers of the coast.

A fruitful valley extends from the northern extremity of the same ridge to the sea, and terminates at Fecamp,^h a town of eight thousand inhabitants; it possesses several cotton manufactories,ⁱ and equips a number of vessels for the cod fisheries. Another valley on the south of it, perhaps the most picturesque of any in the department, is watered by the Bolbec, a small river, that has given its name to an industrious town of seven thousand inhabitants, who carry on a trade in muslin and different manufactures.^j Before the river falls into the Seine, it passes by Lillebonne,^k a burgh that stands on the site of the ancient city of *Julio-Bona*,^l the

importance of which is attested by the ruins of three Roman ways, and by recent excavations that have led to the discovery of a theatre and of several statues and other objects of antiquity.

Caudebec was formerly the capital of Caux,^m a small country in which agriculture has attained a high degree of perfection, and in which every house, surrounded by trees of different kinds, contributes so much to adorn the landscape, that the country watered by the Seine from Havre to Rouen, may vie with the vaunted banks of the Loire. Caudebec was a very flourishing town before the revocation of the edict of Nantes; it was almost ruined in consequence of that impolitic measure, and although it still possesses a convenient harbour, the population does not exceed three thousand souls.ⁿ It is situated in the district^o of Yvetot, a small town^p of which the lords, before the reign of Louis the Eleventh, were styled kings by their vassals.

Rouen is situated in a fine valley enclosed by chalk hills, and covered with verdant meadows or cultivated fields. The Seine flows through the same valley, and waters several islands; the ramparts of the town rise above the river, and the port is crowded with vessels of every nation. A modern bridge leads to the suburb of St. Severe, part of which is formed by large barracks and an open space that is reserved for military exercises. The town may be enriched by the commerce and industry of the inhabitants, but many of the streets are disfigured by wooden houses, and almost all of them are crooked; those of a very recent date form the only exception. Although Rouen is not remarkable for modern edifices, it possesses several monuments of the middle ages; St. Ouen, an old church, equally worthy of notice for the architecture and the beauty of the painted windows, the cathedral of which the steeple was lately destroyed by fire, the linen market, an old and large building, and the court of justice, an elegant Gothic edifice are those perhaps which have been most admired; it may be remarked too, that the infirmary is larger than any other in France. The inhabitants are devoted to trade, but they possess a collection of valuable paintings, a library of forty thousand volumes, a good botanical garden, schools of med-

* Adrian de Valois, *Notitia Galliarum*, 1695, fol. (Beauvais.)

† *Fleet*, a stream, river. (Wilcocke.)—*Vie*, although not found in the common Dutch dictionaries (Kilianus, Hatma, Wilcocke) is also used by the Dutch for an inlet (as in the *Vie-Stream*) or for a tide creek, as the *Vie* in New York, which gave name to the Fly Market. Fleet Street in London is so called from having been built over a fleet or creek which there opened into the Thames.—Ang. Sax. *fleet*, an arm of the sea, a place where the tide flows, a bay or road; also, a river, or running stream. (Somner's Ang. Sax. Dict.)—P.

^a "Le Havre"—Le Havre (Alm. Royal.) Havre de Grace—Le Havre de Grâce (*Portus Gratia*), so named from an ancient chapel adjoining.—P.

^b "The time of high water approaches; the vessels aground in the harbour, rise slowly with the tide; the quicksands that render the mouth of the Seine so dangerous, disappear beneath the waves; the bell of the steam-boat warns the traveller who wishes to cross to Havre that the hour of departure has arrived; and in less than an hour, after a passage of about three leagues, he is landed at Havre, next to Rouen, the most important town" in the department of the Lower Seine." The general view of the department, p. 1010, ought regularly to be placed before the description of Havre; but it has been displaced by the itinerary form of the original.—P.

^c "Chef-lieu"—capital of an *arrondissement*.

^d "—as a signal station."

^e "Three basins communicate with the harbour, which is defended by the citadel, while the town itself is surrounded with bastions. The town is divided into two sections, namely, the Old Quarter, in which the streets are quite regular, but ill built, and the New Quarter, that borders the basin of Ingouville, in which the beauty and regularity of the buildings correspond with the high degree of commercial importance that the port has enjoyed since the peace. It is particularly in front of the marine arsenal (*forges de la marine*) and the mast-houses (*ateliers de la mâture*.) that the interior of Havre presents the most imposing aspect: an elegant square planted with trees and forming a promenade within the walls, a fine quay, a spacious street that traverses the city

from the gate of Ingouville to the harbour, the front of the new theatre, the coffee houses and the private mansions are there exhibited to the best advantage."

^f "Tribunal."—Havre has a *tribunal de première instance* and a *tribunal de commerce*. (Alm. Royal.)—P.

^g Havre was the birthplace of the Scuderys (George and Magdalen,) the former of some distinction in his day as a poet, and the latter still celebrated for her voluminous romances; also of the Countess La Fayette, the novelist.—P.

^h "After passing through the suburb of Ingouville, which contains several fine country houses and 5000 inhabitants, and after having climbed the declivity (*côte*) on which it is situated, the traveller perceives at the extremity of the plateau that terminates in Cape La Heve (*Cap de la Hève*.) two light-houses constructed in a style of elegant architecture."

ⁱ "At the northern extremity of the plateau, a pleasant valley descends to the sea and terminates at the port of Fecamp" [Fescamp. Enc. Meth.]—P.

^j "Manufactories of *cotonnades*."

^k "Another valley to the south of the former, and one of the most picturesque imaginable, is watered by the small river Bolbec, which traverses a neat town of the same name, enriched by its cotton mills (*filatures*) and its calicoes (*indiennes*), and with a population of 7000 inhabitants."

^l Islebonne (Moreri.) *Juliobona*. (D'Anv.)

^m "Le Pays de Caux."—Caux or Pays de Caux. (Moreri.)—It occupies the triangular point between the Channel and the Seine.—P.

ⁿ "Caudebec stands in an agreeable situation, at the foot of a woody hill, on the banks of the Seine. Before the revocation of the edict of Nantes, it was very flourishing; at present, although its population does not exceed 3000 souls, it derives great advantages from the convenient position of its harbour." ^o "Arrondissement."

^p "—a neat town (*jolie ville*.)"—Population 9853.—P.

icine and pharmacy, two theatres, an academy of sciences and belles-lettres, an agricultural and antiquarian society. It has produced some great men, among others Fontenelle and the two Corneilles; the modest house that the latter inhabited may still be seen in the street of La Pie. The etymology of Rouen has given rise to different opinions, some antiquaries derive the name of the ancient capital of Normandy from the small river of Robec, the Latin *Rotobecum*; others believe it to have been so called from *Rotho*, an idol which they affirm, the *Veliocassi* adored. It might be difficult to form a correct opinion on the subject, but it is certain that *Rothomagus* was a very insignificant place in the time of Cæsar, the Roman general does not mention it, and the first notice of it appears in the geography of Ptolemy. It fell into the power of the English in 1419, they kept possession of it during twenty years. It was in 1431 that several prelates, rebels to their lawful king, deaf to the voice of patriotism, instruments in the hands of foreigners, judged and put to death the heroine who saved her country. A statue of Joan d'Arc, afterwards erected on the market

a "Whether we arrive at Rouen by the road from Yvetot or by that from Paris, its position in a magnificent valley, formed by chalk hills covered with cultivated fields and pastures (*prés*); the broad current of the Seine, which bathes several islands and flows in the midst of fertile meadows (*prairies*); the boulevards that border the river as it passes by the city;* the spacious quays; the port filled with ships of all nations; the fine bridge of stone that leads to the suburb of St. Sever;† the extensive barracks which occupy a wide space between that suburb and the left bank of the Seine; and the activity that prevails in every quarter; all combine to give the most favourable idea of its opulence and industry. Most of the streets, however, with the exception of a few that have been recently built, are disfigured by wooden houses, and nearly all of them are irregular and crooked (*mal alignées*).‡ Although Rouen is not remarkable for its modern edifices, it possesses many interesting monuments of the middle ages. Passing by several fountains of that period, we may mention the church of the former abbey of St. Ouen,‡ equally worthy of notice from its architecture and its magnificent painted windows; the cathedral, the spire of which was lately destroyed by fire,|| but is now rebuilding;§ the linen market (*halle aux toiles*), an old and extensive edifice; and the palace of justice (*palais de justice*),¶ a Gothic building remarkable for its elegance. The hospital (*Hôtel-Dieu*) is one of the largest in the kingdom. Although the inhabitants of Rouen are devoted to trade and manufactures,** it possesses, however, a museum rich in excellent paintings, a library of 40,000 volumes, a fine botanical garden, two theatres, an academy of sciences, arts and belles lettres, a central society of agriculture, a free society of emulation (*société libre d'émulation*), a society of medicine and one of pharmacy, another society destined to promote the progress of commerce and industry, and lastly, a commission charged with the investigation and description of antiquities. It was the birthplace of Fontenelle and the two Corneilles, and the modest dwelling inhabited by the latter may still be seen in the street of La Pie (*Rue de la Pie*).†† Various opinions have been entertained with regard to the etymology of the original name of Rouen:‡‡ some derive it from the small river Robec, called in Latin *Rotobecum*, while others trace it from the idol *Rotho*, said to have been worshipped by the *Veliocassus*.||| § § However it may be, it cannot be doubted that *Rothomagus* was a place of little importance in the time of Cæsar, for no mention of it occurs in his writings, and the first notice of it appears in the geography of Ptolemy. It is well known that it fell into the power of the English in 1419, and that they kept possession of it during twenty years,¶¶ and also that in 1431, while acting under the influence of foreigners, several prelates, rebels to their lawful king, and deaf to the voice of patriotism, tried and condemned to death the heroine who had saved her country.*** A statue of Joan of Arc, erected in the market-place, is an evidence of the esteem with which her memory is now regarded."

* The Cours.—The beautiful promenade of the Cours on the banks of the river. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

† The bridge of boats over the Seine, which rests on nineteen large barges, rising and falling with the tide, was to be replaced by a handsome bridge of stone, which must now be nearly finished. (Ed. Encyc. 1829.)—The construction of the new bridge was in progress as early as 1820. (Morse.)—It was one of the public works (extraordinary) under the direction of the general commission of civil engineers (*Direction générale des Ponts et Chaussées*), in 1822. (Alm. Royal.)—The old bridge of boats was paved with stone, and occasionally opened for the passage of vessels. It was also removed almost every winter, to prevent injury from the ice in the river. (Vosgien. Enc. Meth.)—There was formerly a bridge of stone at Rouen, but it was destroyed in the 16th century. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

‡‡ L'ancienne église de St. Ouen.—The finest churches in Rouen, are the cathedral of Notre Dame, the abbey-church of St. Ouen, the parish church of St. Maclou, and the church belonging to the college of the Jesuits. (Moreri.)—The abbey, which bears the name of St. Ouen, and which belongs to the reformed Benedictines, enjoys a revenue of more than 80,000 livres. (Enc. Meth.)—The church of St. Maclou

place, proves that her memory is revered in the town where she was unjustly condemned.^a

Elbeuf^b is situated about four leagues to the south of Rouen, in a pleasant valley watered by the Seine;^c it is a place of considerable importance from its cloth manufactories, which furnish employment to eight thousand workmen.^d Gournay carries on a great trade in butter; several mineral springs rise in the neighbourhood; the houses round one of them—the fountain of Jouvence, form a small town of three thousand five hundred inhabitants.^e Aumale, the ancient *Albemarle*, is an ill-built town on the north of Jouvence; it is enclosed by large meadows, and watered by the Bresle, on which a bridge has been erected; the two columns at one extremity indicate the place where Henry the Fourth was wounded by a shot from an arquebuse during the battle that was fought against the troops of the League.^f No town of any consequence can be mentioned in the district of Neuf-Châtel, a district that supplies many parts of France with excellent cheese;^g leaving it on the right,^h we may proceed to Dieppe, a well-built city, in which there are six public

is much admired, and also that of St. Ouen, which is a fine Gothic structure near the centre of the city. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

§ Destroyed by lightning.

¶ The spire is to be formed of cast iron See page 1002, art. Foundry at Conches.—P.

¶ Parliament house. (Ed. Encyc.)—Rouen, before the revolution, had a parliament of its own, one of the first in the kingdom; originally, the sovereign court of the dukes of Normandy.—P.

** Rouen has long been one of the principal manufacturing cities in France. Coarse cottons are made there to a great extent, and finer ones have been making great progress. Woollen and linen goods are also manufactured, together with wax cloth, paper, hats, pottery and hardware. The dyeing of cotton and woollen has been long carried on to a great extent, and there are several sugar refineries. It has been estimated that 50,000 of its population* are employed in manufactures, and that the annual value of its industry is about £2,000,000 sterling. (Ed. Encyc.)—Rouen is the principal seat of the cotton manufacture in France—it has been called not inapty the Manchester of France. (Ed. Encyc. art. France.)—P.

* Population 90,000. M. E.

†† It was also the birthplace of Basnage (History of the Jews,) Bochart, Brumoy (Greek Theatre,) Father Daniel (History of France,) Lemery (the chemist,) St. Amand and Pradon (poets satirized by Boileau,) Sanadon (the translator of Horace,) Madame Dubocage (the poetess,) and J. P. Blondel (History of French Architecture.)—P.

‡‡ *Rothomagus*.—*Rotomagus*. (D'Anv.)

||| *Veliocassus*. (D'Anv. Cæsar. De Bell. Gall. II. §4. Edit. Scaliger. 1635, Elzev.)—P. § § It cannot be doubted that the ancient name of Rouen (*Rothomagus*) was of Celtic origin; but its etymology is uncertain. Some derive it from the idol *Rotho*, there worshipped, and from *magus* or *magum*, which signifies a town, in Celtic: others adopt the same word *magus*, and unite it with the two first syllables of *Rotobecum*, the Latin name of the small river Robec, which flows by Rouen. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

¶¶ The English held possession of Rouen from 1418 to 1449 (Moreri)—consequently about 30 years.—Normandy was conquered from the English in the space of about a year from July 1449, at which time it was invaded by four French armies. (Rankin's Hist. of France. Vol. V. p. 100.)—P.

*** She was burnt in the old market place of Rouen, May 30, 1431 (Rankin's Hist. Vol. V. p. 77, 80)—May 30, 1430 (Moreri.)—P.

^b Elbeuf. (Vosgien.)

^c "—on the left bank of the Seine."

^d "—which in a population of 10,000 souls, furnish employment to 8000 workmen."

^e "Gournay, a town on the eastern limits of the department, which carries on a great trade in butter, and which also possesses several mineral springs, one of them called the fountain of Jouvence, is surrounded by pleasant boulevards and agreeably situated on the banks of the Epte; it contains 3500 inhabitants and possesses a public library."

^f "Aumale, formerly called Albemarle,* an ill built town to the north of Gournay, is situated in the midst of large meadows (*une vaste prairie*) watered by the Bresle; two columns at the extremity of the bridge which crosses the river, indicate the place where Henry IV. was wounded by a shot from an arquebuse in the battle that he fought before the town with the troops of the League."

* Aumale or Albemarle (Vosgien.) Lat. *Albamala* (Moreri.) Aumale or Albemarle, Lat. *Alba-Marla* (Enc. Meth.)—It was called Albemarle when in possession of the English, and from it the Earls of Albemarle took their title. The title was first conferred by William the Conqueror on Stephen son of Odo, descended from the counts of Champagne. The present title was conferred on Arnold Van Keppel by William III.—P.

† It is situated on the declivity of a hill, on the borders of a meadow (*prairie*) watered by the Bresle. (Enc. Meth.)

‡ "Neuf-Châtel, the capital of an arrondissement,* is only noted for its excellent cheese."—Excellent cheese is made at Neufhâtel en Bray, the capital of an arrondissement (subprefecture) in the department of the Lower Seine. (Vosgien.)

*** La sous-préfecture de Neuf-Châtel.—This merely refers to the town of Neuf-Châtel, not to the arrondissement. Gournay and Aumale are situated in the arrondissement of Neufchâtel (Alm. Royal.)—P.

^h The principal route from Aumale to Dieppe passes through Neuf-châtel, but the direct line from Aumale to Dieppe passes to the north

squares and not fewer than sixty-eight fountains, the last of which are fed by a brick aqueduct more than a league in length. The harbour is safe and commodious, but the entrance is narrow; although the inhabitants clean it at regular intervals by opening the sluices of a basin which was built for the purpose, it is often encumbered with the gravel that the sea accumulates.^{a b} The battle of Arques, in which Henry the Fourth defeated the duke of Mayenne, was fought in the neighbourhood. The navigators that discovered Canada, and the first Frenchmen that founded commercial stations on the coasts of Africa, set sail from Dieppe.

The department of the Lower Seine is one of the most commercial in France; the products of the fisheries are equivalent to five millions of francs or to more than £.208,300; the value of the cotton manufactures amounts to thirty-five millions or nearly £.1,500,000; all the other manufactures have been estimated at seventy millions or £.3,125,000.^c As a proof that agriculture is in a very improved state, it may be mentioned that not more than a sixteenth part of all the arable land remains fallow.^d

The department of the Somme consists of the chalky plains watered by the Somme and its feeders. The soil of these plains is for the most part fruitful; corn, flax and hemp are cultivated, and the inhabitants rear a great many cattle and sheep, the breeding of the last of which is a branch of industry too much neglected in France. The country, it must be admitted, is ill supplied with wood, but the valleys abound in peats, which make up in some measure for the deficiency of other combustibles.

The small port of St. Valery^e is situated at the mouth of the Somme; three or four hundred vessels enter it every

of Neufchâtel, consequently leaving it on the left. The route from Gournay to Dieppe passes to the south of Neufchâtel, and consequently leaves it on the right. See *Tableau des Postes de France*—also Atlas of the Society of Useful Knowledge: France in departments, No. 1.—P.

^a "The harbour is safe; but its narrow entrance is liable to be obstructed by the pebbles which the sea accumulates, notwithstanding the care that is taken to remove them by opening the sluices of a basin reserved for the purpose."—Dieppe is situated at the mouth of the Bethune, where it receives the Arques. Its harbour dries at low water, but has three fathoms and a half at high water; it is in the form of a semicircle, and is enclosed by two fine moles of strong brickwork about half a mile long. Dieppe is largely engaged in the home and foreign fisheries; a regular line of packet-boats sails from it to Brighton, a distance of 66 miles. (Tuckey, vol. II. p. 14. Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^b The celebrity given to it by the Dutchess of Berry, as a place of resort for sea-bathing, attracts to the town a great concourse of strangers. M. B. (1829.)—This was written a year too early.—P. (1831.)

^c "The fisheries produce about 5,000,000 francs, cotton spinning 35,000,000, and the manufacture of Rouen goods (*rouenneries*) 70,000,000."—Reckoning the franc at 10½ d. sterling, which is not far from its real value, these three sums will be respectively equal to £.210,937. 10s., £.1,476,562. 10s., and £.2,953, 125.—P.

* Rouen cottons and linens.

^d *Annuaire Statistique de la Seine Inférieure.*

^e St. Valeri, St. Vallery.

^f The forces assembled by William at the mouth of the small river Dive [in the department of Calvados] consisted of a fleet of 3000 vessels, great and small, and an army of 60,000 men. Several of the vessels were lost, however, in his passage along the coast to St. Valeri [St. Valeri] where he was detained for some time by contrary winds, before his final departure for England. (Hume's England, p. 43, Jones' Ed.)—P.

^g "Abbeville is traversed by the Somme."—The Somme, which there separates itself into several branches, divides the town into two parts. (Ed. Encyc.)—Some of the branches into which the Somme divides itself flow through the town, and some without. (Moréri.)—P.

^h "Place de guerre."—The fortified towns (*places de guerre*) in France are distributed into four classes according to their importance, and arranged under the respective military divisions. In the first class there are only six, besides Paris: viz. Metz, Strasburg, Toulon, Brest, Gravelines and Lille; in the second, ten; in the third, twenty-four; and in the fourth, seventy-three. In addition to these, there are a great number of forts and military posts. (Alman. Royal, 1822.)—P.

ⁱ It was first fortified by Hugh Capet, A. D. 992. (Enc. Meth. Moréri.)—P.

^j St. Vulfran. (Enc. Meth.)

^k "The town is built of brick, and contains several edifices of an

year, and it was thence that William departed to conquer England with a fleet of eleven hundred sail, and a hundred thousand men.^f Abbeville rises on the same river^g about four leagues above St. Valery; it is a strong town^h of the fourth class, and was fortified for the first time by Charlemagne.ⁱ The houses are built of brick, but there are several fine old buildings, among others the church of Saint Vulfran,^j a Gothic edifice.^k The inhabitants boast of the poet Millevoie,^l as their townsman,^m and some of them too have not forgotten that the Chevalier de la Barre, a youth not more than fifteen years of age, was condemned at Abbeville to be beheaded, to have his right hand amputated, and his tongue torn from his body, because he sung licentious verses and remained uncovered during a religious procession.ⁿ

Amiens is situated at the distance of nine leagues above Abbeville; it bore in ancient times the name of *Samarobriva*, which signifies a bridge over the Somme. It was the capital of the *Ambiani*, and one of the places in Gaul, in which good weapons were made. It was the principal city in the kingdom of the Franks, under Clodion; it is at present a strong town of the third class; it carries on a considerable trade, the manufactures are linens, cottons and velvet.^o The cathedral is considered a model of Gothic architecture,^p and the public library is not inferior to the one at Rouen. Amiens has produced many great men, among the most remarkable of whom are Peter the Hermit, who persuaded the faithful to undertake the first crusade, Marshal D'Estrees, Voiture, Dueange, Gresset and the celebrated astronomer Delambre. It was united to France in the reign of Louis the Eleventh, but the Spaniards gained it by a singular stratagem in the time of Henry the Fourth.^q Some

early period (*anciens edifices*); one of them, namely, the church of St. Vulfran, is a fine specimen of Gothic architecture."—Abbeville has been long known for its manufacture of fine cloths, established in 1665 by Van Robais of Holland, under the auspices of Colbert. The cloths made at Abbeville, though fine, are much inferior to the superfine cloths of Louviers in Normandy. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^l C. H. Millevoie, born in 1782, died 1816. (Beauvais.)—P.

^m It was also the birthplace of Nicholas Sanson, the celebrated geographer.—P.

ⁿ "Some of them still recollect the sentence pronounced in 1766, by the tribunal of their town, by which the Chevalier de la Barre, then only fifteen years of age, was condemned to have his right hand cut off, his tongue torn out, to be beheaded, and finally to be delivered to the flames, simply because he had sung licentious verses, and had refused to uncover himself while a religious procession was passing." It would have been a dreadful crime indeed to have remained uncovered during a religious procession, as the translator has it!—J. Fr. Lefevre, chev. de la Barre, then a student at Abbeville, was accused of having mutilated a wooden crucifix on the bridge of the town, along with another youth of the name of D'Etallonde, and of having blasphemed the eucharist, and sung impious songs. He was condemned to be burnt alive, by the judges of Abbeville, but the parliament of Paris, by a decree of June 4, 1766, so far mitigated the sentence, as to order that he should be decapitated before he was thrown into the flames; the sentence was executed at Abbeville on the first of July following. Young D'Etallonde, who was condemned to a still more horrible punishment, escaped to Prussia, where he was protected by Frederick the Great. (See the Account of the death of the Chev. de la Barre (*Relation de la mort du chev. de la Barre*) by M. Casen (Voltaire,) 1766.) (Beauvais.)—P.

^o "It is noted in commerce for its spinning mills (*filatures*), its quilts (*piqués*), its velvets, and its dying, and among epicures for its duck pies (*pâtés de canards*)."—Amiens was formerly the seat of an extensive manufacture of woollen stuffs (*saeteries*), established by Colbert in 1665. Among the goods manufactured were serges, shallons, camblets, baizes, plushes, &c., and also some cloths. (Savary, Dict. Comm. vol. I. p. 14.)—In the flourishing period of the manufactures of Picardy, there were made in the city of Amiens only, 129,500 pieces of woollen stuffs, and the value of the woollen manufacture at that place was computed to amount to nearly 1,600,000 livres annually. Besides cloths, properly so called, camblets, callinancoes, baizes, kerseys, and wool and hair plushes, are still made at Amiens. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^p The nave is 366 feet in length and 132 feet in height. M. B.

^q March, 1597. (Moréri.)

soldiers, clad as peasants, conducted a cart loaded with straw and nuts, as soon as they entered the town, the cart was purposely upset; while the burgesses were gathering the nuts, the disguised soldiers put them to death, and delivered Amiens to their companions without the gates. It is not in such a way that strong places are now taken, but six months had hardly elapsed before it was again in the possession of the French.^a The people of Peronne boast that their town was never conquered; they repelled in 1563 a numerous and warlike army under the command of Henry of Nassau.^b The ramparts are now planted with trees, and changed into public walks which the Somme serves to embellish.^c

Montdidier^d is built on the summit of a hill above the small river Don; it need not be mentioned because it was the residence of some of the French kings during the twelfth century, but because it is the capital of a subprefecture, and the birthplace of Parmentier.^e Douvens^f on the left bank of the Authie, is not a place of greater importance; it carries on, however, a considerable trade in the coarse linens, that are manufactured in the district. A double citadel adds greatly to its strength; it possesses a large cotton manufactory and several oil mills.^g

Boulonnais,^h Artois and part of Picardy make up the departmentⁱ which derives its name from the narrow branch of the sea that separates England and France.^j Its surface is divided by a chain of hills into two regions, namely, the northern and the southern. The latter is intersected by small valleys, and slopes gently towards the banks of the Authie, which forms the boundary between the present department and that of the Somme, while the former inclines more perceptibly towards the north. In both regions the soil is productive, and the shores of the sea are

^a "A number of soldiers, in the disguise of peasants, entered the town with a cart loaded with straw and nuts; scarcely had they passed through the gates, when by a premeditated accident the ground was strewn with the nuts,* and while the attention of the citizens (*bourgeois*), who guarded the entrance,† was thus diverted, the disguised soldiers slaughtered them, and delivered the town to a body of troops that followed in their rear; it is not in such a manner that strong places are now taken. Scarcely six months had elapsed, however, before Amiens was again in possession of the French.‡"—P.

* Some of the sacks having been designedly opened, the pavement was covered with the nuts. (Enc. Meth.)

† The soldiers of the garrison. (Enc. Meth.)

‡ Henry with an army of 20,000 men, reinforced with 4000 by Queen Elizabeth, besieged and retook it the same year (1597.) (Ed. Encyc.)

^b "Peronne proud of its title of Maiden Town (*puelle*), has never allowed itself to be taken; in 1536, it repelled a numerous and warlike army commanded by Henry of Nassau."—Peronne is called the Maiden Town (*La Puelle*), because, although several times besieged (in 1536, by Henry of Nassau,) it has never yet been taken. (Enc. Meth. 1784.)—P.

^c A few leagues above Peronne, the Somme waters the small town of Ham, commanded by an old strong castle,* in which is a tower one hundred feet in height and the same in diameter.† Although the town is of little importance, it boasts of having given birth to one of our most intrepid warriors, who was also a brilliant orator, and one of the ablest defenders of our liberties, and whose children have been adopted by his sorrowing country.‡ M. B.

* The citadel of Ham is used as a state prison, now occupied by the ministers of Charles X.

† The walls of the tower are 36 feet in thickness, 100 in height and of equal diameter. (Enc. Meth.)

‡ General Foy, born at Ham, 1775. Immediately after his death (1825,) a subscription was opened throughout France in order to provide for the relief of his children, and for the erection of a monument to his memory.—P.

^d Mont-Didier.

^e Ant. Galland, translator of the Arabian Nights (*Mille et une Nuits*), was born at Rollet, two leagues S. E. of Montdidier.—P.

^f Douvens or Dourens (Vosgien;) Dourens or Dourens (Moréri;) Doullens (Alm. Royal).—P.

^g "Douvens, on the left bank of the Authie, is not a larger town than Montdidier;* it serves, however, as a mart for the manufacture of bagging (*toiles d'emballage*) carried on in its vicinity. It is fortified by a double citadel,† and possesses a large cotton mill (*filature de coton*) and an oil mill (*fabrique d'huile*)."†

* Population of Douvens 3690: of Montdidier 3730.—P.

covered with sandy hills or downs on which agriculture is continually making new conquests.

Montreuil rises on a hill above the banks of the Canche; it was founded in the ninth century by the first count of Ponthieu; the houses are built of brick, and the town is defended by a citadel and ramparts. Hesdin^k is situated on the same river above Montreuil; it contains about four thousand inhabitants, and is encompassed with ditches and ramparts.^l Boulogne^m must be considered a place of greater importance than either of the two last; it is also more ancient; arms and other articles evidently of Roman origin were discovered there at so late a period as 1823. It was the Celticⁿ *Gesoriacum*,^p a seaport of the *Morini*, whom Virgil calls the remotest inhabitants of Europe.^q It was from the same port that the Roman fleets set sail for Great Britain. Constantine gave it at a later period the name of *Bolonia*, but the sea rose then to the highest part of the town, and rings to which the ancients used to attach their vessels, have been at different times discovered; the antiquity of the same quarter is attested by narrow, crooked and irregular streets; the low town, on the contrary, is built with great regularity, it was originally a small suburb. Although the harbour was enlarged by Napoleon, it is still difficult of access; vessels are embedded in ooze during the reflux of the tide, they are lifted by the flux which raises the waters to the height of fourteen feet. While Napoleon menaced England with an invasion, the army assembled on the coast, resolved to erect a marble monument to their chief; but it was not finished until the restoration, and the purpose for which it was intended, was of course changed, it now records the arrival of the Bourbons in France.^r

Calais at the northern extremity of the department, pos-

† Coarse cloths made of the tow of hemp, chiefly manufactured in Picardy (Savary).—P.

‡ Douvens is a military post (*poste militaire*), (Alm. Royal).—P.

^h Boulonnais (Enc. Meth.) Boulonois, Boulenois (Moréri.) Boulognois (Hubner).—P.

ⁱ Department of the Straits of Calais (*Département du Pas-de-Calais*.)

^j "Boulonnais, Artois and a portion of Picardy are comprehended in the department which derives its name from the narrowest part* of the Channel† (arm of the sea—*bras de mer*) that separates England from France."

* Straits of Dover—Fr. *Pas-de-Calais*.

† The Channel is said to begin at the South Foreland, to the north of Dover (Ed. Encyc).—P.

^k Hesdin or Hedin (Enc. Meth.) Hesdin-Fert (Moréri)—It took the latter name from the ancient device of the house of Savoy (F. E. R. T.) It formerly stood a league above its present site; but having been destroyed in the wars between Charles V. and Francis I., it was rebuilt where it now stands, by the orders of the former, under the direction of Philibert Emmanuel, duke of Savoy, A. D. 1554. (Moréri. Enc. Meth.)—P.

^l It was the birthplace of the Abbé Prevost. M. B.

^m Boulogne sur Mer. (Savary.) "Its antiquity is undoubted."

ⁿ This is added by the translator. *Gesoriocum* was a town of the *Belge*, who although a kindred nation, differed in language and customs from the true Celts (*Celtae*). They were mixed with the Germans, and are supposed by Adelung to have belonged to the same race with the modern Welsh and Bretons (*Kymry*.) while the *Celtae* were of the same race with the Irish and Highland Scotch (*Gaël*).—P.

^p *Gesoriacum*, afterwards *Bononia*. (D'Anv.)—It took the name of *Bononia*, about the time of Constantine. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc.)—It is supposed to have been the *Portus Iccius* s. *Itius*, from which Cæsar sailed on his expedition to Britain. It was also called *Portus Morinus* s. *Morinorum*, *Gesoriocus Portus*, *Gesoriacum Navale*, *Bononia* and *Bolonia*. (Moréri.)—The *Portus Iccius* s. *Itius* was more probably Witsand [Vissant—Wuissan or Wuyssen (Vosgien)] half way between Boulogne and Calais. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc.)—P.

^q *Extremique hominum Morini*, Rhenusque bicornis.

Æneid. Lib. VIII. v. 727. Tr.

^r "During the reign of Constantine, it took the name of *Bolonia*;* but the sea then extended to the foot of the upper town,† a fact that is proved by the discovery made about forty years since, of a ring for fastening cables, fixed in a rock which then formed the bottom of a cellar (*cave*.) The antiquity of the upper town is indicated by its narrow and irregular streets. The lower town, on the contrary, which was origi-

esses several advantages: it is a strong town of the first class;^a it has a convenient, although a small and shallow port; it is encompassed with ramparts that form agreeable walks; and the houses and streets are regular and well built.^b It may be remarked, on the other hand, that sand is constantly accumulating in the harbour,^c and the inhabitants have no other water than what is collected in cisterns. A tower of finished architecture serves as a belfry, it rises on the Place d'Armes near the large town-house. A column was erected on the port to commemorate the arrival of Lewis the Eighteenth in 1814.^d The coasts of England are seen from the pier, and it is even said that Dover castle is also visible in clear weather. Calais, now so much frequented by strangers, and peopled by about nine thousand individuals, was only a village in the thirteenth century, but it was so well fortified by Philip of France, count of Boulogne, that Edward the Third of England besieged it during thirteen months, before he could render himself master of it, nor did the inhabitants finally capitulate until they were compelled to do so by famine; it was then that the six persons whose names are so honourably recorded in history, generously devoted themselves to appease the anger of an exasperated victor.

nally only a small suburb, is built with much regularity. † Although the harbour was enlarged by Napoleon, it is still difficult of access; at low water, the vessels are aground in the mud, but they float with the tide, which rises to the height of fourteen feet. While Napoleon threatened England with invasion, the army assembled on the coast erected to its chief a marble column, which was not completed, however, until after the restoration, and which is now destined [1829] to commemorate the return of the Bourbons. † Boulogne has a large establishment for sea-bathing, furnished with twenty elegant bathing machines, and several fine assembly rooms (*salons de réunion*)."

* See note p p. 1011.

† At the time when *Gesoriacum* took the name of *Bononia*, it occupied only the quarter called the upper town. The whole space now occupied by the lower town has been since recovered from the sea. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc.)—P.

‡ The upper town, placed on the declivity of the Chalk mountain, is surrounded with a wall, and contains about 400 houses; before the revolution it was inhabited chiefly by nobility. The lower town, though much larger, and nearer the sea, is without walls, very irregularly built, with narrow winding streets, and is inhabited by trades-people. (Ed. Encyc.)—The upper town is much the most pleasant, containing a wide avenue with handsome houses, and several stately edifices. (Carter's Letters, vol. I. p. 384, Second Ed.)—The upper town is well built and is adorned with several squares and fountains; it contains the palace of justice, the cathedral of Notre Dame, the abbey of St. Wilmer, and many other religious edifices. (Moréri.)—P.

§ On the summit of an eminence near the entrance into the town, stands a lofty Corinthian column, 155 feet in height, and 12 or 14 in diameter. It was begun by Napoleon, as it is said, to commemorate his meditated conquest of England; but the change in his fortunes left the monument to be finished by his less ambitious successor. It is used merely as an ornament, and an observatory for viewing the harbour and surrounding country. (Carter's Letters, vol. I. page 384.) It is seen from and commands a view of the English coast. (Hervé's Guide to Paris, p. 29.)—P.

^a A *place de guerre* of the second class. (Alm. Royal, 1822.)—P.

^b "It consists of straight and regular streets, bordered by handsome brick buildings."—The town has the form of a parallelogram, with the long side towards the sea. The streets are straight, well paved, and tolerably clean, and the houses are well built. (Ed. Encyc.)—The town of Calais is built of stone, with confined dirty streets. (Carter's Letters, vol. I. p. 381.)—P.

^c The harbour of Calais is formed by a small rivulet; but it is now in a great measure obstructed with sand. It commences at the gate of the town,^{*} where a large solid quay terminates in two long wooden piers, which stretch into the sea. It is dry at ebb tide, and with a common flow has three fathoms at high water. At the beginning of the 18th century, this harbour admitted frigates of 40 guns; if it were properly deepened, it would still afford the same accommodation. (Ed. Encyc.)—The harbour is formed by the mouth of the small river Hames, and is enclosed by two jetties of wood, on one of which is a light-house. (Tuckey's Mar. Geog., vol. II. p. 12)—Calais is surrounded by a marshy country watered by the Hames, which by means of sluices can be overflowed at pleasure.—P.

* A strong barrier, with a handsome iron gate, separates the port from the town. (Carter's Letters, vol. I. p. 378.)—P.

^d "A tower of delicate architecture, which serves as a belfry," rises on the Place d'Armes near the town-house, and fronting the port is a column erected in honour of the arrival of Louis XVIII. in 1814.—This column stands on the quay near the Custom-House.—P.

* * Belfroy, a watch tower, an alarm tower. *—Clocher, the belfry of a church.—P.

* The principal street in Calais extends from the land-gate to the port; it passes

A marshy country extends on the south of Calais to Guines, formerly a fortified city, and to the small town of Ardres, now watered by a canal to which it has given its name. It was in the same country that Francis the First and Henry the Eighth agreed to hold an interview in the year 1520, and the place where they met was decorated with so much magnificence that it still retains the name of the *Champ du Drap d'Or*.^{e f} The marshes of Aa near St. Omer enclose several small islands;^g the town itself is fortified and well-built, and its origin dates from the seventh century; it was the birthplace of Suger, abbot of St. Denis, and minister of Louis the Young.^h The neat and strong townⁱ of Aire^k about four leagues from St. Omer, contains nine thousand inhabitants; it counts Malebranche in the number of its townsmen.^l Bethune is built on a rock, and the fortifications that defend it,^m were planned by Vauban.ⁿ The small town of Lens may recall the victory of Condé, by which he put an end in 1648 to the war between France and Austria.^o St. Pol is visited for its mineral waters; it is the capital of a district.^o

Arras,^p a strong town of the third class, rises in a plain surrounded by hills, and watered by the Scarpe^q and the Crinchon;^r it is divided into four parts, the high and low

through the great square, on which stands the town-house, and near it the palace of the auditory and the watch tower (*Tour de Guet*). (Moréri.)—P.

^e The Field of the Cloth of Gold. Tr.

^f "It was in the marshy country that extends to the south of Calais, that Francis I. and Henry VIII. held an interview in 1520, between Guines, formerly a fortified place, and the small town of Ardres, now situated on a canal to which it has given its name,* on a spot decorated with so much magnificence that it retained the name of the Field of the Cloth of Gold (*Champ du Drap d'Or*)."—Guines† at that time belonged to the English, as a dependency of Calais, and Ardres to the French. Henry lodged in a temporary wooden house near the castle of Guines, and Francis in another near Ardres, both on their own territories. The interview took place near the boundary line of their respective possessions (in the valley of Arden. Smollet.)—P.

* The canal of Ardres communicates with that of Calais. (Enc. Meth.)

† Guines. (Hume. Smollet.)

^g "The marshes of the Aa, near St. Omer, are still covered with small floating islands."—Aa, a river of the Low Countries, which rises in the Boulonnais, passes by St. Omer, below which it forms marshes in which are several floating islands, and after sending off lateral branches that communicate with different canals, (that on the left with the canal of Calais, and that on the right called the Colme, with those of Dunkirk, Mardike, &c.) enters the sea a little below Gravelines. (Enc. Meth.)—Near St. Omer, in the marshes or rather lakes, formed by the river Aa, there are several floating islands (*îles flottantes*), covered with grass and shrubs, and moveable from place to place at pleasure. (Enc. Meth. art. St. Omer.)—Near St. Omer there is a large lake, in which are small floating islands. (Moréri.)—P.

^h St. Omer is noted for its college for the catholic clergy of England and Ireland (—one of the British Colleges (*Collèges Britanniques*) in France.)—P.

ⁱ A fortified town of the fourth class. (Alm. Royal.)—P.

^k Arien (Belgic; *Aria* (Lat.)) Hubner, Kort Begryp der Geographie 1736.—P.

^l "It was the birthplace of Malebranche (*a ru naitre Malebranche*)." —Nicholas Malebranche, the celebrated metaphysician, and a father of the Oratory, was born at Paris, 1638. (Moréri. Beauvais. Dict. Hist. Caen.)—J. Malebranceq [Malebranche or Mallebrance. Dict. Hist. Caen.] a Jesuit and the author of a Latin history of the *Morini* (*De Morinis* &c.) was born at St. Omer, [or according to others, at Arras. Enc. Meth. Hist. Dict. Hist. Caen.] in the 16th cent. (Beauvais.)—P.

^m A tower (*belfroy*) of singular construction rises in the public square. M. B.

ⁿ The victory gained by the great Condé over the archduke Leopold at the battle of Lens, Aug. 20, 1648, is celebrated by Boileau (Lutrin Chant 3e. v. 143—150—

Lorsqu' aux plaines de Lens—)—P.

^o "St. Pol,* situated at the bottom of a valley, is noted only for its mineral waters, and as the capital of a subprefecture."—St. Pol was formerly the capital of a county between Artois and Picardy. (Moréri.)

* St. Paul (Lat. *Fanum Sancti Pauli*). (Hubner.)

^p Atrecht (Belg.) (Hubner.)—P.

^q Scarpe (Belg.)

^r Crinchant. (Moréri.)

town, the city and the citadel.^a Handsome houses built of freestone, extensive squares encompassed with arcades,^b a Gothic cathedral remarkable for the boldness of its architecture, a large townhouse in the same style, and spacious barracks, render it one of the finest towns in France. Although not a place of great trade, it possesses some cotton and lace manufactories, beetroot sugar works and about twenty oil mills. It contains also a public library of thirty-four thousand volumes, a collection of paintings and antiquities, a botanical garden and two literary societies.^c It has given birth to several great and infamous men; in the one class may be mentioned Baudouin the historian,^d Lecluse the physician,^e and Palissot the botanist,^f and in the other, Damien the fanatic,^g the two Robespierres and Joseph Lebon.^h Arras stands on the site of *Nemetacum* or *Nemetocenna*, the capital of the *Atrebatens*; as it was taken by Cæsar, it must have been founded at least fifty years before the Christian era.ⁱ

If the department in which the capital is situated be expected, no other is so wealthy or so populous as the department of the North;^j were the population diffused throughout the whole kingdom in the same ratio as in that department,^k France would contain more than 85,000,000 of inhabitants. The surface of the department is covered with fields, that produce in proportion twice as much as those in the other parts of France; it is intersected by twice as many roads, and four times as many canals. It possesses the most abun-

dant iron and coal mines; it contains the greatest number of populous towns and strong places; and in short, it is the one in which the inhabitants are the most enlightened and also the most industrious.

The Scheldt is by no means a large river at Cambray, but the canal of St. Quentin that crosses it, contributes greatly to the commerce of the town. The importance of linen and cambric, as articles of trade, is admitted by all, but it is not so generally known that Cambray claims the honour of having first manufactured them. It is at present the capital of a subprefecture; as a place of war, it belongs to the second class. Antiquaries have shown that it is a very ancient town, it bears the name of *Camaracum* in the Theodosian table and the Itinerary of Antonine. It possesses several fine buildings, of which the cathedral is not the least remarkable; the interior is adorned with the monument that was erected to Fenelon, who was both a native and an archbishop of Cambray. The streets are for the most part straight, but many of them are disfigured by the gables of old houses.^l

Landrecy^m rises in the middle of a plain covered with meadows, and the Sambre, which is there navigable, divides it into two parts. Although it contains hardly 4000 inhabitants, the present fortifications enabled it to resist Charles the Fifth, who assembled an army of 50,000 men under the walls, and besieged it in vain during six months.ⁿ

^a "It stands on sloping ground (*terrain en pente*), and is divided into four parts: namely, the upper and the lower town (*haute et basse ville*), the city (*cité*) and the citadel."—It is situated on a mountain [hill] near the river Scarpe, and is divided into two parts, called the town and the city, by a ditch, a rampart, and a narrow valley, watered by the rivulet Crinchon. (Ed. Encyc.)—It is divided into two towns, viz. the old town, called the *Cité*,^{*} and the new town, called the *Ville*. The two towns are separated (as described in the preceding extract.) (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^{*} So called because it was the residence of the bishop, and under his jurisdiction.—Arras is still the seat of a bishopric.—P.

^b It has two fine public squares, each of them surrounded with a peristyle, viz. the great square in the city, and the little square in the town; the former of which is fronted by the cathedral, and the latter by the town-house.—P.

^c "Although it possesses some cotton mills (*filatures*),^{*} lace manufactories and beet root sugar works, and about twenty oil mills,[†] it is not, however, a place of much importance for its manufacturing industry;[‡] but a public library of 34,000 volumes, a collection of pictures and different works of art, a botanical garden, and two literary societies, suffice to prove the intelligence of its inhabitants."

^{*} At the period of the revolution there were small manufactures of cotton goods in French Flanders. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

[†] Rape (*Brassica Napus*) and colza (*B. arvensis*) are extensively cultivated for oil in Artois and French Flanders.—P.

[‡] Arras was formerly celebrated for its tapestry, called *arras*. [Tapestries, or Arras hangings, were originally made in this town. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.]

^d Fr. Baudouin, born 1520—professor of law at Bruges; he wrote in Latin, on jurisprudence, history and theology.—P.

^e Ch. de l'Écluse (Lécluse,) born 1526, better known by his Latin name *Clusius*; an eminent botanist.—P.

^f Baron Palissot de Beauvois, born 1752—known chiefly by his *Flora of Oware* and *Benin* 1804—21, 2 vol. fol.—Ch. Palissot de Montenois, born at Nancy 1730, known as a poet and historian.—This distinction of orthography (*Palissot* and *Palissot*) is generally observed.—P.

^g R. Fr. Damiens, born in the diocese of Arras [in the hamlet of La Tieuloy, in the parish of Monchy le Breton in Artois, Jan. 9. 1715. Dict. Hist. Caen]—executed at Paris 1757, for the attempted assassination of Louis XV. (Beauvais.)—P.

^h Born 1765—originally a priest of the Oratory; afterwards a member of the National Convention, and commissary at Arras, where he rivalled the ferocity of Carrier—executed at Paris, Oct. 5, 1795, aged 30!—P.

ⁱ "Arras, under the name of *Nemetacum* or *Nemetocenna*,^{*} was the capital of the *Atrebatens*, taken by Cæsar;[†] consequently its origin dates from at least 50 years before the Christian era. In 1492, it was betrayed to the archduke Maximilian of Austria. It bore then for its arms, three rats sable,[‡] which led the Spaniards to place above one of its gates, the following inscription: "Quand les Français prendront Arras, les rats mangeront les chats" (when the French shall take Arras, the rats will eat the cats.) When the French made themselves masters of the town in 1640, one of them, as if actuated by a spirit of prophecy, erased the P from the inscription.|| This conquest was in fact secured to the French by treaty.[§]"

^{*} *Nemetacum* or *Nemetocenna*, afterwards *Atrebatens*. (D'Anv.)—*Nemetocenna*. (Cas. De Bell. Gall. VIII. §37, 43.)—P.

[†] Cæsar wintered at *Nemetocenna*. (De Bell. Gall. VIII. §37.)—P.

[‡] The arms of Arras were: azure, on a fess argent, three rats passant sable: in chief, a mitre; in point, two crossiers crossed saltierwise; all proper. (Enc. Meth. Blason.)—The rats in the shield allude to the name (Arras); the mitre and crossiers to the jurisdiction of the bishop (see note a *).—P.

|| Substituting *prendront* for *prendront*; so that the inscription would then read: When the French shall surrender Arras, &c. Qu. was the inscription in French or Spanish, or was it not rather in Latin, the common language of inscriptions?—P.

§ By the peace of the Pyrenees, A. D. 1659.—P.

|| "Département du Nord."

^k Population in the Department of the North, 2786 per square league. (Peuchet, Stat. p. 90.)—P.

^l "Cambray" is situated on the Scheldt,[†] which is only a small stream as it passes through the town;[‡] but the canal of St. Quentin,^{||} which also traverses the town, contributes greatly to its commerce. It is well known that lawn (*limon*) and cambric (*batiste*) are its most important branches of manufacturing industry,[§] and it even claims the honour of having first manufactured them. As a fortified town (*place de guerre*), it only belongs to the second class;[¶] but it is the capital of a subprefecture. Its antiquity is undoubted; it is mentioned by the name of *Camaracum* in the Theodosian Table and the Itinerary of Antonine.^{**} It possesses several fine buildings; the cathedral is admired for the delicacy of its steeple (*clocher*),^{††} and in its interior is a fine monument erected to the memory of Fenelon, who was at once the child and the father of Cambray;^{‡‡} the parade (*place d'armes*) is sufficiently large to contain the whole garrison in order of battle; lastly, the streets are spacious and regular (*bien percées*), but there is still a great number of old houses, with their gables towards the street, which form a disagreeable contrast with the more modern buildings.|||| The public library is very valuable, and the society of emulation is zealously employed in the cultivation of literature and the sciences."

^{*} "Cambray."—Cambray (generally by the French,) Cambray (Moreri.)—Belg. Kamerik (Hubner.)—P.

[†] Schelde (Belg.)

[‡] Cambray is divided by the Scheldt into two parts. (Enc. Meth.—Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^{||} The third part of the canal of Picardy consists in joining the Somme to the Scheldt between St. Quentin and Cambray. (Ed. Encyc.)—See also note r. p. 987.—P.

[§] In the year 1779, there were manufactured at Cambray, 1231 pieces of lawn and 5757 pieces of cambric. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

[¶] To the third class. (Alm. Royal, 1822.)

^{**} *Camaracum* is first mentioned in the Theodosian Table and the Itinerary of Antonine. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Auc.)—P.

^{††} The pyramidal steeple has been much admired, though inferior to the steeples at Vienna, Strasburg and Antwerp. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^{‡‡} This can only be considered a conceit, without any reference whatever to the birthplace of Fenelon; it refers merely to the mildness and simplicity of his manners on the one hand, and to his paternal benevolence on the other. Fenelon was born at the castle of Fenelon in Perigord [in Quercy (Dict. Hist. Caen)] A. D. 1651, and was appointed archbishop of Cambray A. D. 1695.—Cambray is now only the seat of a bishopric.—P.

|||| The houses are all built in the Spanish fashion, with their gable ends to the street (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^m Landrecie or Landrecy (Enc. Meth. Vosgien.) Landrecies (Moreri.) Landreci (Hubner.)—P.

ⁿ "Although at present a place of little importance, since it contains hardly 4000 inhabitants, still its fortifications" serve to remind the

Avesnes,^a a small fortified town, watered by the Helpe,^b is the residence of a subprefect; coal mines, extensive marble and slate quarries are worked in the district.^c Maubeuge, a strong town of the third class, is situated on the Sambre below the last place;^d it contains 6000 inhabitants. Bavay^e to the west of it, is only remarkable for the remains of antiquities; it bore the Latin name of *Bayacum*;^f it was an important town under Augustus, who embellished it with a circus, an aqueduct and other edifices. An inscription on an ancient pyramid informs us that three Roman roads, which were constructed by the same emperor, terminated in the market-place.^g

It has been said that Valenciennes,^h formerly the capital of Hainaut,ⁱ was founded by the emperor Valens, an error that can only be accounted for by the similitude of the two names; it is certain that Valenciennes was merely a village in the time of the early French kings.^j If it is at present one of the most important places in the kingdom, it may be attributed to its situation at the confluence of the Ronelle and the Scheldt. Some of the squares are very imposing, but the rest of the town is ill-built.^k The manner in which it fell into the power of Louis the Fourteenth^l affords an instance that rash daring may be sometimes attended with more fortunate results than the wisest plans or the most skilful combinations. The enemy's patrols had advanced beyond the gates, when some French recruits,^m impelled by the impetuosity of youth, pursued them and entered the

stranger that Charles V. in vain assembled an army of 50,000 men beneath its walls; after a siege of six months, he was finally obliged to retire.ⁿ—This statement, with the omission, however, of the date, is almost literally copied from Moreri. The Enc. Meth. (Geog. Mod.) says it was retaken by Charles V. in 1543, having been previously taken from him by Francis I. This is, however, a mistake. Landrecy was taken by Francis I. early in 1543, and fortified with great care. Charles besieged it in Sept., assisted by 6000 English troops sent to him by Henry VIII. The garrison having made a vigorous resistance, and Francis having approached with all his forces and succeeded in relieving the place, he was obliged to withdraw his army into winter-quarters. (Robertson's Charles V. p. 223, 229, Jones' Ed.)—P.

* The present fortifications were constructed by De Ville* and Vauban. (Enc. Meth. Vosgien, 1813.)—P.

* Born 1662, died 1741—a pupil of Vauban.—P.

† A. D. 1543.

^a Avesnes.

^b “—by the greater Helpe (*Helpe majeure*.)”—The Sambre receives the Great and the Little Helpe. (Vosgien.)—Avesnes is situated on the Hespre (Enc. Meth. Vosgien)—the Hevre (Hubner)—the Hepres (Morse.)—P.

^c “Great quantities of marble, slate and coal are dug in its neighbourhood (*territoire*.)” A great trade is also carried on in the cheese made at the village of Marolles.[†]

* Landrecy, Maubeuge and Bavay are situated in the arrondissement (subprefecture) of Avesnes.—P.

† Marolles or Maroles, a village, one league E. of Landrecy, noted for its cheese. (Vosgien.)—P.

^d “Maubeuge—is situated on the Sambre to the north of Avesnes”—not on the Sambre below Avesnes, since Avesnes is on the Helpe. The Helpe flows from east to west and enters the Sambre between Landrecy and Maubeuge.—P.

^e Bavais, Bavai, Bayevy.

^f “Its Latin name is *Bayacum*.”—It was the *Bagacum* of the ancients, the capital of the *Nervi* before the fourth century. (D'Any.)—*Bagacum* in the Itinerary of Antonine, and *Bagacum Nerviorum* in the Table of Peutinger—also called *Baganum* and *Baracum* by Latin authors. (Moreri.)—Lat. *Baracum*. (Hubner.)—*Baganum*, the capital (*civitas*) of the *Nervi*. (Ptolem. edit. Mercator. 1584.)—P.

^g “He constructed three great roads, which diverged from the centre of the public square, as is proved by an ancient pyramid.”—Among its most remarkable antiquities, is an heptangular stone placed in the middle of the public square (*place*.) substituted in the third century for one much more ancient, and of extraordinary elevation. This stone is the point at which seven military roads, vulgarly called the highways of Brunchault (*Chaussées Brunchaut*.) either begin or terminate. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^h Valenciennes (Belg.)

ⁱ “Hainaut.”—Henegouwen (Belg.)

^j “It is certain that in the time of the earliest French kings (*nos*

town along with the fugitives; the generalⁿ being informed of this unexpected event marched to their assistance, and a place which might have impeded the progress of the king during several months, was taken in less than two hours. Valenciennes was the native town of John Froissard,^o a priest, an historian and a poet, and also the birth-place of Anthony Wateau,^p a painter whose works are distinguished by the grace and lightness of his touch. The cambric and linen manufactures^q render it at present one of the most industrious cities in France.

The wealth in the village of Anzin may be attributed not so much to glass works and manufactories as to the most extensive coal mines in France; there are sixteen pits, of which the depth varies from 600 to 900 feet. The total number of persons engaged in these works is not less than 16,000, and the annual products amount to 4,000,000 of hundred weights.^r The village of Famars, the *Fanum Martis* of the Romans, has risen into celebrity of late years; dissertations have been written on the ancient fortress of which the remains are still apparent; excavations were at different times undertaken, and many valuable objects of antiquity have been found.^s Denain about a league to the west of Valenciennes, was the place where Marshal Villars gained a memorable victory over the Imperialists and the Dutch in 1712. Condé,^t which during the revolution bore the name of *Nord-Libre*,^u contains 6000 inhabitants; it possesses a frequented port on the Scheldt, and as a place of

premiers rois.) who possessed there a palace, it was merely a village (*bourgade*.)^v

* Rather a small *bourg* or borough.

^k “Its position at the confluence of the Ronelle and the Scheldt, by increasing the number of its sluices, has contributed to render it one of the most important fortified towns (*places*)* in the kingdom. It is ill built, but it has a very fine public square (*place publique*.)[†]—The square or grand place is handsome, but the streets are in general narrow, dark and crooked. (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

* *Place* sometimes signifies a fortified town (*place de guerre*) or fortress. (Dict de l'Acad.)

^l A. D. 1677—after a siege of seven days.—P.

^m “Some musketeers (*mousquetaires*.)”—Musketeers (*Mousquetaires*.) foot soldiers armed with a musket.—The Musketeers of the Royal Guard (*mousquetaires de la garde du roi*) were two companies of horse guards, armed with muskets; the first called the Great Musketeers (*les grandes mousquetaires*.) was established by Louis XIII. in 1622, and the second, by Louis XIV. after the death of Cardinal Mazarin (1661.)—Louis XIV. conducted the siege of Valenciennes in person.—P.

ⁿ “The army.”—See note ^m.

^o J. Froissart, born 1333. (Beauvais.)—P.

^p A. Wateau, born 1684. (Beauvais.)—P.

^q “The manufacture of cambrics (*batistes*.) linens (*toiles*.) and cottons (*percales*.)”—*Percalles*, a kind of white cottons brought from India. (Savary.)—P.

^r “The village of Anzin, in the immediate vicinity of Valenciennes (*à ses portes*.) derives its extensive population, not only from its glass and iron works (*verrieres, usines*.) but also from its coal mines, the latter the most important of any in France. They are wrought by the aid of steam engines, and by means of sixteen main pits (*grands puits*.) from two to three hundred metres in depth. The working is continued night and day by relays of workmen, and the whole number employed is not less than 16,000. The annual produce amounts to 4,000,000 quintals.”

^s “Famars, in Latin *Fanum Martis*,* a village situated in the vicinity of Valenciennes,[†] has of late years become a place of some celebrity. Many dissertations have been written on the ancient Roman fortress, traces of which may be there distinguished, but different excavations, skilfully conducted, have revealed so great a number of antiquities that the site which the village occupies has become an object of speculation to the learned.”

* It is mentioned as an important place in the *Notitia Imperii*. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc.)

† About a league S. of Valenciennes.—P.

^t Condat (Belg.) *Condatum* or *Condate* (Lat.)—Its original name, which signifies a confluence, is derived from its position near the confluence of the Haisne and the Scheldt. (Vosgien.)—It has given its name to the princes of Condé.—P.

^u Eng. Free North.

war, it belongs to the first class.^a St. Amand, a town of 9000 inhabitants, carries on a great trade in lint that is mostly cultivated in the neighbouring country; it may be mentioned, too, on account of mineral springs which, although much frequented by the Romans, were seldom visited afterwards until the reign of Lewis the Fourteenth.^b

According to Cæsar, Douay^c was one of the principal cities of the *Caluaci*; it stands in a situation favourable to commerce; the Scarpe waters it, communicates with the Scheldt by the canal of Sensee, and thus enables it to carry on a trade with the principal towns in the Netherlands. Old walls flanked with turrets form a large enclosure, indeed there are almost as many gardens as houses, and the streets are for the most part straight. The principal buildings are the townhouse, the church of Saint Peter, and an arsenal supposed to be the largest in France. John de Bologne, the celebrated sculptor to whom the Parisians are indebted for the statue of Henry the Fourth, was a native of Douay.^d Orchies^e about four leagues northwards,^f was the ancient *Origiacum*, the only city of the *Atrebrates*, according to Ptolemy.

Lille^g is situated in a very fruitful and highly cultivated plain, and is watered by the Deule, a small navigable river, and by a canal that communicates with the sea.^h It was founded by Baldwin the Fourth, count of Flanders, in the beginning of the eleventh century. Seven large gates adorned with sculptures lead into the town; the fortifica-

tions are formidable, and it is said that the strong fortress was one of the first works of Vauban.ⁱ The streets are broad, and the houses are well built;^j the finest edifices are the hospital,^k the townhouse and the corn-market.^l By means of its roads and canals, the inhabitants of Lille are enabled to carry on a great trade,^m and the activity that prevails within its walls, renders it very different from most strong towns, and makes the stranger apt to forget the seven sieges it has supported at different periods and under different masters, as well as the sad associations connected with its fortresses and ramparts, the monuments of ambition and cruelty. Loos, a village almost at the gates of Lille, contains several manufactories and a large house of correction,ⁿ in which more than fifteen hundred men and women are confined. A small port on the right bank of the Lys,^o tends to facilitate the trade of Armentieres,^p a neat town of seven thousand seven hundred inhabitants, most of whom are employed in manufacturing lint, hemp and cotton.^q Quesnoy sur Deule is a place of trade, and Comines is noted for its ribbons; the population in each of them may amount to four or five thousand souls.^r Roubaix,^s a manufacturing town, and Turcoing,^t a large burgh that supplies different parts of France with woollen and cotton stuffs, may together contain fifteen or sixteen thousand inhabitants.^u All these places are situated to the north of Lille, and the most remote of them is not more than three or four leagues distant from it.

Bailleul, Cassel, Merville and Estairs are the four princi-

^a To the fourth class. (Alm. Royal 1822.)—P.

^b "Three leagues to the west of Condé, the Scarpe passes by St. Amand, a town of 9000 inhabitants, important from the great quantities of flax cultivated in its neighbourhood, and also from its mineral springs, which, although much frequented under the Roman government, did not begin to be celebrated in modern times until the reign of Louis XIV." ^c "Douai." Lat. *Duacum*.

^d "The roads in the department are constructed and maintained with a degree of excellence corresponding with the industry of the inhabitants. Their breadth, however, may be considered excessive, a defect common to them with most of the public roads (*chaussées*) in France. That which leads from Cambrai to Douay is magnificent. The latter town, which Cæsar mentions as one of the principal cities of the *Caluaci*,* is favourably situated for commerce. The Scarpe, which waters it, communicates with the Scheldt, by the canal of the Sensee, and thus enables it to carry on a trade with the principal towns in the department, as well as in the Netherlands. Its enclosure, formed by old walls flanked with towers, is very extensive, and contains almost as many gardens as houses. It has broad and straight streets (*rues bien percées*), and a fine public square, and its principal edifices are the town-house, the church of St. Peter and the arsenal, the latter reckoned one of the most considerable in France. It was the birthplace of John of Bologna, the celebrated sculptor, to whom the Parisians were indebted for the former statue of Henry IV. §"—Douay has long been celebrated for its English colleges (*Collèges Britanniques*;) for the education of Roman Catholics from England and Ireland. It also carries on an extensive manufacture of linens and cambrie. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

* It is supposed to have been the capital of the *Catuauci*, of which Cæsar makes mention in his Commentaries. (Moreri.)—*Catuauci*, the name of a people in Gaul, according to some editions of Cæsar. It is considered a corruption of *Atuatici*. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc.)—*Atuatici* and *Atuatici*, Edit. Scaliger.—*Atuatici*, Ed. Maittaire.—For a description of the capital or stronghold of the *Atuatici*, see Cæsar. de Bell. Gall. li. §29.—P.

† "La Sensée."—La Censée (Alm. Royal).—The Sensee [*Le Sensel* or *Sansel*, or *La Sensée*, Enc. Meth.] is a small river which rises in Artois and enters the Scheldt at Bouchain, 4 leagues S. E. of Douay. The canal of the Sensee connects Douay with the Scheldt at Bouchain, where it communicates with the canal of St. Quentin by the canal along the Scheldt from Cambrai. There is also a canal along the Scarpe from Douay to St. Amand, thus opening another communication with the Scheldt. From Douay to the sea, the communication is opened, first by a canal to Lille, the latter part of its course along the Deule; then by the channel of the Deule and the Lys to Armentieres, whence by a canal along the Lys, at variable distances from its banks, to Aire; then by a canal to the Aa at St. Omer, whence it is continued along that river to the sea at Gravelines, sending off lateral canals in that part of its course, viz. one on the left to Calais, and on the right, one by Berg to Furnes, whence to Ostend, and another to Dunkirk.—P.

‡ Douay is situated on the Scarpe, and communicates with the Deule by a canal. (Enc. Meth. 1784.)—Douay is advantageously situated on the navigable river Scarpe [a branch of the Scheldt,] which communicates by canals with Lille, St. Omer, Dunkirk and the North Sea, and by means of the Scheldt with Valenciennes, Cambrai and Tournay. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

§ Giovanni di Bologna (in Italian)—a pupil of Michael Angelo.—P.

¶ The equestrian statue of Henry IV., formerly erected on the Pont-Neuf (A. D. 1614

—not completed till 1635.) The horse was cast at Florence, by John of Bologna; the figure of the king was executed by Dupré. (Enc. Meth.) This statue was destroyed during the revolution. It has, however, been recently replaced (Aug. 25, 1818) by another equestrian statue of Henry IV., executed by Lemot.—P.

^e Orchie. ^f Population 3000. M. B.

^g Lille or Lisle (Ed. Encyc.)—L'Isle, L'Île, Lille (Fr.) Ryssel (Belg.) *Insula* (Lat.) (Hubner.)—The French call it L'Isle or Lille. (Enc. Meth.)—It is situated in a marshy soil, and is watered by the river Deule, from which several branches traverse the city in different directions. Its Latin name was *Insula* or *Insule*, *Islo* or *Castrum Illense*, and its Flemish name Ryssel, from its having been once surrounded by several marshes, which were drained by the industry of the inhabitants. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^h "Lille—is watered by the canal which opens a communication from the Sensee to the sea, and by the Deule, a small navigable river."—See note ^d †.

ⁱ "Its citadel (*forteresse*), a work of great importance, is said to have been the first attempt (*coup d'essai*) of Marshal Vauban."—Its citadel, the *chef d'œuvre* of Vauban, is the first in Europe after that of Turin. It is a mile in circuit, and is situated to the N. W. of the town, from which it is separated by a spacious esplanade and a canal. (Morse.)—Louis XIV. took Lille in 1667, and ordered a citadel to be constructed, the government of which was conferred on Vauban in 1668. (Moreri.)—P.

^j "Its streets are broad, its houses well built, its squares large and regular, and its public buildings constructed in the best style of architecture."—The Great Square and the public buildings have been much admired. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^k "The great hospital (*hôpital général*.)"

^l "Halle aux Blés."

^m Many of the merchants of Lille fit out vessels for foreign trade at Dunkirk, Ostend and Calais, with which towns it has direct communication by canals. Lille has important manufactures of woollens, cottons, linens, silks, lace, carpets, &c. About 200 windmills are employed in the neighbourhood, in the manufacture of the oil of colzat [*colza*] (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

ⁿ "Maison centrale de détention." See note ^o p. 981.—P.

^o Leye (Belg.)—The town itself is situated on the right bank of the Lys.—P.

^p Armentiers (Hubner.)

^q "who are employed in spinning and weaving flax, hemp and cotton."

^r "Quesnoy sur Deule, which contains several iron works (*usines*), and Comines,* which carries on a manufacture of tape (*rubans de fil*), have each of them a population of from 4000 to 5000 inhabitants."

* Comines.—It was the birthplace of Philip de Comines.—P.

^s Roubaix.

^t Turcoing.

^u "Roubaix, essentially a manufacturing town,* and Turcoing, a large burgh, enriched by its woollen and cotton stuffs, contain together from 14,000 to 16,000 inhabitants."—Population of Turcoing, 11,998—of Roubaix, 8,724. Total 20,722. (Alm. Royal, 1822.)—P.

pal towns in the fruitful district of Hazebrouck; the first is built on a height, the second was once fortified, it rises on a hill, and commands a view of the ocean and thirty-two towns; the third is situated in a marshy country, and the fourth contains six thousand inhabitants.^a Although the population of Hondtschoote^b does not exceed four thousand souls, it is a place of celebrity from the victory which the French gained over the English in 1793. Bergues, a place of importance as a corn market, was formerly surrounded by marshes, that have been partly drained; the canals of Dunkerque, of Upper and Lower Colme meet at the base of the hill on which it stands; the houses are regular, but all of them are built of brick. As a strong place it belongs to the third class, the possession of it, however, was considered a matter of so much consequence that it has been eight times taken and retaken, seven times sacked, and three times besieged without success; it does not contain more than six thousand inhabitants.^c Gravelines,^d a town of three thousand souls, was founded in 1160 by Henry, count of Flanders:^e it is on the whole well-built, but the marshes near the mouth of the Aa render it unhealthy.^f It was first fortified by Charles the Fifth, but the greater part of the present works were erected by the Chevalier Deville and Marshal Vauban.

The road from Gravelines to Dunkerque extends along the sandy hills that rise on the sea shore. The last town was gradually built round a chapel, which was founded by St. Eloi in the middle of these sandy downs.^g Large, well-

* It manufactures fine woollen stuffs, and also woollen thread for hosiery. (Vosgien.)—P.

^a "Quitting the territory of the prefecture,* we shall proceed to Hazebrouck,† the capital of one of the two remaining arrondissements,‡ situated in one of the most fertile districts (*contrées*) in the former French Flanders.¶ Around it as a centre, there are three towns worthy of notice for their manufacturing industry: namely, Baillieu,§ a well built town on a height; Merville,|| in a marshy country; and Cassel,** formerly a strong town, situated on a hill (*montagne*) which commands a view of 32 towns and of the ocean; besides these, the village of Estairs †† may be mentioned, which from its population of 6000 inhabitants and its linen manufactures, also deserves the name of a town."

* The arrondissement of Lille, the capital of which is also the residence of the prefect.—P.

† Hazebrouck (Vosgien.) Hazebrouck (Enc. Meth.)

‡ Those of Hazebrouck and Dunkirk.

¶ French Flanders, in its narrowest meaning, signified that part of the county of Flanders (Flem. *Vlaanderen*) annexed to France, and included all that portion of the department of the North extending from Douay and St. Amand on the east to the sea on the west. The former province or rather government of French Flanders corresponded very nearly with the limits of the present department of the North, including French Flanders properly so called, Cambresis, French Hainault, and certain districts in the county of Namur and the bishopric of Liege.—P.

§ Belle (Flemish.) Moreri.—Large quantities of thread, lace and woollen stuffs are manufactured there.—P.

|| Situated on the Lys—manufactures table linen. (Vosgien.)

** Cassel or Mont Cassel. Lat. *Castellum Morinorum*. (Hübner.)

†† Estaires, Estaire.—Flem. *Stegers*. (Moreri.)—P.

^b Hondtschoote, Hondtschote.—This and the following places are in the arrondissement of Dunkirk.—P.

^c "Bergues,* a place of importance as a corn market, is situated in a marshy country, that has been recently drained;† the canal of Dunkirk and those of the Upper and the Lower Colme; unite at the foot of the hill on which it is built;|| its houses are regular, but all of brick. It is a fortified town (*place de guerre*) of the third class,§ and the possession of it has always been regarded of such importance, that during the last ten centuries, it has been eight times taken and retaken, seven times sacked, and three times besieged without success.¶ It contains a population of about 6000 souls."—Bergues was taken by the duke of Parma in 1537, by the duke of Orleans in 1646, by the Spaniards in 1651, and by Turenne in 1658, when it was finally ceded to France by the treaty of the Pyrenees. The English invested it in 1793, but were forced to raise the siege.—P.

* Berg St. Vinoc. (Vosgien.)—Bergues or Bergue St. Vinoc, Bergh St. Winoc, Moreri.—Wynoxbergen (Flem.) *Mons Sancti Vinoci* (Lat.) (Hübner.)—P.

† Literally, rendered wholesome by hydraulic works.

‡ The Colme is one of the branches into which the river Aa divides below St. Omer. See note § p. 1012.—P.

§ It is built at the foot of a hill, on the Colme. (Vosgien.)—P.

¶ Of the fourth class. (Alm. Roynl, 1822.)—The fortifications were constructed by Vauban.—P.

** Literally, delivered from its enemies.

† Graveline (Moreri.)—Flemish, Grevelingen (Hübner.) Graveling Enc. Meth.)—P.

peopled and well-built, its position between two seas, and the proximity of England and the Netherlands, account for its past prosperity. Baudouin the Young, count of Flanders, conferred on it the rank and privileges of a city in the tenth century; since that time it has excited the jealousy or covetousness of several princes. It was burnt by the English in 1388; built anew, it fell successively into the power of Flanders, Spain and France. The Spaniards took it from the English, and the latter were expelled by the French. The treaty of Chateau-Cambresis put Spain in possession of it, but it was retaken by Conde in 1646. The Spaniards having made themselves masters of it again, the victory which Turenne gained at Dunes in 1658, rendered it an easy conquest to the French. It was afterwards ceded to the English; Lewis the Fourteenth purchased it from Charles the Second for five millions of francs, and rendered it impregnable; but by a shameful clause in the treaty of Utrecht, the same monarch was obliged to fill up the harbour and to destroy the fortifications; the works were rebuilt by Lewis the Fifteenth. The duke of York besieged it in 1793 without success, indeed he was compelled to leave his artillery in the hands of the enemy. The trade of Dunkerque has increased since 1816; a large sluice was lately constructed for the purpose of clearing the sand that obstructs the entrance into the harbour.^h

Every place of any importance in France has now been mentioned; we have adhered strictly to the political divi-

^e It was built by Theodorie, count of Flanders, about the year 1160. (Enc. Meth.)—It is said that Thierry of Alsace, count of Flanders, either built or rebuilt Gravelines, where he died 1168. (Moreri.)—Thierry (Theodorie) of Alsace was count of Flanders from 1125 to 1168. (Moreri.)—There is no one of the name of Henry in the list of the counts (earls) of Flanders in Moreri.—P.

^f "It consists of spacious and regular streets, and is situated at the mouth of the Aa, in the midst of marshes."

^g Dunkerque signifies in Flemish a church on the downs.

^h "The road from Gravelines to Dunkirk* extends along the downs or sand hills (*collines de dunes*)† that rise on the sea shore. The latter place, a town of considerable population; and extent and of a regular construction, and one that has long been important from its commerce, owes its origin to a chapel built by St. Eloi‡ in the midst of the downs.§ It was indebted for its former commercial consequence to its position between two seas¶ and its proximity to England and the Netherlands, and it derives its present prosperity from the cod fishery.** Its seamen have always been noted for their intrepidity, and many of them have acquired distinction in naval warfare; of these the most celebrated is John Barth,†† to whom a statue has been erected in the Place Dauphine. Since the period when it took the rank of a city, in consequence of the privileges conferred upon it in the tenth century, by Baldwin the Young, earl of Flanders,‡‡ it has excited the covetousness and jealousy of several powers. In 1388, it was burnt by the English; built anew, it fell successively into the hands of Flanders, Spain and France.¶¶ It was taken from the Spaniards by the English, and from the latter by the French. §§ The treaty of Chateau-Cambresis¶¶ secured the possession of it to Spain;*** it was, however, retaken by Condé††† in 1646. The Spaniards again made themselves masters of it;‡‡‡ but Turenne, after his victory at the battle of the Downs (*des Dunes*),|||| reduced it anew in 1658. Having been ceded to the English by treaty, §§§ Louis XIV. purchased it of Charles II.¶¶¶ for the sum of five millions,*** and rendered it impregnable; but by a shameful clause in the treaty of Utrecht,†††† he was obliged to fill up the harbour and destroy the fortifications.††††† New works, however, were constructed by Louis XV. ||||| which restored it to its former importance. The Duke of York besieged it in 1793, but he was forced to retire after abandoning his artillery to the French. §§§§ The late treaties were unfavourable to it in their stipulations; but the privilege of a free port granted to it in 1816,¶¶¶¶ and the large sluice constructed for the removal of the sand banks that obstructed the entrance of its harbour, have nearly restored it to its former prosperity."

* Fr. "Dunkerque," Dunkerke, Dunquerque. Flem. Duinkerken (*duin*, a sand-hill or down, and *kerk*, a church.)—P.

† The coast of the Netherlands from Calais northwards is faced by hillocks of sand (Fr. *dunes*, Du. *duinen*), of the greatest importance for the protection of the country against the sea.—P.

‡ Population 24,517. M. B.

§ St. Eloy, bishop of Novon in the 7th century; born 588, died 658. (Moreri.)—P.

¶ *Kerk*, in Flemish, signifies a church. Dunkirk (*Dunquerque*) may therefore be rendered the church of the downs.—Dunkirk (*church of the Downs*), from a church said to have been built there by St. Eloi. (Tuckey, vol. 11. p. 11.)—Said to have been

sions of the country, and endeavoured to avoid as much as possible the tediousness arising from a long and often uniform description, but to do so wholly was incompatible with the nature of the subject. We cannot, however, leave the kingdom without taking a rapid survey of the roads, canals and finances. These causes and effects of public prosperity are more fully developed in the tables at the end of this book, and from those tables the reader will also be enabled to estimate the entire resources of France, as a commercial, agricultural and military nation.

Every one admits that numerous roads and canals have a powerful effect on the agriculture, commerce and general industry of a country. While in animated beings we admire the order with which the vital functions are ramified by the aid of vessels and organs constructed so as to diffuse motion into every part of the individual, we cannot fail to perceive that in like manner the welfare of a state depends mainly on its means of communication, and that it is by them, in fine, that life is made to circulate in every part of it. A few of the great roads in France are kept with sufficient care, but they form an exception, and it appears from the estimates of the ablest engineers, that it would require sixty-seven millions of francs^a or nearly £2,800,000 to prevent the remainder from becoming wholly useless.^{b c} The entire extent of the great roads in the kingdom is equal to eight millions of leagues;^d but as sixteen thousand square leagues are unprovided with them, their total length must be doubled before the advantages of commerce can be extended throughout the kingdom. To complete the roads that are still unfinished, would require at least forty-four millions of francs or £1,850,000.^e The sum of 111 millions of francs or £4,650,000^f is therefore necessary for their improvement and completion. Twenty millions of francs or less than £850,000 are annually expended on

them at present, it is vain then to expect that new roads can be made, indeed a long period must elapse before the present are finished and repaired.^g Ninety-six canals are mentioned in the statistics of France; of these sixty-four are completed, eighteen are in progress, and fourteen are projected. Those which are completed and in progress occupy an extent of six thousand and ninety-three English miles,^h an extent that must be more than doubled, before France can derive from canals all the advantages which England does at present. The sums necessary for the improvement and extension of the roads and canals are immense, but the vast resources that France possesses, must not be overlooked. The taxes may be estimated at nine hundred and eighty millions of francs or £41,333,340; Austria is the only state that has an equal population, Russia contains nearly twice the number of inhabitants, but in Russia the taxes are less than a half, and in Austria they do not amount to a third part of the above-mentioned sum.ⁱ The finances are in a much more prosperous state than in England; for if the products of both kingdoms were applied to the extinction of the national debt, it might be liquidated in the one in about four years and a half, while it could not be cancelled in the other in thirteen.

The quantity of money in a country is a sign of wealth: inasmuch as it corresponds generally with the circulation of commerce and industry: the money in flourishing states according to political economists, ought to be equal to a fifth part of the products; but in France it exceeds that amount, for the products of agriculture and industry represent 8,800,000,000 francs, while the money in circulation amounts to more than two thousand millions. The kingdom, it has been shown, has abundant means of improvement, it is highly favored by nature, the inhabitants are distinguished by their genius and industry.^j

so called because the tower of its church was the first object seen by mariners above the downs. (Moreri).—P.

† The North Sea and the English Channel.—Situated at the entrance from the former into the Straits of Dover.—P.

** The inhabitants derive their principal support from fishing and smuggling in peace, and from privateering in war. The principal contraband trade is in gin and tea to England. (Tuckey, vol. II. p. 11.)—It has, however, a regular foreign trade of considerable importance. It has employed as many as 200 merchantmen in time of peace.—P.

†† "Jean Bart" of Barth, the son of a fisherman; born 1651, died 1702—noted for prompt and daring enterprises. He was raised to the rank of commodore (*chef d'escadre*) and enabled, by Louis XIV.—P.

††† It was built by Baldwin the Young, earl of Flanders, about the year 960. (Moreri).—In the 12th century, it equipped a fleet against the Norman pirates, for which service important privileges were conferred upon it by Philip, earl of Flanders. (Enc. Meth.)—Philip of Alsace, son of Thierry of Alsace (see note p. 1016.) was earl of Flanders from 1183 to 1191. (Moreri).—P.

|||| It belonged for several centuries to the Earls of Flanders, and passed in the 15th century, to the house of Austria. It remained under the Spanish branch of that house a considerable time, but changed masters more than once during the wars in the Low Countries, previous to its final purchase by Louis XIV. in 1662. (Ed. Enc.)—Dunkirk was held either immediately by the earls of Flanders, or as a fief dependent on them, from its foundation in the tenth century till the 14th, when it passed to the house of Burgundy, by the marriage of Philip II. with Margaret of Flanders in 1369, and in the 15th to the house of Austria, by the marriage of the archduke Maximilian (afterwards the emperor Maximilian I.) with Mary of Burgundy in 1477. Charles V. left it with the Low Countries to Philip II. of Spain, and it continued in the possession of the Spaniards with some interruptions, till 1655, when it passed into the hands of the English, and in 1662, by purchase into those of France.—P.

§§ It was taken from the English in 1558, and was ceded to Spain by the treaty of Chateau-Cambresis in 1559. (Enc. Meth.)—The French under Marshal De Termes took it in 1558. (Moreri).—P.

¶¶ "Cateau-Cambresis." Chateau-Cambresis, Cateau-Cambresis—a small town five leagues S. E. of Cambrai.—P.

*** A. D. 1559.

††† Then Duke of Enghien.

|||| A. D. 1652. (Moreri.)

||||| The Downs (*les Dunes*)—the coasts of Flanders between Dunkirk and Newport, where Marshal Turenne gained a victory in 1658. (Enc. Meth.)—The battle of the Downs was fought between the French commanded by Turenne and assisted by the English auxiliaries furnished by Cromwell, and the Spaniards commanded by the Prince of Condé and Don John of Austria, also assisted by the English Royalists. (Guthrie and Gray's Hist. of the World, vol. XII. p. 25.)—P.

§§§ By treaty with Cromwell, the same year, 1658.

¶¶¶ A. D. 1662.

**** Livres.—Louis XIV. purchased it in 1662, for the sum of five millions (Moreri)—£209,000 (Ed. Encyc).—P.

†††† March 31, 1713.

††††† This was effected, in a considerable degree, in 1713, but Louis XIV. immedi-

ately cut a canal from Mardike (1 league S. of Dunkirk,) which gave the port almost all its former advantages. England, however, obliged him to shut the canal, and to abstain from any similar works within two leagues of Dunkirk; but in 1720, during the reign of Louis XV., the sea having broke through the bar formed across the harbour's mouth, it became again accessible to ships, and England being at war with Spain, France took advantage of this circumstance to reconstruct the jetties and fortifications; and though by the treaties of Aix la Chapelle (1748) and Paris (1763) the destruction of these works was stipulated, the execution was always eluded. (Tuckey, vol. II. p. 11, 12. Ed. Enc.)—P.

||||| See note †††.

§§§§ The British under the Duke of York opened the trenches before Dunkirk, Aug. 24, 1793. The works were carried on, though with trivial effect, till Sept. 6, when the covering army, commanded by the Hanoverian Field Marshal Freytag, was unexpectedly attacked and defeated by the French General Houchard; a successful sortie was at the same time made by the garrison, and the besieging army was compelled to retreat with the loss of all its heavy artillery. (Ed. Encyc. art. Britain.)—P.

¶¶¶¶ Dunkirk was declared a free port by Louis XIV. after his purchase of it in 1662, and continued so till 1793. (Tuckey, vol. II. p. 11.)—This privilege was restored in 1816.—P.

a "Nearly 67,000,000 francs" (£2,826,562).—P.

b Literally, to preserve them from the complete dilapidation with which they are threatened.—P.

c *Essais sur la construction des routes et des canaux, et la législation des travaux publics*, par M. Cordier, inspecteur divisionnaire des ponts-et-chaussées, Paris, 1823, t. II.

d Each of these leagues is equal to four thousand metres. M. B (The metre is equal to 39,371 English inches. Tr.)

e £1,856,250.—P.

f £4,682,812.—P.

g "Since only twenty millions of francs (£843,750) are employed for that purpose at present, far from being able to add to their number, it is difficult to determine when those that are now laid out, can be brought to a state of entire completion."

h "—occupy a surface of 975 myriametres."

i "The produce of the taxes in France may be estimated at 980,000,000 francs (£41,343,750) which is more than three times the produce of the taxes in the whole empire of Austria, the only power that has the same population,* and more than twice and a half that of the taxes in Russia, which contains nearly double the number of inhabitants."

* Population of Austria (1827,) 32,000,000, in round numbers—that of France (1827,) 31,820,000. (M. B.)—P.

j "A nation that possesses such important resources and such powerful means of development, will easily resume, when it chooses, the rank to which it is by nature entitled."

STATISTICAL TABLES OF FRANCE.

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF FRANCE, IN WHICH IT IS DIVIDED INTO REGIONS, GOVERNMENTS AND DEPARTMENTS.

Ancient Provinces or Military Governments. a	Capitals.	Divisions in each Government. b	The Departments formed from them.	Ancient Provinces or Military Governments.	Capitals.	Divisions in each Government.	The Departments formed from them.
<i>Northern Region.</i>							
1 French Flanders. ^c	Lille	Maritime Flanders, Walloon Flanders, ^d Cambrais, ^e French Hainault	} North.	5 Isle of France ^{cc}	Paris	Beauvaisis, ^{cd} Laonnois, ^{ce} Soissonnais, ^f French Vexin, ^{ez} Gouelle, ^{hh} Paris, ⁱⁱ Valois, ^{jj} Mantais, ^{kk} Hurepoix, ^{ll} French Brie, ^{mm} French Gatinais. ⁿⁿ	Aisne, Oise, Seine, Seine and Oise, Seine and Marne.
2 Artois	Arras						
3 Picardy ^f	Amiens	Amienais, ^g Santerre, ^h Vermandois, ⁱ Thierache, ^j Calaisis, ^k Boulonnais, ^l Ponthieu, ^m Vimeux. ⁿ	} Straits of Calais, Somme.	6 Champagne ^{oo}	Troyes	Rethelais, ^{pp} Rhemois, ^{qq} Brie, ^{rr} Perthois, ^{ss} Vallage, ^{tt} Bassigny, ^{uu} Senonais. ^{vv} ww	Ardennes, Aube, Marne, Upper Marne.
4 Normandy ^o	Rouen	Caux, ^p Bray, ^q Norman Vexin, ^r Roumois, ^s Ouche, ^t Liévin, ^u Auge, ^v Marches, ^w Bessin, ^x Bocage, ^y Houlme, ^z Cotentin, ^{aa} Avranchin. ^{bb}		Calvados, Eure, Channel, Orne, Lower Seine.			

"Governments."—France before the revolution was divided into 32 general governments or provinces. These were properly military governments, and were each of them under the immediate administration of a governor in chief, and included one or more lieutenant-generalships. (Enc. Meth. 1782.)—When the king assembled the States-General, the ancient order was to assemble them according to twelve principal governments (*prefectura generales*.) viz. Picardy, Normandy, Isle of France, Champagne, Brittany, Orleannois, Burgundy, Lyonnois including Auvergne, Provence, Dauphiny, Languedoc and Guienne. Moreri, 1725. Hubner, 1736.—P.

^b "Countries (*pays*)" dependent on each government."

* Not properly cotemporary divisions or subdivisions of the government, but anterior divisions of the kingdom included within its limits.—P.

^c "Flanders (*Flandre*)."—The government, as a part of France, was known simply as the province of Flanders, but the territory included in it was called French Flanders, in distinction from Austrian Flanders, Flanders in this sense being a common appellation for the Catholic Netherlands (now Belgium); but Flanders in its strict historical sense, is confined to the old county of Flanders, divided into French, Austrian and Dutch Flanders. See note ^a p. 1016.—P.

^d Maritime and Walloon Flanders here embrace French Flanders properly so called, or that portion of the county of Flanders annexed to France—Maritime Flanders comprehending the western part on the coast, and Walloon Flanders the eastern part, including the former chatellanies of Lille, Douay and Orchies. Walloon Flanders also extended into Belgium (the former Austrian Flanders,) including the country around Tournay. Taking Flanders in its more enlarged sense for the whole of the Catholic Netherlands, Walloon Flanders included Artois, Hainault, Walloon Flanders proper, Namur, Luxemburg, Cambresis, and according to some, Liege, or all that part of the country occupied by the Walloons, by whom a dialect of French was spoken, while in the rest of the Netherlands, the inhabitants spoke dialects of the Low Dutch.—P.

^e Picardy was divided into Upper, Middle and Lower—the first including Vermandois and Thierache; the second, Amienois and Santerre; and the third, the *Pays Reconquis*, Boulonnais, Ponthieu and Vimeux.—P.

^f St. Quentin the capital. ^g Amienois. ^h Peronne the capital.

ⁱ The district including Calais and Guines, (here styled Calaisis,) was called *Le Pays Reconquis* (the Reconquered Country,) from its having been reconquered in 1558 from the English, who had held it since 1347, when it was reduced by Edward III.—P.

^j Sec note ^b p. 1011. ^k m Abbeville the capital.

^l Vimeu.—St. Valery the capital.

^o Normandy was divided into Upper and Lower—the former including Caux, Bray, Vexin, Roumois, Ouche, Liévin and Auge; the latter, the Marches, Bessin, the Bocage, Houlme, Cotentin and Avranchin.—P.

^p "Le Pays de Caux." See p. 1008.

^q "Le Pays de Bray" (Brai)—a small district east of the Pays de Caux, including Neufchatel and Gournay.—P.

^r "Vexin Normand."—Gisors the capital.—P.

^s Roumois or Romnois, Lat. *Ager Rothomogensis* (Moreri)—a small district between the Rille and the Seine. Quillbecuf the capital.—P.

^t "Le Pays d'Ouche," Ouche (Vosgien)—including Conches and Bernay.—P.

^u Lat. *Ager Lexoviensis*—including Lisieux, and Honfleur (Moreri).—P.

^v "Le Pays d'Auge," La Vallée d'Auge (Vosgien.) Auge (Enc. Meth.)—including Pont-l'Evêque and Honfleur (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^w "Les Marches" (the borders or marches)—included in the bailiwick (*bailliage*) of Alençon (Hubner).—P.

^x Bayeux the capital. ^y "Le Bocage" (the wood.)—Vire the capital.—P.

^z "Le Pays d'Houlme," Houlme (Vosgien)—a small district between Domfront and Falaise.—P.

^{aa} See note ^a p. 1004. ^{bb} See note ¹ p. 1004.

^{cc} "Ile-de-France." ^{dd} See note ¹ p. 992.

^{ee} Laonnois (Vosgien).—Laon the capital.—P.

^{ff} Soissonnois (Enc. Meth.)

^{gg} "Vexin Français" (François. Moreri)—Pontoise the capital.—P.

^{hh} Goelle (Vosgien.) Goelle (Hubner).—Dammartin the capital.—P.

ⁱⁱ Isle of France proper (Enc. Meth.)—including Paris. A distinction is made between the Isle of France proper, or simply France, and Paris; the former including the country around St. Denis, to the north of Paris, as far as Montmorency, and the latter, that in the immediate vicinity of Paris. All the places in the former are surnamed *en France* (in France.) as St. Denis en France. (Moreri. Hubner).—P.

^{jj} Formerly a dutchy.—Crespy the capital.—P.

^{kk} Mantois.—Mantes the capital.

^{ll} Hurepoix (Vosgien)—including Corbeil and Dourdan, and according to some, Fontainebleau and Melun (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^{mm} "Brie Française."—Brie, a country in France, partly in the government of Champagne, and partly in that of the Isle of France; the former called Brie Champenoise, and the latter, Brie Parisienne or Brie Française. It was also divided into Upper Brie (*Haute Brie*)—Meaux the capital; Lower Brie (*Basse Brie*)—Provins the capital; and *Brie Pouillouse*—Chateau-Thierry the capital. These three towns are situated in Brie Champenoise; Brie-Comte-Robert and Melun (Moreri) were included in Brie Française. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

ⁿⁿ "Gatinais Français" (Gâtinois Français Enc. Meth.)—Gâtinois (Gastinois, Lat. *Vastinium*. Moreri) is derived from *gastine*, an old French word signifying a clearing in a forest, or waste land, from the Latin *casto*, Fr. *gaster*, *gâter*. The country of Gâtinois included the forests of Fontainebleau and Montargis, and was divided into Gâtinois François and Gâtinois Orleanois; the former including Nemours, Moret and Fontainebleau, and the latter, Montargis. (Enc. Meth. Moreri).—P.

^{oo} Champagne is divided into Upper on the S. and S. E. and Lower on the N. and N. W.—P.

^{pp} Rethelois, Retelois—including Rethel, Rocroy, Charleville and Mezieres (in the Ardennes.) (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^{qq} Remois (Enc. Meth.)—including Reims (the capital,) Epernay and Ay.—P.

^{rr} Brie Champenoise. See note ^{mm}.

^{ss} Pertois (Enc. Meth.)—including Vitry le François (the capital,) St. Dizier, Vassy and Joinville (Moreri).—P.

^{tt} Bar sur Aube the capital.

^{uu} Bassigni (Enc. Meth.)—divided into Bassigni proper, in Upper Champagne, (Chaumont the capital; including also Langres and Andelot,) and the bailiwick (*bailliage*) of Bassigni, inclosed in Barrois, (Vaucouleurs the capital.) The bailiwick included, however, in its jurisdiction, several towns properly belonging to Barrois: viz. Gondrecourt, La Motte, Bourmont, La Marche, Chatillon and Confans.—P.

^{vv} Senonais (Enc. Meth.)—forming the northern half of the department of the Yonne; Sens the capital.—P.

^{ww} Champagne Proper should also be added to this list. It included Troyes, Chalons and St. Menchould.—P.

Ancient Provinces or Military Governments.	Capitals.	Divisions in each Government.	The Departments formed from them.
7 Lorraine	Nancy	{ Messin, ^a Toulois, Verdunois, French Luxembourg, ^b Principality of Bouillon, ^c Barrois. ^{d e}	{ Meurthe, Meuse, Moselle, Vosges.
<i>Central Region.</i>			
8 Orleanais ^f	Orleans	{ Beauce, ^g Gatinais, Orleanais, ^h Puyssaye, ⁱ Blaisois, ^j Sologne. ^{k l}	{ Eure and Loir, Loiret, Loirand Cher.
9 Touraine	Tours	{ Indre and Loire.
10 Berry ^m	Bourges	{ Cher, Indre.
11 Nivernais ⁿ	Nevers	{ Nièvre.
12 Bourbonnais ^o	Moulins	{ Allier.
13 Marche ^p	Gueret	{ Creuse.
14 Limousin ^q	Limoges	{ Correze, Upper Vienne.

Ancient Provinces or Military Governments.	Capitals.	Divisions in each Government.	The Departments formed from them.
15 Auvergne ^r	Clermont	Limagne ^s	{ Cantal, Puy de Dome.
<i>Western Region.</i>			
16 Maine ^t	Le Mans	Perche ^u	{ Mayenne, Sarthe.
17 Anjou ^v	Angers	Saumurois ^w	{ Maine and Loire.
18 Brittany ^x	Rennes	{ North Coast, Finisterre, Ille and Vilaine, Lower Loire, Morbihan.
19 Poitou ^y	Poitiers	{ Two Sevres, Vendee, Vienne.
20 Aunis ^z	La Rochelle	{ Charente,
21 Saintonge ^{aa} and Angoumois ^{bb}	Saintes	Brouageais ^{cc}	{ Lower Charente.

^a "Le Pays Messin," or Le Messin (Enc. Meth.) See note ^k p. 974.—P.

^b "Luxembourg Français"—a strip of land along the southern frontiers of the dutchy of Luxembourg, ceded to France by the treaty of the Pyrenees (1659), including Thionville and Montmedy.—P.

^c Before the revolution, the dutchy of Bouillon (Buillon. Moreri).—This dutchy, with the principality of Sedan, belonged to the house of La Tour d'Auvergne, previously to 1651. The dutchy was, however, at that time in possession of the bishop of Liege, but claimed by the house of La Tour. In 1651, Frederick Maurice, duke of Bouillon, ceded to France his sovereignty over Sedan, reserving to himself all his rights to the dutchy of Bouillon, and requiring that it should be restored to him, in case it should be wrested by France from the bishop of Liege. Louis XIV. having conquered the dutchy in 1676, restored it to Godfrey Maurice, then duke, in 1678. It continued in possession of the family till the revolution. Prince Charles de Rohan possessed it (1822) under the sovereignty of the king of the Netherlands.—P.

^d Dutchy of Bar, or Le Barrois (Enc. Meth.)—situated on both sides of the Meuse on the confines of Champagne, and including Bar le Duc, St. Mihiel, Longwy, Pont à Mousson and Varennes, in the three jurisdictions of Bar, St. Mihiel and Clermont, and several towns in the bailiwick of Bassigny. See note ^{uu} p. 1018.—P.

^e Lorraine Proper, or the dutchy of Lorraine, should be added to the list. It included Nancy, Luneville and Epinal.—P.

^f Orléanois, Orléannois. (Enc. Meth.)

^g Beauce, Beaulée or Beausse (Moréri)—situated between the Isle of France and Orleanois Proper; Chartres the capital. (Enc. Meth.)—Under the name of Great Beauce, the Pays Chartrain (Beauce Proper), Gâtinois, Puyssaye, Orleanois Proper, Sologne, part of Blaisois near the Loire, and even Vendômois and Dunois, were included by some authors. (Moréri.)—P.

^h "Le Gatinais Orléanois"—Orleanois Gatinais. See note ^{uu} p. 1018.—Orleanois Proper is not mentioned in the original, although a place would seem to be given it by the mistake of the translator. It included the country around Orleans on both banks of the Loire; that on the north, called Upper, and that on the south, Lower Orleanois.—P.

ⁱ Puyssaye (Enc. Meth.) Puyssaye (Moréri)—a small country in Gatinois Orleanois, on the confines of Auxerrois and Nivernois; including St. Fargeau, in the department of the Yonne, and St. Amand, in that of the Nièvre.—P.

^j Situated on both sides of the Loire, west of Orleanois Proper—Jois the capital.—P.

^k Situated south of the Loire—Romorantin the capital.—P.

^l Dunois and Vendômois should be added to the list—Chateaudun, the capital of the former, and Vendôme, of the latter; also Perche-Gouet (see note ^u.)—P.

^m Berri (Enc. Meth.)—divided into Upper and Lower by the Cher; the former on the east and the latter on the west of the river.—P.

ⁿ Nivernois (Enc. Meth.)—Nivernois was divided into eight cantons or districts, two of which are worthy of notice: viz. Morvan, a mountainous country on the eastern limits, partly in Burgundy, including Corbigny and Chateau-Chinon, and Bazois, at the foot of the mountains of Morvan on the west, including St. Saulge and Decize.—P.

^o Bourbonnois—divided into Upper and Lower; Moulins in the latter.—The small district of Combrailles is by some included in Bourbonnois; by others in Marche (Auvergne. Enc. Meth.)—Evaux (Evaon) the capital. It is now included in the department of the Creuse.—P.

^p La Marche—divided into Upper and Lower; Gueret in the former

and Bellae in the latter. The province of Marehe is partly comprehended in the department of the Upper Vienne (arrondissement of Bel lac.)—P.

^q Limosin—divided into Upper and Lower by the Vezere; the former on the north, the latter on the south of the river—Limoges, the capital of the former; Tulle, of the latter.—P.

^r Divided into Upper and Lower—the former on the south (Aurillac the capital); the latter on the north (Clermont the capital,) including Limagne. Part of Auvergne is included in the department of the Upper Loire (arrondissement of Brioude.)—P.

^s "La Limagne" (Limane)—a fertile country in Lower Auvergne, extending along the Allier, including Clermont, Riom and Issoire.—P.

^t The government of Maine was formed by the old province of Maine and Perche; the former on the west, the latter on the east. The province of Maine, or Maine Proper, was divided into Upper and Lower; the former on the east, (Le Mans the capital;) the latter on the west, (Laval the capital.)—P.

^u Perche was divided into Upper Perche or the County of Perche, and Lower Perche or Perche-Gouet; the latter annexed to the government of Orleanois. The former occupied the contiguous portions of the departments of the Orne and the Eure and Loir, including Nogent le Rotrou, Mortagne and Belesme, and also the district of Thimerais, on the confines of Normandy and the Pays Chartrain—Chateaufort the capital. The latter, situated to the south of the former, occupied contiguous portions of the departments of the Eure and Loir and the Sarthe, including Montmirail, Bazoches and Brou.—P.

^v Anjou was divided by the Loire into Upper and Lower—the former on the south, (Saumur the capital); the latter on the north, (Angers the capital.) (Moréri.)—The Enc. Meth. reverses the order, placing Angers in Upper Anjou.—P.

^w Saumurois, a country in France, including certain districts in Anjou and Poitou, formed into a separate military government by Henry IV.—Saumur the capital.—P.

^x The province of Brittany (*Bretagne*) included nine bishoprics, before the revolution: viz. Rennes, Nantes, St. Malo, St. Brieux, Dol, Vannes, Cornouailles (Quimper-Coentin,) St. Pol de Leon and Treguier; the five former occupied Upper Brittany on the east, (Rennes the capital;) the four latter, Lower Brittany on the west, (Vannes the capital.) The military government of Brittany was divided into two lieutenant-generalships; one including the County of Nantes or the Pays Nantais; the other, all the rest of Brittany (Upper and Lower.)—P.

^y Situated on both sides of the Loire; the southern part (*d'outre-Loire*) originally in Lower Poitou; the northern (*en deça la Loire*.) in Upper Brittany. The whole was, however, included in the military government of Brittany.—P.

^z Poietou (Moréri)—divided into Upper and Lower; the former on the east, (Poitiers the capital;) the latter on the west, including La Vendée, (Fontenay le Comte the capital.)—P.

^{aa} Le Pays d'Aunis—the smallest province in France, including La Rochelle, Rochefort, and the Isles of Rhe and Oleron; now included in the department of the Lower Charente.—P.

^{bb} Saintonge or Xaintonge (province)—divided into Northern and Southern by the Charente; St. Jean d'Angely capital of the former; Saintes, of the latter.—P.

^{cc} A small province, forming with that of Saintonge, the single general government of Saintonge-Angoumois (Enc. Meth.)—Angoulême the capital.—P.

^{dd} A small district in Saintonge, on the coast S. of the Charente, annexed to the government of Aunis. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

Ancient Provinces or Military Governments.	Capitals.	Divisions in each government.	The Departments formed from them.	Ancient Provinces or Military Governments.	Capitals.	Divisions in each Government.	The Departments formed from them.
<i>Eastern Region.</i>							
22 Alsace ^a	Strasbourg	Sundtgau ^b	{ Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine.	24 Burgundy ^f	Dijon	Auxerrois, ^g Bailiwick of La Montagne, ^h Auxois, ⁱ Dijonnais, ^j Autunais, ^k Chalonnois, ^l Charolois, ^m Maconnais, ⁿ Principality of Dombes, ^o Bresse, ^p Bugey, ^q Gex ^r and Valromey. ^s	Ain, Cote d'Or, Saone and Loire, Yonne.
23 Franche-Comté ^c	Besançon	{ Bailiwicks of Amont, Aval, Besançon, and Dole. ^{d e}	{ Doubs, Jura, Upper Saone.				

^a The government or province of Alsace was formerly a part of the German Empire, and was ceded to France by the treaty of Munster in 1648, with the reservation, however, of its imperial immunities; but by the treaty of Ryswick in 1697, a final cession was made to France in full sovereignty. While a part of the German Empire, it included the territories of Alsace (Germ. *Elsass*, Lat. *Alsatia*) and Sundgau; the former divided into Upper and Lower (called the Upper and Lower Landgraviates of Alsace)—Colmar, the capital of the one, and Hagenau, of the other. The greater part of the Lower Landgraviate was possessed by the bishop of Strasbourg, and most of the remainder of the two Landgraviates, by the house of Austria. Besides these, the province included the imperial abbey of Murbach and Munster in Gregorienthal, the bailiwick or prefecture (*landvogtey*) of Hagenau, comprehending the ten united imperial cities of Hagenau, Colmar, Schlettstadt, Weissenburg, Landau [now in Rhenish Bavaria,] Obernheim, Rosheim, Munster in Gregorienthal, Kaisersberg and Turkheim, and also the free imperial city of Strasbourg.—P.

^b The territory (*landschaft*) of Sundgau or Suntgau (Suntgaw or Sundgaw (Enc. Meth.)—Suntgaw or Sundgow (Moreri)—Suntgov (Hubner)—one of the *gous* (Germ. *gauen*, Lat. *pagi*) or districts, into which the country on the Upper Rhine was divided in the middle ages) included that part of the province of Alsace, south of the Upper Landgraviate. It belonged chiefly to the house of Austria, and was originally possessed in a great measure by the counts of Pfirt (Fr. *Ferrette*); it also included the free imperial city of Mulhausen, and the towns of Altkirch, Befort and Huningen.—P.

^c Formerly called the County of Burgundy (Fr. *Comté de Bourgogne*) or Upper Burgundy. It was originally governed by counts of its own, but in 1369 it came into the possession of Philip the Bold, duke of Burgundy, by marriage with Margaret heiress of the county, and again in 1477, along with the Netherlands, into that of Maximilian I. then archduke of Austria, by marriage with Mary, daughter of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy. In 1512, Maximilian I. erected it, along with the Netherlands, into a tenth circle, that of Burgundy, under the protection of the empire, but not subject to its charges nor to the sovereignty of the emperor. Charles V. who had annexed to it the duchy of Lorraine, ceded this circle with Spain to his son Philip II., in whose family Franche Comté remained till 1674, when it was conquered by Louis XIV., and finally ceded to him by the treaty of Nimeguen in 1678. Formerly Besançon (Germ. *Bisanz*) was reckoned a free imperial city, and the archbishop of Besançon and the abbot of Lure (Germ. *Ludders*), princes of the empire. These were immediate states of the empire of early date, (the city of Besançon from the 10th century,) and were included in the circle of the Upper Rhine.—P.

^d "Dôle."—See note ^a p. 966.

^e Franche-Comté was divided into three parts, called great bailiwicks (*grands bailliages*), viz. the upper or that of Amont (*à mont*), the middle or that of Dole, and the lower or that of Aval (*à val*). (Moreri. Enc. Meth.)—It was divided into three upper-bailiwicks, viz. those of Amont, Dole, and Besançon or Salines. (Hubner.) This division does not correspond with the former, since Besançon was not included in the great bailiwick of Aval, but in that of Dole.—Frache-Comté was also divided into fourteen bailiwicks (*bailliages*) or subdelegations, viz. Vesoul, Gray, Dolc, Lons le Saulnier and Poligny, in the Low Country (*pays uni*), and Pontarlier, Orgelet, Salins, Ornans, Beaume, St. Claude, Quingey, Arbois and Besançon, in the High or Mountain Country (*pays de montagnes*). (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^f The term Burgundy (*Bourgogne*) has several significations in history and geography. The government of Burgundy included not only the province of Burgundy (Burgundy Proper,) but also Bresse, with Bugey and Valromey, and the country of Gex. The province of Burgundy included the duchy of Burgundy proper, with its dependencies, the counties of Charolois, Mâconnois, Auxerrois and Bar sur Seine. The duchy proper included Dijonnois, Autunois, Châlonnois, Auxois, and the *Pays de la Montagne*. (Enc. Meth. Moreri.)—Burgundy in its more enlarged sense, included Franche-Comté, called Upper Burgundy or the County of Burgundy, as well as the Province or Duchy of Burgundy, called also Lower Burgundy.—The first kingdom of Burgundy was formed by the Burgundians (*Burgundiones*) in the 5th century. It included the duchy of Burgundy, Franche-Comté, Provence, Dauphiny, Lyonnais, Savoy and Switzerland. It was annexed to France in 534 by the sons of Clovis. The kingdom of Burgundy on this side the Jura (*Burgundia Cisjurana*), founded in 855 in favour of Charles, third son of the emperor Lothaire I., included Provence and the duchy of Lyons. (Enc. Meth.)—The kingdom of Arles or Provence, which was held by Charles, third son of the emperor Lothaire, consisted of Provence, Dauphiny, and part of the ancient kingdom of Burgundy; it terminated before 864, on the death of Charles. (Guthrie and Gray, vol. X. p. 406, 408.)—The kingdom of Cisjurane Burgundy, or the first kingdom of Arles, comprehended the countries situated between the

Saone, the Alps and the Sea; it was usurped by Boso, son in law of the emperor Louis II., in 879, and was ceded in 929 to Rodolph II. king of Transjurane Burgundy. (Moreri.)—The kingdom of Burgundy beyond the Jura (*Burgundia Transjurana*), founded by Rodolph, son of Conrad, count of Paris, in 888, included at first only Switzerland, and Chablais (in Savoy.) Rodolph II. his son, united the two kingdoms of Cisjurane and Transjurane Burgundy, and formed the second kingdom of Arles (also called Transjurane Burgundy.) Rodolph III. his grandson, dying without issue, left it in 1032, to the emperor Conrad the Salic. (Moreri. Enc. Meth.)—The duchy of Burgundy never formed part of either of these two kingdoms of Cisjurane and Transjurane Burgundy, but was governed by its dukes, who held of the crown of France. Philip the Bold, the first of the last line of dukes, acquired by marriage, Franche-Comté and part of the Netherlands, and afterwards the remainder of the Netherlands were annexed to the domains of the family, rendering it one of the most powerful in Europe; but on the death of Charles the Bold without male issue, in 1477, these estates were dismembered—Louis XI. seizing the duchy of Burgundy as a male fief, since which time it has remained in the possession of the crown of France, and the other possessions passing to Maximilian I. by marriage. (See note ^c.)—The circle of Burgundy is described in note ^c.—P.

^g Comprehending the N. W. corner of Burgundy Proper; possessed by its counts till 1371, then united to the crown, and in 1435 transferred to Philip duke of Burgundy by Charles VII.—Auxerre the capital.—P.

^h "Le Bailliage de la Montagne" (Le Pays de la Montagne or La Montagne—so called from its hilly surface)—a small country on the northern frontier of Burgundy, projecting into Champagne. It extends along the Seine, and includes Châtillon sur Seine and Bar sur Seine.—Bar sur Seine, originally a county in Champagne, by which it is entirely surrounded, was ceded to Philip of Burgundy in 1435, by Charles VII.—P.

ⁱ Between Dijonnois and Auxerrois—Semur en Auxois the capital.

^j Dijonnois—including Dijon, Auxonne and St. Jean de Losne.

^k Autunois—bordering on Nivernois; including Autun the capital, Bourbon-Lancy and Semur en Briennois.—Briennois or Brionnois, a small district, extending along the Loire on the confines of Bourbonnois.—P.

^l Châlonnois, Châlonnois—divided into two parts by the Saone; that on the west, called Châlonnois Proper or La Montagne, situated in Burgundy, (Châlons sur Saone); that on the east, (exclusive of the district between the Saone and the Doubs (Verdun)—in Burgundy,) called Bresse Châlonnoise, situated in Bresse, (Louhans).—P.

^m Charolois—a hilly country west of Châlons and Mâcon, traversed by the canal of the Centre, and including Charolles and Digoin; at first a county held in fief of the dukes of Burgundy, but purchased by Philip the Bold in 1390, and annexed to the duchy of Burgundy.—P.

ⁿ Mâconnois, Masconnois—on the west of the Saone, by which it is separated from Bresse; including Mâcon, Cluny and Tournus—originally a county; united to the crown in 1238, and ceded by Charles VII. to Philip of Burgundy in 1435.—P.

^o Situated on the E. bank of the Saone below Mâcon—Trevoux the capital: erected into an independent sovereignty about the commencement of the 11th century, with which title it continued in the hands of different families till 1762, when Louis XV. purchased it and annexed it to Bresse.—P.

^p Bresse, in its more enlarged sense, included Bresse Proper, the sovereignty of Dombes, and the countries of Bugey, Valromey and Gex, and was bounded by the Saone on the west, the Rhone on the south and south-east, Switzerland on the north-east, and Franche-Comté and Burgundy on the north.—Bresse Proper included that part of Bresse between the Saone, the Rhone, the Ain and the Seille, exclusive of Dombes—Bourg the capital.—Bresse Châlonnoise, north of the Seille, was annexed to the duchy of Burgundy in 1289. (See note ^l.)—Bresse Proper, Bugey (including Valromey,) and Gex, belonged to the house of Savoy, previous to 1601, at which time they were ceded to Henry IV. in exchange for the marquisate of Saluzzo in Piedmont.—P.

^q A small country between the Ain and the Rhone, including Belley, Seissel and Nantua. (See note ^p.)

^r "Pays de Gex."—Bailiwick (*Bailliage*) of Gex. (Moreri.)—A small district in Switzerland in the Pays de Vaud, situated between Mount Jura on the north and the Rhone and the Lake of Geneva on the south; ceded to France in 1601 by the duke of Savoy. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^s Marquisate of Valromey—a very small district in Bugey on the Rhone; Seissel the capital.—P.

Ancient Provinces or Military Governments.	Capitals.	Divisions in each government.	The Departments formed from them.	Ancient Provinces or Military Governments.	Capitals.	Divisions in each Government.	The Departments formed from them.
25 Lyonnais ^a	Lyons	Forez, ^b Beaujolais. ^c	Loire, Rhone.	28 County of Foix ^j	Foix.	Donezan ^k	Arriège.
<i>Southern Region.</i>							
26 Languedoc ^d	Toulouse	{ Gevaudan, ^e Velay, ^f Vivarais. ^g	{ Ardeche, Aude, Gard, Hérault, Upper Garonne, Upper Loire, Lozere, Tarn.	29 Guienne ^l and Gascony ^m	{ Bordeaux and Auch	{ Bordelais, ⁿ Bazadois, ^o Agenois, ^p Périgord, ^q Quercy, ^r Rouergue, ^s Landes, ^t Basque Chalosse, ^u Condomois, ^v Gabardan, ^w Armagnac, ^x Bigorre, ^y Comminge, ^z Couserans. ^{aa}	{ Aveyron, Dordogne, Gers, Gironde, Lot and Garonne, Landes, Upper Pyrenees, Tarn and Garonne.
27 Roussillon ^h	Perpignan	{ Valcspir, Capsir, French Cerdagne. ⁱ	{ Eastern Pyrenees.				

^a Lyonnais, Lionnois.—The government of Lyonnais included the three provinces of Lyonnais Proper, Forez and Beaujolais—the former containing Lyons (the capital,) Condrieux and St. Genis-Laval.—P.

^b That part of the government extending along the valley of the Loire, on the west of Lyonnais and Beaujolais—divided into Upper and Lower; the former on the south, including Feurs, St. Etienne and St. Chamont; the latter on the north, including Roanne and Montbrison.—Forez was united to the crown by Francis I.—P.

^c Beaujolais.—That part of the government north of Lyonnais Proper—situated between the Saone and the Loire, and including Villefranche (the capital,) Beaujeu and Belleville sur Saone.—P.

^d Languedoc, considered as a government, included Languedoc Proper, Gevaudan, Velay and Vivarais, the three last of which were comprehended under the general name of the Cevennes.* Languedoc Proper was divided into Upper and Lower—the former on the west, included the country of Toulouse (*Le Toulousain* or *Tolosain*.) also called Upper Languedoc Proper; Albigeois on the north, (Alby the capital;) Lauraguais on the east, (Castelnaudary the capital;) and the county of Foix on the south (see note i)—the latter on the east, along the Mediterranean, included the three quarters of Narbonne, Beziers and Nismes. (Moreri.)—Languedoc is generally said to have been derived from *langue d'oc* (the language of *oc* (yes)—that word having been used by those who spoke the Tolosan language, while in the north of France, *oi* was used for the same purpose—whence the distinction between the countries of the *langue d'oc* and the *langue d'oi*.) Languedoc in this original sense, comprehended most of the country to the south of the Loire, viz. Languedoc, Guienne, Limousin and Auvergne; but it was early restricted to the province of Languedoc, which was annexed to the crown in 1361.—P.

* Languedoc was divided into three parts, viz. the Upper, the Lower, and the Cevennes. The Cevennes (*Serennés*), considered as a division of the government of Languedoc, comprehending only Gevaudan, Velay and Vivarais, did not include the whole of the mountains called by the same name, which extended into Lower Languedoc, and occupied a considerable part of the dioceses of Alais, Uzès and Lodève. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^e Givaudan (Moreri)—formerly Gabauldan, from the ancient *Gaba-li* (Enc. Meth.)—Situated to the west of Velay and Vivarais; including Mende (the capital,) Châteaufort de Randon and Florac.—P.

^f A mountainous country, bounded by Gevaudan, Vivarais, Forez and Auvergne, and now included in the department of the Upper Loire—Le Puy the capital.—P.

^g Vivarez (Moreri)—extended along the west bank of the Rhone between Lyonnais Proper and Lower Languedoc; Viviers (the capital.)—Divided into Upper and Lower; the former on the north, (Annonay the capital;) the latter on the south, (Villeneuve de Berg the capital.)—P.

^h The government of Roussillon comprehended Roussillon Proper, the small countries of Valespir, Confent (Conflans) and Capsir, and French Cerdagne, all of which were conquered from Spain by Louis XIII. and ceded to France by the treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659.—Roussillon Proper, of which the three small countries above mentioned were appendages, extended along the Mediterranean from Lower Languedoc to Catalonia—Perpignan the capital. Its name was derived from the ancient city of *Ruseino*, near Perpignan, of which only a tower remains, called the Tower of Roussillon (*Tor Rossello*, in the language of the country.) It was originally a county, possessed by the counts of Roussillon and Ampurias (Ampurdan,) but in the 12th century was united to the crown of Arragon. It continued in the possession of Spain till it was annexed to France as above mentioned.—Confent (originally a county) and Capsir were situated in the north-western part of Roussillon, towards the Pyrenees; Villefranche, the capital of the former, and Puy-Val d'Or, of the latter.—Valespir included Collioure and Port Vendre on the southern frontier of Roussillon (Hubner.)—P.

ⁱ "La Cerdagne Française."—Cerdagne (Sp. *Cerduña*—Cerdaigne or La Cerdagna. Moreri,) a small country in the Pyrenees to the west of Roussillon, (originally a county,) part of which belongs to Spain (Puycerda the capital,) and part to France (ceded in 1659—Mont-Louis the capital.)—P.

^j This government included the county of Foix, properly so called, (united to the crown of France by Henry IV.,) the country of Donezan* (*Pays de Donezan*), and the valley of Andorre. (See for the latter, the description of Spain, at the end.)—P.

* Donnezan or Donnezan—a small country in the Pyrenees, united to the government of Foix; Quercit the capital. It includes several passes from Catalonia to Foix. (Dict. Trevoux.)—P.

^k See note i*.

l "Guyenne."

^m The government of Guienne, (here called that of Guienne and Gascony,) was divided into Upper and Lower; the former, on the east, the latter, on the west. Lower Guienne included Bordelais, Périgord, Agenois, Condomois, Bazadois, the Landes, Gascony Proper, and the countries of Soule and Labour; Upper Guienne, Quercy, Rouergue, Armagnac, Comminges, Couserans and Bigorre. Guienne Proper included Bordelais, Medoc (that part of Bordelais between the Gironde and the sea—Leparré the capital,) Buch (*Capitulat de Buch*—a small district of Gascony on the bay of Arcachon,) and the country between two seas (*Pays d'entre deux mers*—see note n.) (Enc. Meth.)—Guienne, a province of France, with the title of duchy, [Guienne Proper,] including Bourdelois, L'Entre-deux-mers, Medoc, Bazadois, Agenois and Condomois. Guienne in its more particular meaning (*Guienne particulière*) included only the *Senchaussée* of Bordeaux. Guienne is said to be a corruption of Aquitaine (first contracted into *Quienne*), and not to have been used till the 13th century. (Moreri.)—Gascony (*Gasconne*), a province of France, forming part of the government of Guienne. Gascony Proper included the Landes, Chalosse, Tursan, Marsan, and the Pays d'Albret; Gascony, improperly so called, also included the Pays des Basques, Bearn, Bigorre, Comminges, Armagnac, Condomois, Bazadois and Bourdelois. (Enc. Meth.)—The province of Gascony included the Landes, Chalosse, Tursan, Marsan, Bigorre, Comminges, Armagnac, Couserans, Gabardan, Lomagne, Astarac, Riviere-Verdun, Nebouzan, the Four Valleys (*Quatre Vallées*), the Pays d'Albret, Condomois, and part of Bazadois. (Vosgien.)—Tursan, including Aire (the capital) and Miremont.—Marsan, originally a viscounty under the dukes of Gascony—Mont de Marsan the capital.—Pays d'Albret, (so called from the small town of Albret or Labrit,) originally a viscounty, then a duchy; Nerac the capital.—Lomagne or Laumagne (Lectoure the capital,) and Astarac or Estarac (Mirande the capital,) were districts in Armagnac.—Riviere-Verdun, a district in Armagnac along the Garonne, including Grenade (the capital) and Verdun.—Nebouzan, a small country on the Garonne, adjoining Comminges; St. Gaudens the capital.—*Les Quatre Vallées*, a district in Armagnac, now in the department of the Upper Pyrenees, consisting of the four valleys of Magnoac, Aure, Neste and Barouse.—The Duchy of Guienne and Gascony (consisting of Guienne Proper and Gascony Proper) was united to the crown of England in 1152, by the marriage of Henry II. with Eleanor, heiress of the duchy; it continued in the possession of the English till it was annexed to France by Charles VII. in 1453.—P.

ⁿ Bourdelois.—The country in the vicinity of Bordeaux (the capital,) sometimes called Guienne Proper; including also Blaye, Libourne, Bourg, Rions and Cadillac, (the latter the capital of the country between two seas (*Pays d'entre deux mers*)—that part of Bourdelois between the Garonne and the Dordogne.) (Moreri.)—P.

^o Bazas the capital.

^p Agennois. (Moreri.)—Originally a county; then united to the duchy of Guienne.—Agen the capital.—P.

^q Province, with the title of county; united to the crown of France by Henry IV. (Moreri.)—Divided into Upper or White Périgord on the Ille (Perigueux the capital,) and Lower or Black Périgord on the Dordogne (Sarlat the capital.)—P.

^r Quercy (Moreri;) formerly Cahourcin, from the ancient *Cadurci* (Enc. Meth.) A province of France in the government of Guienne; ceded to England by John, in full sovereignty; restored to France by Charles V.—divided into Upper and Lower by the Lot; the former, called Causse, on the north (Cahors the capital;) the latter on the south (Montauban the capital.)—P.

^s Province in the government of Guienne; united to the crown of France by St. Louis (1258)—divided into the County (County of Rodez. Moreri,) including Rodez (the capital,) Entraigues and St. Geniez de Rivedolt; the Upper Marche, including Millau (the capital,) St. Afrique and Severac le Château; and the Lower Marche, including Villefranche (the capital) and Sauveterre.—P.

^t "The Landes (*Les Landes*)," sometimes called *Landes de Bordeaux*—a country of France in Gascony, extending along the sea coast from Guienne Proper to Bearn and the Pays de Labour; including Dax (the capital,) Tartas and Peyrehorade.—The term Landes is also

^{u v w x y z aa} See next page for these notes.

Ancient Provinces or Military Governments	Capitals.	Divisions in each Government.	The Departments formed from them.
30 Bearn ^a	Pau	Lower Navarre ^b	Lower Pyrenees.
31 Dauphiny ^c	Grenoble	Baronnies, ^d Gapeçais, ^e Embrunais, ^f Briançonnais, ^g Gresivaudan, ^h Royanes, ⁱ Tricastin, ^j Valeninois, ^k Diois, ^l Viennois. ^m	

Ancient Provinces or Military Governments.	Capitals.	Divisions in each Government.	The Departments formed from them.
32 Provence ⁿ	Aix		Lower Alps, Mouths of the Rhone, Var. Corsica. Vaucluse.
Corsica ^o Comtat Venaissin ^p r Comtat d'Avignon ^q r	Avignon		

applied to all the country covered with sandy heaths (*landes*) and pine forests, between the Garonne and the Adour; divided into the Greater Landes, between Bordeaux and Bayonne, and the Lesser Landes, between Bazas and Mont de Marsan.—P.

^a "The country of the Basques (*Le Pays des Basques*.) Chalosse (*La Chalosse*)"—The *Pays des Basques*, called also *Les Basques*, *Les Pays Basques* (the Basque or Biscayan countries,) and French Biscay (*Biscaye Française*), extended along the sea coast from the Adour to the Spanish frontiers. It was divided into Labour (*Labourd* (Moreri.) *Pays de Labour*.) including all the sea coast, with the towns of Bayonne (the capital,) Andaye and St. Jean de Luz; Lower Navarre (see note ^b p. 1022;) and Soule (*Pays de Soule*.) extending along the Pyrenees between Bearn and Lower Navarre, (Mauleon the capital.) See also the account of the department of the Lower Pyrenees (notes.)—Chalosse, a country in Gascony, east of the Landes (proper)—St. Sever the capital.—P.

^v A country in Gaseony (Guienne. Moreri)—Condom the capital. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^w A small country in Condomis.—Gabaret the capital. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^x A province of France, with the title of county—divided into Upper (eastern) and Lower (western,) and including Auch (the capital,) Mirande and Lectoure.—P.

^y A province of France, with the title of county (Vosgien;) united to the crown by Henry IV. (Moreri)—situated at the foot of the Pyrenees, between Bearn and Comminges, and divided into the Mountains (*Montagnes*) on the south, containing the two principal valleys of Lavedan and Bareges, the Plain (*plaine de Bigorre*) north of the former, extending from Bagneres and Lourdes to Vic de Bigorre, and including Tarbes (the capital,) and Rustan on the north-east, bordering on Astarac (a district in Armagnac—Mirande the capital.)—P.

^z Comminges (Vosgien.) Cominge, Cominges (Moreri.)—A province and county of France, finally united to the crown in the 16th century—situated on the Garonne at the foot of the Pyrenees, between Bigorre and Couserans; divided into Upper Comminges on the south (St. Bertrand de Comminges the capital,) and Lower Comminges on the north (Lombez the capital.)—A small part of the diocese of St. Bertrand de Comminges, included in Languedoc, was called Little Comminges.—P.

^{aa} Conserans or Couserans (Vosgien.) Coserans (Moreri.)—A small country with the title of viscounty (*vicomté*.) situated at the foot of the Pyrenees, between Comminges and the County of Foix, (St. Izier the capital)—united with the county of Bigorre 1257, whence it passed to the house of Navarre, and was annexed by Henry IV. to the crown of France.—P.

^a The government of Bearn included Bearn Proper and Lower Navarre, both of which belonged to the house of Navarre and were united by Louis XIII. to the crown of France in 1620.—Bearn Proper, or the Principality of Bearn, was bounded by Bigorre on the east, the Pyrenees on the south, Soule and a part of Lower Navarre on the west, and Gascony Proper and Lower Armagnac on the north, and included Pau (the capital,) Oloron and Orthez.—P.

^b "Basse-Navarre."—The kingdom of Navarre consisted originally of the Spanish province of Navarre (Upper Navarre) and Lower Navarre in France. It was divided into six bailiwicks (*merindades*), five in Spain, and the sixth consisting of Lower Navarre (the only part of the kingdom that remained to John D'Albret, after his possessions in Spain had been usurped by Ferdinand in 1512.) Lower Navarre was separated from Upper Navarre by the Pyrenees, along which it extended between Soule and Labour, and also on the north of the former to the Principality of Bearn. It included St. Jean Pied de Port (the capital) and St. Palais.—P.

^c Dauphiny (*Dauphiné*) was divided into Upper and Lower—the former including Gresivaudan, Briançonnais, Embrunois, Gapeçais, Royannez and the Baronies; the latter, Viennois, Valeninois, Diois and Tricastin. It was part of the second kingdom of Burgundy (founded by Boson in 879) till its extinction in 1032. The counts of Albon, who in the 12th century took the title of dauphins, then acquired the greater part of it, viz. Gresivaudan, Viennois, Embrunois, Gapeçais and Briançonnais. Humbert II., the last of these dauphins, ceded his territories in 1349, to Charles V., then grandson of Philip of Valois, on condition that he and his heirs should bear the arms and title of dau-

phin, and that the country should be possessed as a particular sovereignty and not incorporated with the kingdom. Since then the eldest sons of the kings of France have born the title of dauphins.—P.

^d "The Baronies (*Les Baronnies*)"—a mountainous country in the southern part of Dauphiny (diocese of Gap—department of the Drome,) consisting of the two great baronies of Mevillon (Mevillons. Moreri) and Montauban.—P.

^e Gapeçais (Enc. Meth.) Gapançois (Moreri)—formerly a county; Gap the capital.—P.

^f Embrunois, Ambrunois (Moreri)—Embrun the capital.—P.

^g Briançonnais, or Bailiwick of Briançon. (Moreri.)—P.

^h Gresivaudan (province of Grenoble.) (Moreri.)—Graisivaudan (territory of Grenoble.) (Enc. Meth.)—A mountainous country extending along the Isere and the Drae; Grenoble the capital—bounded W. and N. W. by Viennois, N. and N. E. by Savoy, E. by Briançonnais, S. E. by Embrunois, S. by Gapeçais, and W. by Valeninois.—P.

ⁱ "Royanes."—Royanez (Enc. Meth.)—A small country in Dauphiny, in the diocese of Die; Pont de Royan (Pont en Royans (Vosgien)—7 or 8 leagues S. W. of Grenoble) the capital.—P.

^j A country in Dauphiny, in the environs of St. Paul-Trois-Chateaux (*Augusta Tricastinorum*.)—P.

^k A country on the Rhone (originally a county,) ceded with Diois to Louis XI., then dauphin, in 1446, and annexed to Dauphiny—divided into Upper and Lower (the former extending from the Isere to the Drome, and the latter, from the Drome to the county of Venaissin,) and including Valence (the capital,) Romans, St. Marcellin and Montelimart.—P.

^l A country on the Drome, between Gresivaudan, Gapeçais and Valeninois—originally a county, annexed to Valeninois in 1189; Die the capital.—P.

^m Situated between the Rhone and the Isere—Vienne the capital.—P.

ⁿ Provence, which had been governed by its counts, was united to the crown of France by Charles VIII. in 1487. It was divided into Upper (on the north) and Lower (on the south,) and included within its limits, besides the county of Provence, properly so called, the county of Forcalquier (annexed to the county of Provence in 1193, whence the kings of France, as taking the place of the counts of Provence, were styled in all provincial acts, counts of Provence and Forcalquier,) Avignon and the county of Venaissin, which belonged to the Holy See, the county of Nice (detached from the county of Provence in 1358, and annexed to Savoy, now Sardinia,) and the Principality of Orange,* which belonged to the princes of Nassau, and was finally ceded to Louis XIV. by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, when it was annexed to Dauphiny.—P.

*The Principality of Orange, (5 leagues long by 3 broad,) was enclosed in the county of Venaissin. It was originally a county, but took the title of principality about the beginning of the 12th century; in 1531, it passed into the house of Nassau-Orange, which terminated in the person of William III. of England in 1702. It was then claimed by Frederick William I. of Prussia, who ceded his right to Louis XIV., by whom it had previously been occupied, in 1713.—P.

^o The island was not included in any of the ancient provinces ["—in any of the 32 great provincial governments."]

^p The County of Venaissin (*Le Comtat Venaissin*;) also called Venaissie (Moreri)—situated between Provence, Dauphiny, the Rhone and the Durance, and including Carpentras (the capital,) Venasque (the former capital, from which it derived its name,) Cavaillon and Vaison. It belonged to the counts of Toulouse till 1228, when it was ceded to the Holy See by the agency of St. Louis; the popes, however, yielded it again to the counts of Toulouse in 1243, but it was finally restored to the Holy See by Philip the Hardy in 1273.—P.

^q The County of Avignon (*Le Comtat d'Avignon*)—consisting of the city and territory of Avignon and the *bourg* of Mauriere (Moreri.) The city of Avignon formed itself into a kind of republic in the 11th century, holding in common of the counts of Provence and Toulouse. In 1290 the sovereignty was vested entirely in the counts of Provence, of whom it was purchased in 1348 by Clement VI. and thus came into the possession of the Holy See. The two counties of Venaissin and Avignon formed the papal sovereignty of Avignon.—P.

^r These two small countries were not ceded to France by the papal government, as has been already remarked, till 1791.

STATISTICAL TABLE,

EXHIBITING

THE POPULATION, SURFACE, EXTENT OF ROADS^a AND INLAND NAVIGATION, AND VALUE OF LAND, IN EACH DEPARTMENT.

DEPARTMENTS.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each square league.	Capitals of departments, ^b subprefectures ^c and dioceses. ^d		Relative extent in metres ^e to every square league.		Number of hectares. ^f		Mean annual value of the hectare.	Revenue of the land. ^g
				Names.	Population.	Roads. ^a	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vineyards.	Francs. Centimes.	Francs.
AIN	341,628	295	1113	BOURG - - -	8424	1408	779	65,100	18,000	25 75	16,076,000
				Belley† - - -	5284						
				Gex - - -	2647						
				Nantua - - -	3684						
				Trevoux - - -	3000						
AISNE	489,560	375	1226	LAON - - -	7354	1539	552	103,700	9400	35 65	23,994,000
				Chateau-Thierry	4345						
				St. Quentin -	17,661						
				Soissons† - -	7483						
				Vervins - - -	2687						
ALLIER	285,302	293	953	MOULINS† -	14,525	1493	685	123,000	12,000	15 —	13,130,000
				Gannat - - -	5003						
				Palisse - - -	2268						
				Mont-Luçon -	4567						
ALPS (Lower)	153,063	368	405	DIGNE† - - -	3955	365	—	56,400	10,000	5 99	7,745,000
				Barcelonnette	1759						
				Castellane -	1930						
				Forcalquier -	2133						
				Sisteron - - -	3920						
ALPS (Upper)	125,329	275	441	GAP† - - -	7015	1213	—	72,300	7000	6 20	5,234,000
				Briançon - -	2835						
				Embrun - - -	2300						
ARDECHE	328,419	277	1120	PRIVAS - - -	4199	1394	498	28,800	16,000	19 48	13,210,000
				Viviers† ^h							
				L'Argentiere -	2797						
				Tournon - - -	3606						
ARDENNES	281,624	256	1043	MEZIERES - -	4159	1261	449	155,900	2500	16 93	11,234,000
				Rethel - - -	6147						
				Rocroy - - -	3500						
				Sedan - - -	12,608						
				Vouziers - - -	1880						
ARRIEGE	247,932	287	817	FOIX - - -	4958	981	21	57,500	16,200	15 20	9,841,000
				Pamiers† - -	6246						
				St. Girons - -	4450						
AUBE	241,762	306	752	TROYES† - -	25,587	1223	224	84,500	21,000	21 05	27,472,515
				Arcis sur Aube	2656						
				Bar sur Aube -	3758						
				Bar sur Seine -	2112						
				Nogent sur Seine	3325						

^a "Royal roads"—great roads supported by the nation, in distinction from those supported by the communes.—P.

^b "Prefectures." ^c Arrondissements.

^d The sign † denotes the capital of a bishopric, and the sign ‡, an archiepiscopal town.—[The whole number of archbishops and bishops marked in this table, is fourteen of the former, and sixty-six of the latter, corresponding with the numbers in the Table of the Clergy in 1828 (p. 1032).—Before the revolution, there were eighteen archbishops in France, (exclusive of Avignon,) and 114 bishops. (Enc. Meth. 1782).—By a decree of the National Assembly in 1790, the number of archbishops was reduced to 10, (called metropolitan bishops,) and that of bishops to 83, one for each department. By the concordat of 1801, the number of archbishops in France proper was fixed at 10, and that of bishops at 51. (Ed. Encyc.)—In the *Almanach Imperial* of 1813, the number of archbishops in France proper is stated at nine: viz. Paris, Besançon, Lyons, Aix, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Bourges, Tours and Rouen; that of bishops, at 41. In the *Almanach Royal* of 1822, the number of archbishops is stated at twelve: viz. Paris, Besançon, Lyons, Aix, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Bourges, Tours, Rouen, Reims, Sens and Avignon; that of bishops, at 44. Among the bishoprics marked in this table, the following are not

contained in the list of 1822: viz. Belley, Moulins, Gap, Viviers, Pamiers, Rhodéz, Marseilles, Tulle, St. Claude, Aire, Blois, Le Puy, Chalon, Langres, Verdun, Nevers, Beauvais, Tarbes, Perpignan, Montauban, Frejus and St. Dié; and among the archbishoprics, those of Auch and Alby. These bishoprics and archbishoprics all existed, however, before the revolution, except that of Moulins.—P.]

^e The metre is equal to 39.371 English inches. Tr.

^f The Hectare is nearly equal to two English acres. Tr.—[The Hectare is equal to 11,960.46 English square yards, or 2 acres, 1 rood, 35.4 rods, nearly.—P.]

^g "Revenu territorial"—returns from the soil. The total of these sums amounts to 1,578,288,515 francs, (the department of the Doubs not included.)—In a memoir on the commerce of France and her colonies, published in 1789, the value of the produce of agriculture was estimated at 1,826,000,000 livres. (Ed. Encyc.)—The value of capital vested in agricultural pursuits is estimated at 37,522,061,476 francs; the gross annual produce at 4,678,708,885 francs; the expenses of cultivation at 3,334,005,515 francs; and the nett profits at 1,344,703,370 francs. (Enc. Amer.)—P.

^h Viviers is not the capital of a subprefecture. (Alm. Royal.)—P.

DEPARTMENTS.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each sq. league.	Capitals of Departments, Subprefectures, and Dioceses.		Relative extent in metres to every sq. league.		Number of hectares.		Mean annual value of the hectare.		Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vineyards.	Francs. Centimes.	Francs.	
AUDE	265,991	319	794	CARCASSONNE†	17,755	906	439	56,300	35,000	23	07	17,387,000
				Castelnaudary	9989							
				Narbonne ^a	10,097							
AVEYRON	350,014	445	762	RHODEZ†	7747	1058	18	59,600	20,000	14	57	12,943,000
				Espalion	2350							
				Milhau	8582							
				St. Afrique	6406							
CALVADOS	500,956	281	1749	VILLEFRANCHE	9521	1376	380	32,800	—	55	38	35,503,000
				CAEN	38,161							
				Bayeux†	10,060							
				Falaise	10,303							
				Lisieux	10,706							
				Pont l'Evêque	2092							
CANTAL	262,013	274	911	VIRE	8116	1345	—	29,800	240	15	38	10,062,000
				AURILLAC	9576							
				Mauriac	2455							
				Murat	2452							
CHANNEL	611,206	304	1951	ST. FLOUR†	6640	1168	407	16,300	—	40	59	31,813,000
				St. Lo	8,509							
				Avranches	6,966							
				Cherbourg	17,066							
				Coutances†	9,037							
CHARENTE	353,653	280	1107	MORTAIN	2,715	1023	223	22,100	66,500	26	93	17,906,000
				VALOGNES	6,955							
				ANGOULEME†	15,306							
				Barbezieux	3092							
				Cognac	3017							
				Confolens	2213							
CHARENTE (Lower)	424,147	307	1333	RUFFEC	2657	1306	896	38,100	90,600	30	37	22,637,000
				SAINTES ^b	10,300							
				Jonsac	2501							
				Marennes	4588							
				Rochefort	12,909							
				La Rochelle† ^b	11,073							
				St. Jean d'Angely	5766							
CHER	248,589	369	665	ST. JEAN D'ANGELY	5766	848	389	15,000	12,000	12	74	9,985,000
				BOURGES†	19,500							
				St. Amand	5923							
CORREZE	284,882	273	940	SANCERRE	3103	866	—	13,400	20,000	12	69	7,715,000
				TULLE†	8479							
				Brives	7211							
CORSICA	185,079	495	376	USSEL	2551	—	—	225,000	9000	—	—	2,635,000
				AJACCIO†	7658							
				Bastia	9527							
				Calvi	1175							
COTE D'OR	370,943	440	814	CORTE	2841	1468	182	256,000	24,000	24	60	25,829,000
				Sartenc	2137							
				DIJON†	23,845							
				Beaune	9366							
				Chatillon sur Seine	3986							
CREUSE	252,932	269	925	SEMUR	4220	953	—	39,000	—	10	36	6,812,000
				GUERET	3448							
				Aubusson	4136							
				Bourgneuf	1637							
DORDOGNE	464,074	476	953	BOUSSAC	757	695	435	67,500	72,000	20	51	21,327,000
				PERIGUEUX†	8588							
				Bergerac	8412							
				Nontron	1902							
				Riberac	3604							
				Sarlat	5573							

^a Limoux is also the capital of a subprefecture in the department of the Aude. (Ahn. Royal.)—P. ^b The capital of the department is La Rochelle, not Saintes. Saintes is, however, the capital of a subprefecture. (M. B. Ahn. Royal.)—P.

DEPARTMENTS.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each sq. league.	Capitals of Departments, Subprefectures, and Dioceses.		Relative extent in metres to every sq. league.		Number of hectares.		Mean annual value of the hectare.		Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population.	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vineyards.	Francs.	Centimes.	Francs.
DOUBS	254,312	276	878	BESANÇON†	28,795	1038	362	113,300	8000	20	99	—
				Beaume	2235							
				Pontarlier	4549							
				Montbelliard	4605							
DROME	285,791	336	824	VALENCE†	10,283	818	479	92,500	19,000	17	75	12,813,000
				Die	3187							
				Montelimart	7589							
				Nyons	2744							
EURE	421,665	298	1418	EVREUX†	9729	1396	876	97,800	18,000	40	43	29,741,000
				Les Andelys	3460							
				Bernay	4738							
				Louviers	9242							
EURE and LOIR	277,782	304	868	Pont-Audemer	5398	1201	99	45,000	7,000	31	01	19,419,000
				CHARTRES†	13,703							
				Chateaudun	6452							
				Dreux	6247							
FINISTERRE	502,851	350	1376	Nogent le Rotrou	6658	1142	143	12,700	—	19	80	15,328,000
				QUIMPER†	10,032							
				Brest	26,655							
				Chateaulin	2426							
GARD	347,550	303	1103	Morlaix	9761	1636	346	81,300	100,000	26	30	20,656,000
				NIMES†	39,068							
				Alais	10,252							
				Uzès	5622							
GARONNE (Upper)	407,016	339	1153	Le Vigan	4246	943	498	48,300	57,300	30	42	22,448,000
				TOULOUSE†	55,319							
				Muret	3301							
				St. Gaudens	5629							
GERS	307,601	311	967	Villefranche	2515	1336	—	11,400	74,000	22	09	16,415,000
				AUCH†	10,844							
				Condom	4149							
				Lectoure	3104							
GIRONDE	538,151	517	1010	Lombes	2243	699	550	85,600	110,000	31	72	39,907,000
				BORDEAUX†	93,549							
				Bazas	1903							
				Blaye	2881							
HERAULT	339,560	315	1029	La Reole	2600	1176	70	70,400	75,000	27	17	21,580,000
				Lesparre	950							
				Libourne	8943							
				MONTPELIER†	35,842							
ILLE and VILAINE	553,453	321	1661	Beziers	16,515	1956	181	20,000	306	26	40	19,477,000
				Lodeve	9842							
				St. Pons	6121							
				RENNES†	29,377							
INDRE	237,628	354	649	Fougeres	7880	1056	—	102,000	14,000	12	22	9,944,000
				Montfort sur Meu	1316							
				Redon	2998							
				St. Malo	9838							
INDRE and LOIRE	290,160	321	879	Vitré	9085	905	1058	73,600	36,000	21	18	14,978,000
				CHATEAUXROUX	11,010							
				Le Blanc	4642							
				Issoudun	11,223							
ISERE	525,984	420	1204	La Chatre	4272	1135	381	130,700	22,000	24	45	24,134,000
				TOURS†	20,920							
				Chinon	4406							
				Loches	3500							
				GRENOBLE†	22,149							
				La Tour du Pin	1770							
				St. Marcellin	2540							
				Vienne	13,780							

DEPARTMENTS.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each square league.	Capitals of Departments, Subprefectures and Dioceses.		Relative extent in metres to every square league.		Number of hectares.		Mean annual value of the hectare.	Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population.	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vineyards.	Francs. Centimes.	Francs.
JURA	310,282	254	1160	LONS LE SAULNIER	7864	1294	—	135,000	16,000	17 24	15,351,000
LANDES	265,309	459	558	Dole	9847	911	311	127,400	19,500	6 25	7,537,000
				Poligny	5555						
				St. Claude†	5533						
				MONT DE MARSAN	3088						
LOIR and CHER	230,666	319	708	Dax	5045	690	362	66,000	28,000	17 15	11,721,000
				St. Sever	2604						
				Aire†*							
				BLOIS†	11,337						
LOIRE	369,298	234	1471	Romorantin	6820	950	227	36,400	13,000	24 90	14,368,000
				Vendome	6805						
				MONTBRISON	5156						
LOIRE (Lower)	457,090	308	1405	Roanne	8916	1563	751	37,400	45,000	29 89	18,904,000
				St. Etienne	30,615						
				NANTES†	71,739						
LOIRE (Upper)	285,673	250	1105	Ancenis	3145	1162	80	36,400	13,000	18 59	10,400,000
				Chateaubriant	2145						
				Paimbœuf	3646						
				Le Puy†	14,998						
LOIRET	304,228	356	818	Brioude	5262	1158	764	95,700	39,000	24 12	17,516,000
				Yssengeaux	6908						
				ORLEANS†	40,340						
				Gien	5149						
LOT	280,815	263	1046	Montargis	6653	839	623	23,000	47,000	18 57	11,306,000
				Pithiviers	4012						
				CAHORS†	12,413						
				Figeac	4790						
LOT and GARONNE	336,886	242	1363	Gourdon	5990	1774	813	26,000	60,000	34 60	20,943,000
				AGEN†	11,971						
				Marmande	4160						
				Nerac	3418						
LOZERE	138,778	257	521	Villeneuve d'Agen	9495	1430	—	21,600	—	10 94	5,904,000
				MENDE†	5445						
				Florac	1962						
MAINE and LOIRE	458,674	365	1213	Marvejols	3370	1086	764	43,200	35,000	28 61	23,979,000
				ANGERS†	29,978						
				Baugé	3400						
				Beaupreau	2964						
MARNE	325,045	410	738	Saumur	10,314	1221	459	81,600	20,600	20 16	16,290,000
				Segré	909						
				CHALONS†	12,419						
				Epernay	5080						
MARNE (Upper)	244,823	315	737	Reims†	34,862	1050	318	215,900	17,500	16 93	13,652,000
				St. Menehould	2933						
				Vitry le François	7194						
				CHAUMONT	6027						
MAYENNE	354,138	261	1314	Langres†	7180	981	172	25,800	600	24 78	13,093,000
				Vassy	2345						
				LAVAL	15,850						
MEURTHE	403,038	282	1350	Chateau-Gonthier	5946	1521	270	218,900	13,500	24 12	17,500,000
				Mayenne	9799						
				NANCY†	29,122						
				Luneville	12,378						
MEUSE	306,339	305	958	Sarrebourg	1955	1679	164	180,000	15,000	22 —	14,281,000
				Toul	7507						
				BAR LE DUC	12,520						
				Commercy	3714						
				Montmedy	2146						
				Verdun†	9882						

* Aire is not the capital of a subprefecture. (Alm. Royal.)—P.

DEPARTMENTS.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each sq. league.	Capitals of Departments, Subprefectures, and Dioceses		Relative extent in metres to every sq. league.		Number of hectares		Mean annual value of the hectare.		Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population.	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vineyards.	Francs.	Centimes.	Francs.
MORBIHAN	427,453	360	1157	VANNES†	11,289	1605	489	18,300	600	20	--	14,741,000
MOSELLE	409,135	339	1110	Lorient	15,310	1222	260	132,000	4,500	25	63	16,525,000
				Ploermel	5984							
				Pontivy	7770							
				METZ†	45,276							
				Briey	1717							
MOUTHS OF THE RHONE	326,302	256	1225	Sarreguemines	3608	953	625	41,000	26,500	26	77	23,588,000
				Thionville	5821							
				MARSEILLES†	115,943							
NIEVRE	271,777	334	772	Aix†	23,132	1122	—	188,000	12,000	16	85	12,050,000
				Arles	19,869							
				NEVERST	15,782							
NORTH	962,648	283	3188	Chateau-Chinon	2214	2061	205	57,000	—	69	56	44,206,000
				Clamecy	5447							
				Cosne	5973							
				LILLE	69,860							
				Avesnes	3311							
				Cambray†	17,031							
				Douay	19,880							
NORTH COAST	581,684	375	1470	Dunkirk	24,517	1043	149	19,000	—	22	68	19,258,000
				Hazebrouck	7644							
				Valenciennes ^a	19,841							
				St. BRIEUX†	9963							
				Dinan	7175							
				Guingamp	5919							
OISE	385,124	297	1332	Lannion	5269	1787	374	83,300	3,500	39	80	25,906,000
				Loudeac	7033							
				BEAUVAIS†	12,865							
				Clermont	2406							
ORNE	434,379	283	1492	Compiègne	7362	975	—	58,900	—	29	22	22,096,000
				Senlis	5049							
				ALENÇON	14,071							
				Seez† ^b								
				Argentan	6044							
PUY DE DOME	566,573	409	1353	Domfront	1670	995	220	54,200	22,000	24	28	22,428,000
				Mortagne	5405							
				{ CLERMONT- }								
				{ FERRAND† }	30,010							
				Issoire	3649							
				Riom	6095							
PYRENEES (Lower)	412,469	386	1036	Thiers ^c	11,613	1824	189	11,200	16,700	16	79	15,392,000
				PAU	11,761							
				Bayonne†	13,498							
				Mauleon	1054							
				Oloron	6423							
PYRENEES (Upper)	222,059	233	907	Orthez	6834	1216	—	67,500	11,000	13	85	7,769,000
				TARBES†	8712							
				Argelès	878							
PYRENEES (Eastern)	151,372	205	699	Bagneres	7037	1569	—	47,200	53,500	16	30	7,351,000
				PERPIGNAN†	15,357							
				Ceret	3078							
				Prades	2795							
RHINE (Lower)	535,467	210	2384	STRASBURG†	49,708	1565	958	156,600	14,400	42	38	24,692,000
				Saverne	4993							
				Schelestat	9600							
				Weissemburg	6146							
RHINE (Upper)	408,741	194	1903	COLMAR	15,496	1778	617	160,000	15,000	37	19	19,196,000
				Altkirch	2395							
				Befort	4803							

^a Valenciennes was in the subprefecture of Douay in 1822. (Alm. Royal.)—P.

^c Ambert is also the capital of a subprefecture in the department of Puy de Dome. (M. B.)—P.

^b Seez is not the capital of a subprefecture. (Alm. Royal.)—P.

DEPARTMENTS.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each square league.	Capitals of Departments, Subprefectures and Dioceses.		Relative extent in metres to every square league.		Number of hectares.		Mean annual value of the hectare.	Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population.	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vineyards.	Francs. Centimes.	Francs.
RHONE	416,575	141	2954	LYONS†	145,675	1362	863	12,000	13,800	39 —	21,353,000
SAONE (Upper)	326,641	262	1175	VILLEFRANCHE	5275	1202	763	130,300	12,000	31 89	18,336,000
				GRAY	7203						
SAONE and LOIRE	515,776	290	1150	LURE	2808	1266	825	132,000	12,000	30 —	28,480,000
				MACON	10,965						
				AUTUN†	9936						
				CHALONS	10,609						
SARTHE	446,519	323	1326	CHAROLLES	3013	1105	415	58,600	10,400	28 16	19,596,000
				LOUHANS	3170						
				LE MANS†	19,477						
				LA FLECHE	5412						
SEINE	1,013,373	24	34,398	MAMERS	5846	5498	381	4,100	4,800	216 —	54,418,000
				ST. CALAIS	3752						
SEINE (Lower)	688,295	300	2181	PARIS†	890,431	2556	674	70,600	20,000	51 11	30,305,000
				ST. DENIS	5731						
				SCEAUX	1529						
				ROUEN†	90,000						
SEINE and MARNE	318,209	301	1007	DIEPPE	17,077	1898	499	84,100	—	67 85	44,523,000
				HAVRE	21,049						
				NEUFCHATEL	3169						
				YVETOT	9853						
				MELUN	7199						
				COULOMMIERS	3530						
SEINE and OISE	440,871	278	1585	FONTAINEBLEAU	7400	1722	834	73,400	16,900	40 27	25,421,000
				MEAUX†	7836						
				PROVINS	5076						
				VERSAILLES†	29,986						
				CORBEIL	4051						
				ETAMPES	7867						
SEVRES (Two)	288,260	296	947	MANTES SUR SEINE	3701	763	162	39,200	20,000	23 87	13,849,000
				PONTOISE	5370						
				RAMBOUILLET	2958						
				NIORT	15,799						
				BRESSUIRE	1344						
				MELLE	2228						
SOMME	526,282	305	1667	PARthenay	4184	1907	367	55,000	—	45 38	29,064,000
				AMIENS†	42,032						
				ABBEVILLE	19,520						
				DOULENS	3690						
STRAITS OF CALAIS	648,969	338	1852	MONTdidier	3730	2006	479	46,600	—	45 43	32,305,000
				PERONNE	3777						
				ARRAS†	22,173						
				BETHUNE	6830						
				BOULOGNE	19,314						
				MONTREUIL	4194						
TARN	327,655	290	1083	ST. OMER	19,019	1072	248	41,900	23,000	24 97	15,562,000
				ST. POL	3556						
				ALBY†	10,993						
				CASTRES	15,663						
TARN and GARONNE	241,586	114	2083	Gaillac	7476	2296	1093	11,300	30,000	38 76	16,453,000
				LAVOUR	7037						
				MONTAUBAN†	25,466						
VAR	311,095	368	828	CASTEL-SARRASIN	7067	1102	—	111,700	42,000	27 17	22,000,000
				MOISSAC	10,115						
				DRAGUIGNAN	8035						
				Frejus†	6170						
				Brignolles	6170						
				Grasse	12,716						
				Toulon	30,171						

DEPARTMENTS.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each sq. league.	Capitals of Departments, Subprefectures, and Dioceses		Relative extent in metres to every sq. league.		Number of hectares.		Mean annual value of the hectare.		Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population.	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vineyards.	Francs. Centimes.	Francs.	
VAUCLUSE	233,048	167	1342	AVIGNON†	31,180	457	299	74,100	45,000	29	78	13,614,000
				Apt	5433							
				Carpentras	9756							
				Orange	8864							
VENDEE	322,826	341	928	BOURBON-VENDEE	3129	974	252	19,600	16,000	19	80	15,607,000
				Fontenay	7493							
				Luçon†								
VIENNE	267,670	349	747	Les Sables d'Olonne	4783	1008	122	57,500	33,000	15	30	12,082,000
				POITIERS†	21,563							
				Chatellerault	9241							
				Civray	2192							
				Loudun	5044							
VIENNE (Upper)	276,351	290	949	Montmorillon	3539	1062	—	21,600	3000	12	85	8,189,000
				LIMOGES†	25,612							
				Bellac	3400							
				Rochechouart	1550							
VOSGES	379,839	552	1420	St. Yrieix	2746	2051	—	216,400	4000	18	66	14,335,000
				EPINAL	7951							
				Mirecourt	5608							
				Neufchateau	3667							
				Remiremont	4148							
				St. Dié†	7339							
YONNE	342,116	364	915	AUXERRE	12,348	1198	494	156,900	36,000	20	57	17,520,000
				Avallon	5261							
				Joigny	5263							
				Sens†	8685							
				Tonnerre	3650							

TABLE,

EXHIBITING THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE SURFACE IN FRANCE, ACCORDING TO THE USES TO WHICH EACH PART IS APPLIED.

	Hectares.
Arable Land	22,818,000
Vineyards	1,977,000
Kitchen Gardens	328,000
Gardens and Orchards	687,000
Miscellaneous Culture	780,000
Olives	43,000
Hops	60,000
Chestnuts	406,000
Parks, Groves, Nurseries	39,000
Woods and Forests (Bois)	6,521,000
	<u>33,659,000</u>

	Hectares.
Amount brought up,	33,659,000
Willows and Alders,	53,000
Pastures	3,525,000
Meadows	3,488,000
Waste Lands (<i>Terres incultes</i>)	3,841,000
Turbaries	7,000
Mines and Quarries	28,000
Buildings	213,000
Canals (navigable and for irrigation)	9,000
Ponds	213,000
Marshes	186,000
Roads, rivers, mountains, rocks	6,555,000
Total	<u>51,777,000</u>

[The superficial extent of France has been recently estimated by Baron C. Dupin at 53,533,426 hectares, or 132,694,000 English acres (Enc. Amer.)—P.]

STATISTICAL TABLE

OF COURTS^a AND ACADEMIES,^b EXHIBITING THE NUMBER OF CRIMINALS, AND ALSO THAT OF SCHOLARS (MALES,) RELATIVE TO THE POPULATION.—ACCORDING TO THE TABLE (*Carte*) OF M. M. BALBI AND GURRY.

Seats of the Royal Courts and Academies.	Departments subject to their jurisdiction.	Population.	CRIMINALS— Those condemned for crimes against			SCHOLARS (Males), one out of every
			the person, one out of every	property, one out of every	both property and person, one out of every	
AGEN ^c - -	Lot and Garonne, Lot, Gers - - -	925,000	29,839	17,130	10,882	55
AMIENS - -	Somme, Oise, Aisne - - - - -	1,401,000	72,466	10,061	9596	12
ANGERS - -	Mayenne, Sarthe, Maine and Loire - -	1,259,000	51,740	11,694	9536	58
AIX ^d - -	Lower Alps, Mouths of the Rhone, Var - -	790,000	23,700	10,727	7383	} 50
BASTIA ^d - -	Corsica - - - - -	135,000	2968	9098	2237	
BESANÇON - -	Upper Saone, Doubs, Jura - - - - -	892,000	39,940	11,066	8663	12
BORDEAUX - -	Charente, Dordogne, Gironde - - - - -	1,356,000	43,277	15,048	11,115	55
BOURGES - -	Indre, Cher, Nièvre - - - - -	758,000	18,488	14,125	11,147	67
CAEN - -	Calvados, Channel, Orne - - - - -	1,547,000	48,858	9675	8085	29
COLMAR ^e - -	Lower Rhine, Upper Rhine - - - - -	944,000	21,456	7613	5608	14
DIJON - -	Upper Marne, Cote d'Or, Saone and Loire -	1,132,000	45,892	12,767	9988	13
DOUAY - -	North, Straits of Calais - - - - -	1,606,000	46,327	7296	6298	15
GRENOBLE - -	Isere, Drome, Upper Alps - - - - -	937,000	26,271	11,244	7874	20
LIMOGES - -	Upper Vienne, Creuse, Correze - - - - -	814,000	59,771	20,183	15,654	89
LYONS - -	Loire, Rhone, Ain - - - - -	1,114,000	41,259	11,367	8912	28
METZ - -	Ardenne, Moselle - - - - -	691,000	34,435	9092	7148	13
MONTPELIER - -	Aude, Aveyron, Herault, Eastern Pyrenees	1,107,000	21,565	15,514	9024	34
NANCY - -	Meurthe, Meuse, Vosges - - - - -	1,089,000	36,300	10,404	8094	12
NIMES - -	Ardeche, Gard, Lozere, Vaucluse - - -	1,048,000	18,027	13,941	7841	30
ORLEANS - -	Indre and Loire, Loiret, Loir and Cher -	825,000	33,000	8594	6818	36
PARIS - -	Aube, Eure and Loir, Marne, Seine, Seine and Marne, Seine and Oise, Yonne -	2,967,000	57,057	4075	3563	15
PAU - -	Lower Pyrenees, Upper Pyrenees, Landes	900,000	37,000	12,736	9507	19
POITIERS - -	Lower Charente, Two Sevres, Vendee, Vienne	1,303,000	44,931	8966	7460	42
RENNES - -	North Coast, Finisterre, Ille and Vilaine, Lower Loire, Morbihan - - - - -	2,523,000	37,661	10,906	8457	97
RIOM ^f - -	Allier, Cantal, Upper Loire, Puy de Dome	1,400,000	37,500	38,214	12,844	16
ROUEN - -	Eure, Lower Seine - - - - -	1,110,000	26,016	5268	4382	22
TOULOUSE - -	Arriege, Upper Garonne, Tarn, Tarn & Garonne	1,224,000	25,151	11,823	8070	46
	Mean term for the whole kingdom	31,847,000	32,411	9322	7285	23

^a The Royal Courts (*Cours Royales*) have original jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, and are also courts of appeal from the inferior tribunals (*Tribunaux de première Instance—Tribunaux de Commerce*), both in civil and criminal cases; they correspond to the Circuit Courts in the U. States.—There are in France: I. the Court of Cassation, or Supreme Court; II. the Court of Exchequer (*Cour des Comptes*); III. the Royal Courts (27 in number, as in the table); IV. the Inferior Tribunals (*Tribunaux de première Instance—District Courts*), both civil and criminal in their jurisdiction, of which there is one in each *arrondissement*; V. the Justice Courts (*justices de paix*), of which there are one or more in each of the cantons, into which the *arrondissements* are subdivided; and VI. the Commercial Tribunals (*Tribunaux de Commerce*), established in different towns (*villes*)—213 in number in 1822 (Alm. Royal).—P.

^b Education (Public Instruction) in France is under the general direction of the Council of Public Instruction, acting under the authority of the Minister of the Interior. (Under the Imperial government, public education was subject to the general control of the Grand Master and Council of the University. The University, which included all the schools in the empire, was divided into as many Academies as there were Imperial Courts.) The number of the Academies now corresponds to that of the Royal Courts, with one exception. These Academies have a Rector and Inspectors, who exercise a supervision

over the schools of every grade in their district. These are: I. The Faculties, of which there were in 1822, six of Catholic, and two of Protestant Theology, eight of Law, three of Medicine, seven of the Sciences, and six of Letters: II. the Royal Colleges (Lyceums, under the empire), of which there were 38, including five in Paris; III. the Secondary Schools, auxiliary to the Faculties, as the Secondary Schools of Law and Medicine; IV. the Institutions (High Schools) and Boarding Schools (*Pensions*); and V. the Primary Schools. To these may be added different Special Schools, supported by the government, such as the Normal School, the Polytechnic School, the Military and Veterinary Schools, &c.—P.

^c Agen is the seat of the Royal Court—Cahors, that of the Academy, in the district.—P.

^d The Royal Courts of Aix and Bastia [Corsica. Alm. Royal] form two districts, both under the jurisdiction of only one Academy [that of Aix.] M. B.—There was an Academy at Ajaccio, under the Empire. (Alm. Imp. 1813).—P.

^e Colmar is the seat of the Royal Court—Strasburg, that of the Academy.—P.

^f Riom is the seat of the Royal Court—Clermont, that of the Academy.—P.

Vessels.	NAVY. ^a	Men.
	Naval Staff	16
1 Ship of the Line		500
14 Frigates		4198
6 Sloops ^b of war		840
18 Brigs from sixteen to twenty guns		1668
5 Sloops of eighteen guns (Advice-Boats) ^c		500
13 Schooners ^d of sixteen guns		1040
1 Small Brig		63
1 Gun-Brig		48
29 Schooners		1185
9 Cutters, Luggers, Advice Boats, ^e &c.		279
1 Flotilla-ship		23
4 Steam Vessels		164
7 Sloops ^b of Burden		924
18 Flat-bottomed Barges ^f		852
1 Transport		33
2 Vessels in commission		371 ^g
Slave Ship ^h		217
123		12,926

TABLE OF THE FRENCH COLONIES.

AMERICA.			
Martinique		98,000	
Guadaloupe	92,500	} 228,000	
<i>Dependencies.</i>			
Mariegalante	12,060	} 111,000	
The Saintes ¹	1,200		
Deseada	1,300		
St. Martin (Eastern part of)	4,000		
Guiana		18,400	
St. Pierre and Miquelon		600	
AFRICA.			
Bonat and La Calle. Factories for the Coral Fisheries			
SENEGAL.			
<i>Arrondissement of St. Louis.</i>		} 20,000	
Island of St. Louis; neighbouring islands of Bagabhe, Safal and Ghibar; different settlements on the river, the <i>Escales</i> or Gum Markets; ^k part of the coast from Cape Blanco to the Bay of Iof			
<i>Arrondissement of Goree.</i>		} 101,000 ¹	
Island of Goree; the coast from the Bay of Iof to the factory of Albreda on the Gambia			
Island of Bourbon			88,400
Island of St. Mary, near the eastern coast of Madagascar			600

^a "Navy—Effective force." ^b "Corvettes."
^c "Corvettes-avisos of 18 guns."
^d "Schooner-brigs (*goëlettes-bricks*)."
^e "18 *Gabares*, of which nine are fitted as merchantmen (*armés commercialement*)."
^f "*Gabare* is a French word signifying, indeed, a flat bottomed barge, with sails, employed as a lighter, or in navigating rivers; but in the French navy, it signifies a *flûte* or store ship, sometimes of 400 or 500 tons. (Enc. Meth. Dict. Mar.)—P.
^g "School-ship (*vaisseau-école*) - - - 253 }
Vessel in commission - - - 118" }
^h "Prison-ships (*bâtiments de servitude*)."
¹ The Saintes are six rocky islets, three leagues S. E. of the south point of Basse-Terre (Guadaloupe.) Two of them are large; one four, the other three miles in circumference: between these two is a third, a large rock. (Tuckey's Mar. Geog. vol. IV. p. 271.)—The Saintes (Les Saintes) are three small islands S. E. of Basse-Terre. (Vosgien.)—P.
^j Bona. (M. B. t. IV. p. 581. Enc. Meth.)—P.
^k *Escale* or *Ehelle*, originally a Provençal term signifying a port for shelter; now used chiefly in the Levant, for a sea port in which there is a factory or consul. (Enc. Meth. Marine.)—The great gum market is held on a desolate sandy plain on the north bank of the Senegal, between Podor and St. Louis. (Ed. Encyc.)—Ascending the Senegal, twenty-five leagues from St. Louis, is *L'Escale de Desert*, on the right bank, a considerable trading place for gum. Sixty leagues above St. Louis is the fort of Podor on the left bank. (Tuckey, vol. II. p. 509, 510.)—P.
¹ The total of the sums, here included, is 109,000. The Factories on the coast of Algiers are not here included, in the original,

ASIA.		
HINDOSTAN.		
<i>Coast of Coromandel.</i>		} 179,000
Pondicherry and the districts of Villenour and Bahour ^m		
Karikal, ⁿ and the four neighbouring <i>maganons</i> or districts		} 179,000
<i>Coast of the Northern Circars.^o</i>		
Yanaon, and its <i>Aldées^p</i> or dependencies; factory at Masulipatam		
<i>Bengal.</i>		} 179,000
Chandernagore and its territory; Goretta ^q and different factories		
<i>Coast of Malabar.</i>		} 179,000
Mahe and its territory; factory at Calicut		
<i>Gulf of Cambay.</i>		} 179,000
Factories at Surat		
ARABIA.		} 179,000
Factories at Muscat ^r and Mocha ^s		
Total Population		508,000

TABLE OF THE CLERGY IN 1828.

Cardinals	5
Ecclesiastical peers of France	20
Archbishops	14
Bishops	66
Vicars general	468
Titular canons	684
Honorary canons	1788
Curates ^t	3083
Officiating ministers ^u	22,475
Vicars	5765
Chaplains	439
Almoners	839
Parish priests, who preach or confess ^v	1976
Priests appointed to teach or direct different seminaries ^w	1044
Ecclesiastical pupils in the seminaries and colleges, and with the curates (<i>curés</i>)	44,244
Ecclesiastics employed in the universities, ^x exclusively of those in the primary schools	673
Number of women and girls ^y in 3024 religious houses	19,340
Total	102,923

COMMERCIAL TABLE,

EXHIBITING THE MEAN QUANTITY OF THE PRINCIPAL IMPORTS AND EXPORTS FOR THE YEARS 1826, 1827, AND 1828, ACCORDING TO OFFICIAL REPORTS.

[The kilogramme is equal to 2 lb. 3 oz. 5 dr. Avoirdupois. The franc is equal to tenpence. The litre is equal to 61.028 English cubic inches. Tr.]

		Imports.	Exports.
Raw and carded silk, ^z	Kilog.	1,160,000	300,000
Raw and wrought wax,	- - -	480,000	240,000 ^{aa}
Grease ^{bb} and tallow,	- - -	940,000	350,000

or it might be supposed that the sum total was intended for 110,000.—P. ^m Villenour and Bahour.
ⁿ Karikal. (Tuckey.) ^o "*Serkars*."
^p "*Aldées*"—*Aldea* (Port.) a village.—P.
^q "The residency (*residence*) of Goretta."
^r "*Mascate*"—Mascat. ^s "*Moka*"
^t "*Curés*"—parish priests. ^u "*Desservans*"—officiating priests.
^v "Priests settled (*habitvés*) in parishes, with the privilege of preaching and hearing confession."
^w "Priests employed as directors and teachers in seminaries."
^x "—the university."—See note ^b p. 1030.
^y "—of nuns (*religieuses*)."
^z "Raw silk, in cocoons, reeled (*grège*) or carded."—*Grège* is silk simply wound or reeled from the cocoons, without the ulterior operations of spinning and twisting, such as most of that imported from the Levant. (Enc. Meth. Dict. Comm.)—The refuse of raw silk, after reeling, is carded and spun into a thread called floss (*fleuret*).—P.
^{aa} In 1788, the value of the wax candles exported to the French Colonies, was 591,000 francs. (Taylor's Stat.)—P.
^{bb} "*Graisses*."—This term includes all animal oils, whether fluid, as whale and fish oil, or consistent, as tallow. (Enc. Meth. Dict. Comm.)—P.

		Imports.	Exports.
Bones and horns,	Kilog.	1,900,000	60,000
Tobacco (in leaf)	-	3,830,000	1,780,000
— manufactured,	-	-	180,000
Raw and dressed ^a hemp,	-	6,000,000	60,000
Raw and dressed ^a flax,	-	1,800,000	1,750,000
Cotton,	-	35,000,000	3,000,000
{ Lead,	-	10,000,000	51,000
{ Copper,	-	5,800,000	18,000
{ Tin,	-	1,000,000	6,000
Metals. { Iron and steel,	-	15,000,000	850,000
{ Gold in ingots and money, ^b	-	25,000	30,000
{ Silver in ingots and money,	-	670,000	90,000
{ Platina,	-	100	5
Salt and rock salt, ^c	-	4,500,000	64,000,000
Sugar,	-	59,000,000	8,500,000
Coffee,	-	17,200,000	8,500,000
Wines,	Litres.	2,400,000	109,500,000
Brandy and liqueurs	Idem.	1,400,000	57,950,000
Flax and hemp (manufactured), ^d	Idem. ^e	5,180,000	1,800,000
Lace and blonds,	(Value in Francs.)	1,580,000	1,750,000
Woolen stuffs,	Kilog.	50,000	1,000,000
Silks and gauze,	Idem.	40,000	570,000
Cotton stuffs,	Idem.	130,000	2,050,000
Felt Hats,	Number.	600	220,000
Cutlery and hardware, ^f	Kilog.	1,050,000	2,000,000
Articles of Fashion,	(Value in Francs.)	9,000	3,200,000
Furniture,	Idem.	180,000	1,380,000
Approximate value of the } imports and exports, }	Francs.	555,000,000	610,000,000

	Francs
Imposts on the countries in which the states are held, ⁿ	
Languedoc,	9,767,250
Brittany,	6,611,460
Burgundy,	4,128,196
Provence,	2,892,463
Pau, Bayonne and Foix,	1,156,658
Poll tax, twentieths commuted, and deductions on pensions,	6,865,000
Imposts for the fortifications of towns,	575,000
Benefice on the coin, ^o	580,000
Revenue from the commercial fund, ^p	636,000
Different rents,	180,000
Interest on sums lent to the United States,	1,600,000
Interest on six millions due from a German prince,	300,000
Nett amount of the receipts,	475,294,027
Expense of collection, &c.	230,000,000
Total amount of the receipts,	705,294,027
Expenses,	531,444,000
Nett receipts,	475,294,027
Yearly deficiency,	56,149,973

COMPARATIVE BUDGETS OF FRANCE

IN 1789, IN 1802 (YEAR XI.) AND IN 1830.

STATE OF THE FINANCES OF THE KINGDOM PRESENTED BY NECKER TO THE STATES-GENERAL, IN 1789.

	RECEIPTS.	Francs.
General revenue, ^g	-	150,107,000
Of the Posts, ^h	12,000,000	134,240,000
Different Conveyances, ^h	1,100,000	
Excise and customs, ⁱ	50,220,000	
Domains and forests, ^j	50,600,000	
Lotteries, ^j	14,000,000	
Casual revenues, ^j	3,000,000	155,655,000
Marc d'Or, ^k	1,500,000	
Powder and saltpetre, ^j	800,000	
Certain fixed revenues,	1,620,000	
Ordinary impost ^l , poll tax, and twentieths, ^m	-	

^a "Heckled (*peignés*)" ^b "—in coin and bullion (*brut.*)"
^c "Rock salt (*sal-gem*) and that from salt works (*salines.*)"
^d "Linen and hempen stuffs (*tissus de lin et de chanvre.*)"
^e This must be a mistake—the litre being a measure for liquids. It is probably intended for kilogrammes, as under woollens, silks and cottons.—P.
^f "Quincaillerie"—hardware in general.
^g "Ferme générale" (General farm or lease).—Certain branches of the revenue leased to a company of farmers-general, for a certain sum, during a certain term of years. This company were bound to account for the sum engaged, and to bear all the losses and expenses of collection, and were entitled to all the profits they could realize above the sum stipulated. Among the branches of revenue annexed to the *ferme générale*, were the monopolies of salt and tobacco, duties on the entrance, issue and circulation of merchandise (*droits de traites*), stamping (*marque*) of iron, and of gold and silver, &c. By a decree of Jan. 9, 1780, a new distribution was made; the revenues intrusted to the *ferme générale*, being confined to the duties on imports and exports, and to those arising from the peculiar privileges or monopolies to be protected on the frontiers of the kingdom, at the barriers of the capital, and on the limits of the provinces reputed or treated as foreign, whilst those from the excise were intrusted to the *regie générale*, and those from the domains, including stamp duties, to the *general administration* of the domains. The number of the farmers-general, previous to 1756, was 40; it was then increased to 60. The number in 1789 was 44.—P.
^h "Ferme des postes—Ferme des messageries" (Farms of the Post-Office and the public conveyances).—The revenue of the Post-Office, and that of the public conveyances, were each leased to a company for a certain fixed sum.—P.
ⁱ "Regie des aides et droits réunis."—Certain branches of the revenue intrusted to a company, called the *Regie Générale* (general administration or direction,) the members of which, called *regisseurs* (directors,) were bound to collect and account for the revenue faithfully, for which they received certain salaries and commissions, the govern-

	EXPENSES.	Francs.
King's household, Children of France, ^q	25,000,000	
Princes of the blood	8,240,000	
Foreign Affairs, Swiss Lines ^r	7,480,000	
War department	99,160,000	
Navy and Colonies	40,500,000	
Roads and bridges ^s	5,680,000	
Royal studs	814,000	
Perpetual and life-rents ^t	162,486,000	
Different interests	44,300,000	
Salaries of the different offices in the financial department	14,692,000	

ment sustaining all unavoidable losses, and providing for the expenses of collection. The revenues, so collected, were certain branches of the excise and internal duties.—P.
^j "Administration (*Regie*) of the domains and forests—of the lotteries—of the casual revenues [such as arose from the duties paid on the transfer of property dependent on the royal domains]—of the *marc d'or* [tax on offices, grants, commissions, &c.]—of gunpowder and saltpetre."—Each of these branches of the revenue formed the subject of a particular administration (*regie*).—P.
^k The *Marc d'Or* is a sum paid to the king by a person appointed to an office. Tr. [Whenever an individual received any grant, permission, office or commission from the king, he was obliged to pay a certain tax called the *marc d'or*, before he could enjoy the privileges of the one, or perform the functions of the other. (Enc. Meth. Finance.)—P.]
^l "Impositions."—The taxes in France were divided into two classes. viz. *impositions* (direct taxes) and *perceptions* (indirect taxes); the former including the *tailles* (taxes on real estate, and on personal profits and income), the poll tax (*capitation*) and the twentieths (*vingtièmes*).—P.
^m Twentieth (*vingtième*)—an income tax, amounting to the twentieth of the income (*revenu*) of those subject to it.—There were three twentieths in operation in 1789; the first imposed in 1749; the second, in 1756; and the third, in 1782.—P.
ⁿ "Impositions des pays d'état."—The provinces, called *pays d'état*, retained their provincial estates (nobility, clergy and towns,) which, however, had only the privilege of distributing and providing for the collection of the taxes imposed upon them. These provinces were Artois, Bearn, Brittany, Burgundy, Walloon Flanders, Languedoc, Provence, Bigorre, Foix, Labour, Marsan, Nebousan, Soule, and the Four Valleys (Quatre Vallées.) They, however, enjoyed different degrees of exemption; as for instance, Burgundy was subject to the monopoly of salt (*gabelle*), and to that of tobacco; Brittany and Bearn were subject to the monopoly of tobacco, but not to that of salt; while Artois was subject to neither.—P.
^o "Profits on coinage and forges."—The profits on coinage amounted to 500,000 livres; those on the royal forges, to 80,000 livres. (Taylor's Statistics of France, p. 255.)—P.
^p "Caisse du commerce"—Commercial bank.
^q The king's children.
^r "Lignes Suisses."—This is doubtless a typographical error for *lignes Suisses*, Swiss leagues. (See Enc. Meth. Dict. Fin. t. II. p. 144, and Taylor's Statistics, p. 255.)—Capitulations or treaties were entered into between the king of France and the different Swiss governments, for the regular supply of the Swiss troops in the service of the former. These amounted in 1784 to 15,500 men. (Enc. Meth. Dict. Econ. Pol. t. I. p. 669.)—P.
^s "Ponts-et-chaussées"
^t "Rentés perpetuelles et viagères"—Perpetual and life annuities.—P.

	Francs.
Interest and expense of anticipations for 1790 and 1791	15,800,000
Stipulations with the clergy	2,500,000
Indemnities	3,235,000
Pensions	29,560,000
King's counsel, chancellor, keeper of the seals, secretary of State, &c. ^a	3,173,000
Governors ^b of Provinces	1,495,000
Police and Guard of Paris	2,708,000
Marshalsea ^c of the Province of the Isle of France	250,000
Roads, streets, works and quarries near Paris ^d	1,627,000
Expenses of the poll tax and twentieths in the provinces ^e	7,120,000
Sums allowed to collectors and farmers of the revenue ^f	29,094,000
To the officers, paymasters, &c. of the treasury ^g	3,753,000
Ministerial offices ^h	2,048,000
Charitable fund, sums granted to foreigners ⁱ	1,002,000
Sums for building churches and sacred edifices	2,188,000
Gifts, alms, works of charity, mendicity	6,078,000
Commercial bounties, &c. ^j	3,864,000
Public Instruction, King's Garden and Royal Library	1,227,000
Public buildings	1,900,000
Expenses of criminal justice	3,180,000
Variable expenses in the provinces	4,500,000
Different expenses, mines, &c.	990,000
Unforeseen expenses	5,400,000
Total amount	531,444,000

	Francs.
Department of Justice	23,318,730
Department of Foreign Affairs	7,000,000
Department of the Interior	{ Ordinary service - - - - - 17,000,000
	{ Extraordinary - - - - - 22,500,000
	{ Subsistence purchased in 1801 - - - - - 7,610,000
Finance department.	{ Ordinary service - - - - - 29,047,788
	{ Sureties partly reimbursed ^r - - - - - 5,000,000
	{ Interest on sureties ^s - - - - - 2,000,000
	{ Pensions - - - - - 20,000,000
Service of the treasury ^t	6,000,000
War department	153,000,000
Ministry of war ^u	90,000,000
Navy department.	{ Ordinary service - - - - - 70,000,000
	{ Extraordinary - - - - - 56,000,000
Negotiations	9,000,000
Balance ^v	8,000,000
Total	589,500,000

The army consisted of 569,000 men, viz.

Infantry	441,540
Cavalry	68,980
Artillery	46,480
Engineers	5,800
Consular Guard	6200

The navy consisted of thirty-four ships of the line, thirty frigates, 150 sloops^w and 1000 armed pinnaces, besides six ships of the line and several frigates on the stocks.

NOTE.—France was at peace in 1802 with the European powers.

STATE OF THE FINANCES OF FRANCE, COMPREHENDING 108 DEPARTMENTS, IN 1802 (YEAR XI.)

RECEIPTS.	Francs.
Excess of the receipts above the expenses in the preceding year	2,000,000
Land and heritable taxes ¹	220,200,000
Personal and moveable taxes	32,800,000
Additional centimes for departmental expenses	15,783,000
Doors and windows	16,000,000
Patents and tolls ^m	17,500,000
Registers and forests ⁿ	190,000,000
Customs	40,000,000
Post Office	11,000,000
Lotteries	12,000,000
Salt works	3,500,000
Suretyship for justices of the peace, clerks, &c. ^o	4,000,000
Accidental and miscellaneous receipts	4,717,000
Foreign Receipts^p	569,500,000
Total	589,500,000

STATE OF THE FINANCES OF FRANCE, ACCORDING TO THE BUDGET OF 1830, PRESENTED TO THE CHAMBERS IN 1829.

RECEIPTS.	Francs.
Direct Taxes.	
Land tax ^q	243,793,500
Personal and moveable taxes	40,988,000
Doors and Windows	15,327,500
Patents, tolls ^r	26,804,000
Charges and advertisements ^s	650,000
Additional tax on timber ^{aa}	1,558,000
Registers and domains ^{bb}	185,337,000
Forests	27,300,000

^o " Sureties (*cautionnements*) of justices' clerks (*greffiers de justice de paix*)."—Receivers of direct taxes, paymasters of the departments, notaries, clerks (*greffiers*), brokers, &c. were obliged to deposit in the sinking fund (*caisse d'amortissement*), a certain sum as bail or surety, the interest of which was paid them at a certain rate fixed by law. (Peuchet. p. 545).—P.

^p " Recette extérieure."—Contributions levied in the conquered countries.—P.

^q " Dette viagère—Dette perpctuelle."—See note ^t p. 1033.—P.

^r " Reimbursement of a part of the sureties deposited in the sinking fund."—See note ^o.—P. ^s See note ^o.—P.

^t " Department of the Public Treasury" (—of the imperial treasury, 1813.) This department was united with that of the Finances, after the restoration.—P.

^u " Department of the Administration of War."—Under the imperial government there was a department of War, charged with the organization, pay and operations of the army, and the general superintendence of military affairs, and a department of the Administration of War, or commissary department. Both were united into one (the War department,) after the restoration.—P.

^v " Fund in reserve"—contingent fund.—P.

^w " Gun-boats (*chaloupes canonnières*)."

^x " Contribution foncière."—See note ¹.—P.

^y " Patents."—See note ^m.—P.

^z " Costs (*frais*) and advertisements."—*Advertisement*, in finance, is an official notification by a receiver or collector to such as delay the payment of their taxes. (Enc. Meth. Dict. Jurispr.)—P.

^{aa} " Additional tax on the woods of the communes."—The extent of the national forests, as given by Peuchet (Stat. de la France, 1805,) was 2,393,000 hectares; that of the woods belonging to the communes, 2,000,000 hectares; and that of those belonging to individuals, 1,500,000 hectares.—P.

^{bb} " Registry and domains."—Under the empire, the administration (*régie*) of the registry and domains was charged with the revenue arising from the fees for the recording of all legal instruments in the public registers, the stamp tax, duties on the manufacture of tobacco, rents and sales of the national domains, including the sale of wood from the national forests, and other minor branches of revenue. (Peuchet).—P.

^a " Salaries of the council, the chancellor, the keeper of the seals, and the secretary of state of the royal household."

^b " Intendants"

^c A company of horse police.—P.

^d " Paving of Paris, and labour in the quarries in its neighbourhood."

^e " Décharges sur la capitation et le vingtième de province."—This item, in Taylor's Statistics, is as follows: Remissions and discharges, and abatements on the 20ths and capitations.—P.

^f " Allowance (*traitement*) to receivers, farmers, &c."—including charges of collection (expenses of recovery. Taylor's Stat.)—P.

^g " To the administrators of the treasury, paymasters, &c."—To the five administrators of the royal treasury, payers of interest, &c. (Taylor's Stat.)—P.

^h " Bureaus of the general administration."

ⁱ " Refugees."

^j " For the encouragement of commerce."

^k Garden of Plants, at Paris.—P.

^l " Contribution foncière"—taxes on real estate.—P.

^m " Patents (*patentes*)"—tax on the right of exercising any trade or profession.—P.

ⁿ " Administration (*régie*) of the registry (*enregistrement*) and forests."—See note ^{bb}.—P.

		<i>Customs.</i>	
Duties on imports	-	104,165,000	} 163,590,000
exports	-	1,448,000	
salt	-	54,250,000	
navigation	-	2,972,000	
different articles ^a	-	755,000	
		<i>Indirect Taxes.</i>	
Duties on wines, spirits, &c. ^b	-	106,698,000	} 212,285,000
carriages, &c. ^c	-	33,502,000	
tobacco	-	67,989,000	
gunpowder	-	4,096,000	
Post Office	-	30,523,000	
Lottery	-	12,500,000	
Gaming houses ^d	-	5,500,000	
		<i>Miscellaneous Products.</i>	
Salt works and salt mines ^e	-	1,800,000	
Benefice of the mint	-	140,000	
Produce of the mines	-	240,000	
Receipts from different debts ^f	-	500,000	
Products in different departments of the state	-	1,200,000	
Indemnities for military supplies ^g	-	150,000	
Restitutions made to the state	-	70,000	
Receipts from schools and places of exercise ^h	-	50,000	
Services in arrear ⁱ	-	50,000	
Eventual receipts	-	1,601,000	
Verification of weights and measures	-	800,000	
Eventual receipts from the departments ^j	-	746,000	
Improvements in the customs, domains, and indirect taxes ^k	-	3,500,000	
Interest on the Spanish debt of 80,000,000 francs	-	2,349,000	
Total	-	979,352,000	
Excess of the expenses	-	2,158,000	
		981,510,000	

		<i>Sums payable on order.</i>	
Royal council of public instruction	-	3,992,500	
Tax on brevets of invention ^l	-	150,000	
Management of powder and saltpetre works ^m	-	3,426,500	
Gold and silver, retained after coinage ⁿ	-	2,067,000	
		9,636,000	

		<i>EXPENSES.</i>	
Civil List,	-	32,000,000	
National debt,	-	269,918,000	
Registered pensions.	{	Legion of Honour, - 3,400,000	} 61,006,000
		Peers, retired senators, &c. 2,763,000	
		Civil, - 1,500,000	
		Military, - 45,600,000	
		Ecclesiastical, - 5,450,000	
		Donees, ^o - 1,510,000	
		Superannuated fund, ^p 783,000	
		Chamber of peers, - 800,000	
		deputies, - 600,000	
General service.	{	Mint - 1,440,000	} 8,745,000
		Registry, ^q - 5,500,000	
		Sums paid to emigrants and colonists, } 405,000	

^a "Miscellaneous duties." ^b "—on liquors in general"
^c "—on carriages, cards (*cartes*), salt, navigation, &c."
^d "Ferme des jeux à Paris."—The revenue arising from the gaming houses at Paris is farmed by the government.—P.
^e "Salt works and salt mines in the eastern part of France"—in Lorraine and Franche-Comté, particularly the extensive salt works at Salins in the latter.—P.
^f "Débets des finances"—sums due to the treasury from individuals charged with the collection or disbursement of the public monies (*comptables*), as determined by the court of exchequer (*cour des comptes*). (Enc. Meth. Dict. Fin.)—P. ^g "—remplacements militaires."
^h "Recettes sur les exercices clos."—*Exercice*, in finance, is the period of service of an officer, as of a collector or receiver. The accounts of the period are called *comptes de l'exercice*. Accounts are said to be closed (*clos*) when balanced and settled.—P.
ⁱ "Capital de rentes (service de l'arrière)." ^j "Eventual resources of the departments."
^k Fines for forfeiture to the customs, &c. (*amendes sur les douanes*, &c.) ^l Patent rights.—P.
^m "General direction (*direction générale*) of powder and saltpetre works."—This is the name of an office in the war department, established at the arsenal in Paris.—P.
ⁿ The original properly signifies: "Sums retained at the mint for the expenses of coinage"—called also the seignorage of the coin, or the royal profit (*benefice du roi*) on coinage.—P.
^o "Donataires." ^p "Subvention aux fonds de retenue."
^q "Cadastre"—register of real estate, grand list.—P.
^r "Central administration"—Office of the minister of justice.—P.
^s "King's councils."—Under the late government of the Bourbons, besides the council of ministers and the cabinet councils, which had no special members, there was a privy-council and a council of state.—P.

Court of Exchequer,	-	1,255,000	
Justice.	{	Administration of justice, ^r 552,000	} 19,649,000
		King's council, ^s 686,500	
		Courts and tribunals, 14,564,000	
		Criminal justice, 3,400,000	
		Supplementary pension fund 371,500	
		Seals and titles, ^t 75,000	
Foreign affairs.	{	Administration of foreign affairs, ^u 1,020,000	} 9,000,000
		Diplomatic agents, &c. ^v 4,834,000	
		Expenses of the foreign service, 3,146,000	
Ecclesiastical affairs.	{	Ecclesiastical department, ^w 370,000	} 35,921,000
		Salaries and expenses of the clergy, 33,071,000	
		Aids to the clergy, 2,480,000	
Public Instruction,	-	1,995,000	
Interior.	{	Home department, ^x 1,451,000	} 105,600,000
		Roads, bridges, canals, or ordinary expenses, ^y 39,900,000	
		Public works, 3,657,000	
		Sciences and arts, 2,491,000	
		Non-catholic clergy, ^z 720,000	
		Studs, - 1,840,000	
		Useful institutions, - 1,425,000	
		Departmental expenses, 47,956,500	
		Special expenses (Paris), 1,040,000	
		Departmental (hail, fires, &c.) 1,819,000	
Commerce.	{	Commercial department, ^{aa} 894,000	} 3,294,000
		Cod and whale fisheries, 2,400,000	
		War department, ^{bb} 1,577,000	
		Staff, - 16,844,000	
		King's military household, 3,140,000	
		Gendarmes, - 15,849,000	
War.	{	Pay and maintenance of the troops, } 127,796,000	} 187,200,000
		Artillery (material,) 7,179,000	
		Engineers (material,) 8,325,000	
		Military schools, depots ^{cc} , &c. 2,004,000	
		Quarters, reforms, aids, &c. ^{dd} 4,486,000	
		Different expenses, 34,919,000	
Navy and Colonies.	{	Navy (material,) 22,267,000	} 65,270,000
		Colonies, - 7,000,000	
		Hospitals, - 1,184,000	
Finances.	{	Expense of collecting the public money, 117,473,000	} 117,473,000
		Different expenses, 59,584,000	
Sums borrowed for canals, roads and bridges,	-	3,600,000	
Total,	-	981,510,000	
		<i>Expenses that may be incurred.</i>	
Council of public instruction,	-	3,459,000	
Tax on brevets of invention, ^{ee}	-	150,000	
Powder and saltpetre,	-	3,428,000	
Money, (expense of coinage),	-	2,067,000	
		9,104,000	

^t "Caisse du sceau des titres."—The Commission of the Seal is charged, among other duties, with the decision of all claims relative to titles, coats of arms, &c.—P.
^u "Central administration, &c."—See note ^r.
^v "Salaries of diplomatic agents."
^w "Central administration"—Office of the minister of religion.—P.
^x "Central administration"—Office of the minister of the interior.—P.
^y "Roads and bridges { Ordinary expenses 31,000 } 39,900"
 (*Ponts et chaussées*) { Canals 8,900 }
^z "For the support of public worship (*cultes*), not catholic."—At present (1817,) the Roman Catholic religion is declared that of the majority of the French people, and is supported by the state; but the state provides equally for the ministers of the protestant churches, either Lutheran or Calvinist, and even superintends the synagogues of the Jews. (Ed. Enc.)—P.
^{aa} "Central administration and the different departmental administrations."—In 1822, there was a general council of commerce, under the administration of the minister of the interior, and thirty-one chambers of commerce in the departments, each of which was represented by a member in the general council.—P.
^{bb} "Central administration"—Office of the minister of war.—P.
^{cc} "Depot de la guerre" (Military Depot)—an office at the war department for the collection of historical memoirs relative to war, geographical maps and plans, and topographical details, and also for drawing and publishing maps, particularly the great map of France. (Alm. Royal.)—P.
^{dd} "Traitemens, reformes, secours, &c."—Should not this read *Traitemens de réforme, secours, &c.*—half-pay and pensions?—P.
^{ee} See note ^l.

BOOK CXLVII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Description of the Scandinavian Peninsula.—First Section.—Kingdom of Norway.

AT the northern extremity of Europe, in those regions where winter, characterised by long and severe frosts, and losing the grey complexion which it presents in temperate climates, covers the ground with a dazzling carpet of snow, and adorns itself with the brilliant fires of the Aurora Borealis; where the long days of summer, even hotter than under the sky of Italy, are indebted to the scorching rays of the sun for the blessings of a vegetation which unfolds itself with surprising rapidity, there lives a people, which, in the bosom of an advanced civilization, has religiously preserved the laws and manners of its ancestors. This people is the Norwegian.

Descended probably from the same source, the Norwegian speaks a language, which has the same origin with that of the Swedes and Danes.^a In the eighth century one dialect formed of them only one great family, and in this dialect were composed the songs consecrated to the mysteries and mythological creed of the Scandinavians. The brilliant fictions which still enliven our poetry, appear to have been, if not produced, at least tastefully coloured under the beautiful sky of Greece; yet we find a part of their lustre in the ancient Edda,^b the most valuable collection we possess of Scandinavian poems.^c Let us open one of these poems, the *Voluspá*, or the Oracle of the Prophetess *Völva*,^d in which the creation of the world, and its destruction, are described in glowing language. We there read that in the beginning a vast chaos reigned over the universe; the gods themselves slumbered in the repose of a long and dark night. At last appeared the giant *Ymer*, with his brothers, in the midst of that ocean of vapours which filled the immensity of space, and framed a world, gigantic indeed, but without proportion, and as yet enveloped in darkness. But *Odin*, the god of

light,^e accompanied by his two brothers *Ve* and *Vile*,^f extended his reign over this universe, still shapeless and rude: then the sun, hitherto wandering in space, drew the other stars after him around our planet; the seasons succeeded each other with regularity; *Ymer* fell under the blows of *Odin*, and in his blood the giants his brothers were drowned, one excepted, who, more fortunate than the rest, took refuge in the mountains, where he propagated a race destined one day to embroil the earth with blood.

Odin, intent upon beautifying the universe, created man and woman from the trunk of a tree thrown by the waves upon the shore. Does not this incident conceal a philosophical idea? May we not discover in this wreck, tossed upon the ocean, and which becomes the origin of the human race, the cause of the stormy life that attends man in this world? Whatever there may be in this, the deities hastened to adorn this new race of beings with the finest qualities: the earth presented the image of happiness; innocence and knowledge reigned in it; the arts diffused themselves; and gold became the most common of metals. But the daughters of the giants descended from their mountains; one of them, *Gullveiga*,^g or the *Weigher of Gold*, spread among men avarice and the love of gain; thrice the gods delivered her over to the flames, and thrice she revived from her ashes. She still lives: she it is who first caused human blood to flow, and, through her influence, it will never cease flowing.

Asagard^h is the Scandinavian Olympus. There, amidst surrounding clouds, rises, resplendent with light, *Valhalla*,ⁱ or the palace of *Odin*, the abode of the gods, and the asylum destined for those mortals, who by their virtues have rendered themselves worthy of it. There the hero slain in battle is admitted to the banquet of the gods. There *Freyja*, the daughter of the god of the sea,^j as *Venus* is of the foam,

^a The Danish, Swedish and Icelandic are three dialects of one great division of the Gothic family of languages, viz. the Scandinavian. This, before the discovery of Iceland (in the ninth century,) was common to all the Scandinavians. The Icelandic approaches nearest to this old language, of the three written languages; the High Norse, still spoken by the peasants in the remoter districts of Norway, is also nearer to it than the Danish and Swedish. These languages are characterized by two remarkable peculiarities, by which they differ essentially from the Teutonic languages, although very many of their words are closely allied to the corresponding words in the latter. These peculiarities are: 1. the possession of two definite articles—one separate and prefixed (Dan. and Sw. *den*, masc. and fem. *det*, neut.) and the other a suffixed syllable (*en* or *n*, masc. and fem. *et* or *t*, neut. in Dan. and Swed. —*enn* or *nn* and *ed* or *d*, in Icelandic); 2. the formation of the passive verb by simply suffixing *s* to the active, in Dan. and Swed. (e. g. *elske*, to love, *elskes*, to be loved,) and *st*, in Icelandic, (as *gefa*, to give, *gefust*, to be given.)—P.

^b The poetical or elder Edda; called also *Sæmund's Edda* (*Edda Sæmundar hins Froda*, Edda of *Sæmund the Wise*.) from *Sæmund Sigfuson*, an Icelander, by whom it was compiled about the beginning of the twelfth century.—The prose or younger Edda (*Snorro's Edda*) is said to have been compiled in the 13th century, by *Snorro Sturleson*, also an Icelander.—P.

^c "Scaldic poems"—poems of the Scalds (Scandinavian bards.)—P.

^d *Völuspá*, the prophecy (spæ) of the *Vala*.—The *Valas* were the Northern Sybils, prophetesses inspired by the *Nornir* or Destinies. (F. Q. R. No. III.)—They were of the race of giants (*Jotun*).—P.

^e *Odin* was called *Alfader*, the father of all the gods (*Aser*). The *Aser* (celestial deities) were opposed to the giants or evil genii (*Jotun*). *Odin*, the leader of the former, corresponds to the Persian *Ormuzd*, representing light, and *Loke*, the leader of the latter, to *Ahriman*, or darkness. In this sense, *Odin* may be called the god of light; but he was not the Northern *Apollo*. *Balder* (the vernal sun,) and *Freyr*, the sun-god, the brother of *Freyja*, the moon-goddess, better correspond with that deity. *Odin* is compared by *Finn Magnusen*, to the Grecian *Zeus*, the father of gods and men.—P.

^f *Odin*, *Vile* and *Ve* constitute one of the Northern Trinities (the cosmogonic trinity of the prose Edda.) *Odin* is regarded by *Magnusen* as the air, *Vile* as light, and *Ve* as fire.—P.

^g *Gullveig*, gold matter. (For. Qu. Rev. No. III.)—P.

^h *Asgard*—*Aser-yard*, the city of the gods (*Aser*).—P.

ⁱ "Valhal."—*Valhall*. (For. Quart. Rev. Nos. III. and VII.)—P.

^j *Freyja* was the daughter of *Niörd*, a deity who presided over the wind, to whom travellers and mariners addressed their prayers. (For. Q. Rev. No. VII.)—P.

adorns herself with all the charms of youth. She is the goddess of love and of beauty, and, under the name of *Vanadis*, also the goddess of hope. She shares with Odin the empire of the dead,^a because it is often unsuccessful love which hurries its victims into the heat of battle. *Frigga*, the chaste spouse of Odin, the Ceres and Juno of the Scandinavians,^b receives, after death, such wives as have been distinguished by a heroic fidelity; while *Thor*, her eldest son, who, with his club, terrifies the giants, and makes them retire within the limits of *Jotunheim*,^c the prison reserved for them, in like manner rewards after their death faithful slaves. In the palace of the immortals, *Bragor*, the god of the arts and of music,^d charms the ears of the deities with the notes of his golden harp. *Idunna*, his wife, distributes among the inhabitants of heaven the apples which perpetuate their immortality. *Forsete*, another son of Odin,^e has for his employment the preserving peace among mankind; and the goddess *Vara* presides over the sacredness of oaths. Without this hallowed mansion, the god *Uller*, gliding on his sparkling skates, cuts the air with the rapidity of lightning, surpassing the winds in swiftness; while the watchful *Heimdall*, a sentinel ever attentive to the motions of the evil genii, guards night and day that aerial arch, the seven colours of which are so often seen by men. But the object beloved by all the gods is *Balder*,^f the son of Odin, the most amiable and the most brilliant of the immortals, endowed by destiny with every good quality of the heart, with every intellectual gift, and with every physical advantage. Nothing equals his beauty: his eyes shine with a lustre more radiant than that of the morning star. To him alone belongs the power of appeasing tempests. A stranger to the passions which agitate the other gods, to their warlike projects, and their obstreperous mirth, he seldom appears at their assemblies, living peaceably in a palace, whose site is pointed out by that white belt, which during clear nights shines in the vault of heaven.

But this world, organized by Odin, will one day fall in ruins, and again become part of the empire of chaos: the death of Balder has been predicted, and Odin has read this terrible secret in the Book of Fate.^g *Siona*, the goddess of sympathy and love; *Snotra*, who bestows prudence and moderation; *Lowna*, who presides over conjugal fidelity; the three *Nornies*, who regulate the destiny of mortals;^h the twelve *Valkiries*,ⁱ nymphs who accompany heroes to battle; in short, all the gods tremble in the knowledge of the future that threatens them. All these deities have compelled the parts of nature, which are subject to them, by an oath to furnish no arms fatal to the life of Balder.^j Fire, water, vegetables and rocks are bound by this oath; one parasitical plant,

the mistletoe, was alone forgotten. *Loke*, the genius of evil, has discovered the fatal omission, and he will employ this contemptible vegetable to accomplish the decree of fate. Assured that all the elements respect his life, Balder, amidst the warlike exercises of Valhalla, feels a pleasure in presenting his invulnerable breast to the darts thrown at him by the gods; but Loke, at one of these celestial assemblies, will engage *Hoder*,^k the son of Odin, to take part, although blind, in the tournaments. Putting into his hand a branch of the mistletoe, and directing his arm, the genius of evil will see his wishes accomplished by an unintentional fratricide. Loke will then assemble the giants his sons; he will open the gates of *Nastrond*, a frozen hell, where rivers of poison alone preserve their fluidity, and he will bring from thence perjurers and assassins, and the dreadful *Hela*, the goddess of death. *Surtur*,^l the genius of fire, will at the same time escape from *Muspelheim*, his abode of flames. Then all these monsters and their attendants will attack the gods; the serpent *Jormungandur*^m will crush the earth in his immense folds; the wolf *Fenris* will devour the sun and the valiant Odinⁿ; the stars will fall from the azure vault; the two celestial armies will perish, annihilated by each other; and the universe, disorganized by so many opposing struggles, will present only a vast collection of elements confusedly mixed.

The predictions, however, of the sybil Vola,^o do not terminate with this frightful catastrophe. She invokes a deity greater than all those who are to perish in the general conflagration. This Being, superior to all others, will appear to establish eternal laws; a new earth will proceed from chaos, in the splendour of youth; the climates of the north will no longer have either ice or frost, but a perpetual spring will reign there, and Balder, the god of peace, raised again from the dead, will gather around him all virtuous men.^p

In this exposition of the Scandinavian mythology, we perceive resemblances to the writings of Plato, and many fictions similar to those which distinguish the philosophical systems of the Slavonians, Persians, and Indians. Do these different points of analogy prove, that in every climate man has given the same form to his religious ideas, as an author of merit supposes?^q Or, do they not rather point out to us, that the ancient dogmas of the north derive their origin from the sacred reveries, which are regarded as having had their birth in India? Or, lastly, have they not rather been carried from the regions of the north even as far as the east? The study of such monuments as have survived the destruction of ages, the knowledge of the ancient languages of the north, and a comparison of them with those of India, have probably not yet thrown sufficient light upon these questions. It is difficult not to recognise the striking resem-

^a "She shares the dead equally with Odin."—When she goes to the battles of men, one half of the slain fall to her and the other to Odin. (For. Q. Rev. No. VII.)—P.

^b Frigga was the goddess of the earth.—P.

^c *Jotunheim*, the abode (home) of the giants (*Jotun*).—P.

^d Braga, the god of song and poetry (F. Q. R.)—Bragur.—P.

^e *Forseti* (prudent) was the son of Balder; it was his office to pronounce true and righteous judgement. (For. Quart. Rev. No. VII.)—P.

^f Baldur, the good—called also the White God.—P.

^g "—in the fountain of destiny."—Odin descends to the realm of death (*Hela*'s abode) on his horse *Sleipner*, and there evoking one of the Valas (prophetic giantesses,) learns from her the secret of Balder's death.* (For. Q. R. No. VII.)—The fount of destiny is called *Urda*'s fount, situated in the south, and the source of life, light and warmth. (F. Q. R. No. III.)—On the approach of the twilight of the Gods (destruction of the world,) Odin in vain seeks advice at the well of Mimer, in the north, the source of wisdom.—P.

* See Gray's ode: The descent of Odin.

^h *Nornir*—the three maids, *Urda*, *Verande*, and *Skuld* (Past, Present

and Future,) who dwell by *Urda*'s fount, and appoint the life-time of mortals—the Northern Fates. (F. Q. R. No. III.)—P.

ⁱ *Valkyriur* (choosers of the slain).—P.

^j Frigga compelled all beings animate and inanimate to take an oath that they would spare the life of Balder. (For. Rev. No. II.)—P.

^k Hödur. (F. Q. R.)

^l *Surtur* (the black, *swart*;) lord of *Muspelheim*, destroyer of the world by fire.—P.

^m *Jormungandur* (earthly monster) or *Midgardsormr* (earth's serpent).—He lay at the bottom of the earth-surrounding ocean, completely encircling the earth, with his tail in his mouth.—The habitable earth was called *Midgard* (Middle-yard or city,) also *Mannheim*, or *Man*'s abode, and was supposed to be surrounded by the sea, and that by *Ut-gard* (Outer-yard) or *Jotunheim*.—P.

ⁿ The wolf *Fenris* will swallow Odin, and after him the sun and moon, but will fall by *Vidur*, the son of Odin. (For. Rev. No. II.)—P.

^o See note ^d p. 1036.

^p See the work entitled: *Edda Rhythmica seu Antiquior*, vulgo *Sæmundina dicta*, &c. Copenhagen, 1827.

^q Ch. Coquerel, *Résumé de l'histoire de Suède*, 2e édit. 1825.

blance that exists between the Normanno-Gothic,^a the language of the Scalds, and that in which the two poems of the Edda and Voluspa^b are written, and the Sanscrit. The Runic alphabet, which resembles the Phœnician characters, and those of the ancient inscriptions at Persepolis, had been in use in the north from time immemorial.^c Shall we admit, with certain modern authors, that the conqueror, who, under the name of Odin, was deified in the humid and icy regions of Scandinavia, where he founded a new creed and a new empire, proceeded from Asiatic Tartary, when a crowd of traditions and monuments prove, that the Scandinavian worship, or that of Odin, had been, when the Romans penetrated into Germany, established there from the remotest antiquity? Does not history present to us, in every country of the globe, the people of the north subduing the nations of the south, and the latter only here and there, through an instinct of self-preservation, re-acting upon the north, in order to keep back the masses ready to pour in upon them? If the affinity^d of languages is not a chimera; if the first language, if the first alphabet, if the first arts adopted by every people, are not the natural and universal results of the physical and moral organization of man; if they do not resemble each other for the same reason that in every country the drawings sketched by a child, or by an uneducated man, bear an identical character: we would say, that in order to ascend to their origin, we must advance towards the north rather than the south, because it is not natural that people should quit warm or temperate regions for northern ones, which have not even sufficient attractions to retain the natives, as is proved by the frequent migrations sent by the North to more favoured climates. It appears to us then difficult to prove that the Scandinavians are not descended from a primitive race, indigenous to the countries which it still inhabits.^e

Under the name of *Scandia*, the ancients designated all the countries which now comprise Norway and Sweden. Pliny calls it *Scandia insula*.^f The origin of this appellation arises from this circumstance, that in the time of the Roman naturalist, they were only acquainted with that part of the country called *Skanen* or *Skonen*,^g and that merely through the report of some Germans. This is the former province of *Schonen* or *Scania*, the most southern of Sweden.^h The name was afterwards changed to *Scandinavia*.

The Scandinavian tribes were much more addicted to the chase, and to fishing, than to agriculture. These occupations formed the principal guarantees of their independence. With them the representative form of government seems to have originated. They obeyed chiefs or kings who were at once judges and high-priests, but whose power was limited by the national assemblies composed of free men. The sov-

ereign authority was partly hereditary and partly elective, and this mixed organization was long preserved in Sweden. Their habitations lay dispersed, and to them, like the Germans, the confinement of a city would have proved an insupportable prison. Their manners were severe. With them, hospitality was the first of duties; cowardice and adultery were the two greatest crimes. They interred their warriors in such parts of the sea-beach, as were alternately covered and abandoned by the waves: "These tribes," says an author, whose testimony has already been referred to, "imagined that the shades of heroes preferred the majestic noise of the billows to the silent repose of a valley or a plain, and that their ghosts, rising amidst the obscurity of the evening, loved to contemplate the sons of Odin returning from their foreign expeditions, and repeating the warlike songs with which they had inspired them."ⁱ

The respect which they had for their women was carried much farther than even that of the Celts and Germans. At their festivals, at their public meetings, and at their feasts, the women always occupied the place of honour. They, on the other hand, rendered themselves worthy of the respect of the men, by their virtues, and by their attachment to their husbands. Often they accompanied them to battle, perished with them, or re-assembled the troops to avenge their death. Sometimes, but this was not a general custom, they immolated themselves on their husbands' funeral pile. The deep regard which the Scandinavians had for chastity, formed the principal safeguard of their morals; the women did not live apart from the men; the young women might receive into their apartments their relations, and even their future husbands. If, during a journey, two individuals of different sexes, and unmarried, were obliged to sleep upon the same bed, the man placed his naked sword between the woman and him, and it formed a more secure barrier than modern bolts. The education that women of rank received, proves also the respect with which they were treated. They were taught to read and to engrave the Runic characters, a knowledge interdicted to slaves; music and poetry formed also their employment, and the *Sagas*, or ancient historical relations, cite a great number of princesses who aspired to the title of poet. The women alone practised medicine and surgery; they alone dressed the wounded. They excelled also in the art of interpreting dreams, of predicting the future, and discovering the character of individuals from their features and physiognomy. Yet this superior education did not exclude domestic occupations; even their queens were acquainted with sewing, embroidery, baking, and brewing.

If the religion and manners of the ancient Scandinavians

^a See note ^a p. 1036.

^b This is a mistake. The Edda (poetical Edda) and Voluspa are not two distinct poems. The poetical Edda is a collection of mythological songs or poems, one of which is the Voluspa.—P.

^c The Runic characters are so called from the old Latin word *runa* (a javelin)^{*}, because they are of a sharp or pointed form; the Persepolitan writing is formed of letters which are called wedge-shaped (*cuneiform*), from their resemblance to a wedge or an arrow-head.

The Runic characters, which also resemble the Samaritan, the ancient Greek, and the Celtiberian, are in number sixteen.

^{*} Runic is derived from *run*, signifying in the old Scandinavian language, line or stroke, and in the old northern tales (*sagas*,) speech, song, and also letter and writing. In Ulpilas it signifies secret, and is thence used in the northern tales for a mysterious spell, song or letter. (For. Rev. No. II.)—P.

^d "Filiation"—affinity by descent or derivation.—P.

^e "God hath made of one blood all the nations of the earth." Paul, in Acts XVII. 26.—*Translator's Note*. ["God—hath made of one blood all nations of men for to dwell on all the face of the earth." Acts XVII. 26.—This is not the first time that the local, or rather *autochtho-*

nous, creation, we might say spontaneous production, of the different tribes or races of men, has been more or less distinctly stated in the original—a doctrine generally considered in English science, as equally opposed to religion and philosophy. Aside from the express declarations of scripture to the contrary, and the general conformity of the different races of men, in their physical, intellectual and moral constitution, there are certain circumstances connected with the doctrine of animal species, which render the opinion in the text, extremely improbable, if not absolutely groundless.—P.]

^f *Scandia, insula*: in the index; not in the text.—Sunt qui et alias [*insulas*] prodant, Scandiam, Dumniam, Bergos: maximamque omnium Nerigon.—Plin. Nat. Hist. l. iv. c. 16.—The author should have said, Pliny calls it an island.—P.

^g "*Skane* or *Skone*."—*Skanen* or *Skonen* is merely the word with the definite article *en* suffixed. See note ^a p. 1036.—P.

^h Sweden was formerly divided into provinces, but at present is divided into prefectures. (See Statistical Tables.)—P.

ⁱ Ch. Coquerel, Résumé de l'histoire de Suède.

present a picture interesting from the view it gives of the Norwegians and Swedes before their acquaintance with Christianity, that which they now present equally merits our attention. Let us begin with Norway. In spite of the vague ideas which the ancients entertained of the northern countries of Europe, it cannot be doubted that the country which Pliny^a calls *Nerigon*^b is Norway. Many geographers^c have asserted that the name signifies the *Way to the North*;^d but its true etymology is *Nor-Rige*, Kingdom of the North,^e or rather, perhaps, assuming the word *Nor* as signifying *Gulf*, Kingdom of Gulfs, because in effect its coasts are much more indented than those of Sweden. We thus see that the name of *Nerigon* has much more analogy with that of *Norrige* than with that of *Norweg*, which at the first glance appears to be the origin of the modern name.

The petty sovereignties, into which Norway was divided, were, from times the most remote, independent, acknowledging, however, a kind of supremacy in the kings of Sweden and Denmark, till about the year 940, when Harold Harfagre (the *Fair-haired*),^f after long fighting, formed one kingdom of all these principalities. Olof Trygvason,^g known also by the name of Olaus, whose bold adventures astonished the North, and possessor of the Norwegian throne in 991, endeavoured, by violence and cruelty, to extirpate the worship of Odin in his new states. But another Olof,^h at the commencement of the eleventh century, surpassed his predecessor in tyranny, and in zeal for the church, or in other words, for the clergy. In return, the church made a saint of him: even at Constantinople they erected temples to his memory, and his tomb was visited by pilgrims, not only from the North, but from all Europe. Down to the fourteenth century, many kings, whose vices and virtues we shall not even sketch, succeeded one another in the midst of political storms. Towards the close of the fourteenth century, the three kingdoms of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway were united under one sovereign, Margaret, daughter of Waldemar of Denmark. In the lifetime of Margaret, she appointed her grand-nephew, Eric, surnamed of Pomerania, her successor, who, on the death of Margaret, in 1412, succeeded to the three crowns, as Eric II. of Norway, IX. or X. of Denmark, and XIII. of Sweden.^j After various attempts had been made on the part of the Swedes, the oppression and cruelty of Christian II. led to a final separation of Swe-

^a Lib. IV. cap. 16.

^b *Nerigos*, D'Anv.—*Nerigon*, in the index to Pliny. It is also *Nerigon* in the text of Pliny, but it there occurs in the accusative. See the passage quoted in note ⁱ p. 1038.—P.

^c See the article Norway (*Norvège*) in the Geographical Dictionary of the *Encyclopédie*. [The name of Norway (*Norvège*) is formed from *nord* and *væg*, northern way (*chemin du nord*). (Enc. Meth. Geog. Mod.)—The natural signification of Norway is, the *Northern-way*. (Guthrie.)—Norway, anciently *Norrik*, or the Northern kingdom. (Pinkerton.)—Its present name is *Norge*, in Danish.—P.]

^d "*Chemin du Nord*"—literally, way of the north; northern way.—P.

^e From *nord* and *væg* (way): *Norvæg*. [*Væg* is German. *Vei* is the same word in Danish, and *væg*, in Swedish.—P.]

^f *Nord*, north, and *rige*, kingdom, (Danish).—P.

^g "*Harald aux beaux cheveux*"—Harald the Fair-haired.—The sovereignty originally founded in the south-east part of Norway, around the modern city of Christiania, was extended by degrees, and Harald Harfagre about A. D. 910 became master of all Norway. (Pinkerton's Geog. vol. I. 4to, p. 342.)—Norway was originally divided into a number of petty principalities, which were first united into one monarchy by Harold Harfager, A. D. 875. (Ed. Encyc.)—P.

^h Olaf I. (Pinkerton.)

ⁱ Olaf II. the saint, 1014—1030. (Pinkerton.)

^j It is altogether a mistake in the original to say that Eric XIII. reigned in Sweden only. He was the same person who was Eric II. in Norway, and Eric IX. or X. in Denmark.—Tr.

^k Gustavus Vasa excited the revolt in Dalecarlia in 1520, but did

not complete the restoration of Sweden till the capture of Stockholm in 1523. (Pinkerton, vol. I. p. 366.)—P.

den in 1520,^k under the renowned Gustavus Ericson (Vasa,) but Norway and Denmark remained under one sceptre till their separation in 1814, when Norway was united to the crown of Sweden.^l

It is known, that the Norwegians were opposed to the separation from Denmark and union to Sweden that took place after the downfall of Napoleon's empire in 1815.^m To compensate Sweden for the loss of Finland, to reward her for her assistance under Bernadotte, then crown prince of Sweden, in the important campaign of 1813, and at same time to punish Denmark for her adherence to Napoleon, or rather her neutrality in what was considered the common cause of Europe, the allies, in the plenitude of their power, determined upon the violent separation of two states that had been united for ages, and the junction of Norway with a state that had for ages been considered her natural enemy. It was in vain that the Norwegians remonstrated, and attempted resistance: they were threatened with starvation by a blockade of their ports; and they at last agreed to the union, on condition of being allowed to choose a constitution of their own. The constitution they made choice of was eminently popular, indeed democratic. All orders of nobility were abolished, with this exception, that those who possessed titles under the old regime, were allowed to retain them during their lives, and their children who were born, previous to the new order of things, are allowed to succeed them, but with them the title of nobility expires. The king is chief magistrate, but no taxes can be imposed, or laws passed, without the consent of the *Storting*,ⁿ or great council of the nation, which meets every three years, in the month of February, except in extraordinary cases, when it may be assembled, without regard to the ordinary time. It is composed of seventy-seven deputies, twenty-six from the towns, and fifty-one from the country. A spirit of independence runs through all the proceedings of the *Storting*, which has led to continual differences between them and the Swedish government, the latter accusing the Norwegians of an unreasonable and factious opposition, while they, on the other hand, charge the government with attempts to innovate upon and change the constitution. A traveller who lately (1827) visited Norway, was present at a meeting of the *Storting*: "There were," he says, "about fifty members present, some of whom had come from the

not complete the restoration of Sweden till the capture of Stockholm in 1523. (Pinkerton, vol. I. p. 366.)—P.

^l "In 1350, Norway, Denmark and Sweden were united under the same sovereign; Eric XIII., however, some years afterwards, reigned alone in Sweden, and the two other kingdoms remained almost continually under the same sceptre, until the definitive union of Norway with Sweden in 1814."—The marriage of Hakon VI. king of Norway, with Margaret daughter of Waldemar III. king of Denmark, A. D. 1363, produced the memorable union of the crowns of the north. On the death of her young son (Olaus,) Margaret ascended the throne of Denmark and Norway in 1387, and that of Sweden in 1389. (Pinkerton, vol. I. p. 341.)—The three kingdoms were not formally united, till the union of Calmar in 1397. (Ed. Encyc. art. Denmark.)—The crowns of Denmark and Norway were united by the marriage of Hakon and Margaret; the two countries, however, continued separate so far as to have distinct constitutions and codes of law, and were not formally conjoined as one kingdom till the year 1537. (Ed. Encyc. art. Norway.)—Eric of Pomerania, who succeeded Margaret in 1412, reigned 26 years after her death, when he was compelled to abdicate, A. D. 1448.—P.

^m Qu. in 1814, or rather after his expulsion from Germany in 1813. The king of Denmark was compelled to sign a treaty at Kiel, Jan. 14, 1814, by which he ceded Norway to Sweden in exchange for Swedish Pomerania and the island of Rugen. The Norwegians, however, resisted the union with Sweden, but in an assembly at Christiania, Oct. 1814, it was agreed that Norway should be permanently governed by the same king as Sweden, but as an integral state, and with the preservation of its constitution and laws.—P.

ⁿ *Stor*, great, and *ting* (Dan. *ting*.) court or tribunal.—P.

unfrequented parts of the country, and surprised us by the patriarchal simplicity of their appearance. They were drest in the coarse grey woollen cloth of the peasants, with long hair reaching to their shoulders, and their whole costume reminded one of the fashions of other centuries; they seemed beings of a different era from ourselves." "Were not," the writer adds, "the senators of Rome, when virtuous and poor, somewhat such men as these?" By an article of the constitution, the king must pass some time every year in Norway, unless prevented by urgent circumstances; and by another, public employments are conferred only on Norwegian citizens, who profess the established religion, which is declared to be the Lutheran. Jews, by an express article, are prohibited from entering Norway.^a

In a country where man seems to have always enjoyed his rights, and preserved the exercise of his dignity; where the peasant, far from being subjected to that kind of moral and political non-existence, under which he has been everywhere else oppressed, lives a free-man, and is represented by deputies in the national assemblies; where the rich proprietor is, so to speak, merely a rich peasant; where the order of nobility is almost unknown; and where large estates and mansion-houses corresponding, are less frequent than in any other country; the epoch of the reformation would naturally be an era for consolidating the institutions dear to a population jealous of its liberty, and thus Protestantism was easily established in Norway in the year 1525. The Norwegian clergy, no less charitable and virtuous than those of other Christian countries, are superior to them in information. It is amongst this respectable class that the peasantry find well-informed teachers, indulgent reprovers, assiduous comforters, and models of behaviour. Every plan which is conducive to the general interest, public utility, and the prosperity of the country, finds wise appreciators of its value in the simplest country curates. It is thus to their advice and to their influence that government is anxious to have recourse, when it is intended to establish granaries, to repair bridges and roads, or to introduce some new mode of cultivation. It is rare not to find among the clergy well informed mineralogists, economists, botanists, and agriculturists. There have been amongst them many sufficiently acquainted with astronomy to find pleasure in diffusing the knowledge of this science, and so zealous, as at their own expense to erect observatories furnished with every necessary instrument. They have been even known to introduce among their parishioners the art of making watches and clocks.

In travelling through Norway, we at this day discover the truth of what has been said above of the taste of the Scandinavians for detached habitations: a village is often composed of houses scattered here and there, and forming an entire parish extending over a space of several leagues. On Sundays the roads are seen covered with light carriages,^b which transport the peasant, with his whole family, in their best array, to church to assist in divine service; the churches, although large, can rarely contain the crowds eager to listen to the voice of their pastor. After sermon the whole population give themselves up to the amusement

of the dance, to games, and to various gymnastic exercises. The young men often meet together to go through military manœuvres. At a fixed time every year, the youth, who, still inheriting the warlike inclinations of their ancestors, voluntarily enrol themselves in the militia, assemble together under the command of their officers, and form disciplinary camps, where they are instructed in the manual exercise and in military evolutions.

Industry and frugality, the sources of the civil virtues, form prominent features in the Norwegian population: intelligence and education strengthening these valuable qualities, shelter it from corruption of manners, and maintain in all hearts the sacred fire of the love of independence. Christmas is the only time of the year, when the assembling of families, and the accompanying festivities, make the Norwegians deviate from their simple and frugal habits. It is also about the same time, and during the month of January, that the peasant, trusting to the swiftness of his sledge, travels to the towns, to exchange the produce of his crops for country implements and for different articles of manufacture suitable to his wants and inclinations. The aptitude of the Norwegians to imitate every thing is such, that during the long winter-evenings, they are seen in every family, assembled around the fire-place, the men employed in making knives, spoons, shoes, and buttons for their clothes, and the women, in preparing linen and woollen stuffs for their dress, and even in dyeing them with the colouring lichens in which the country abounds. The skill which distinguishes the population in some districts is even such, that it transforms every habitation into a little manufactory, the products of which are exported into the less industrious districts.

In Norway there are few great proprietors, but, on the other hand, extreme poverty is unknown. Nothing is more uncommon than to meet with a beggar. If age or infirmities disable some unfortunate creature from working, he finds assistance and generous attention in the bosom of his family or his parish. Compassion towards indigence and misfortune is with the Norwegian rather an ancient virtue, than the effect of Christian charity. It is the same as to hospitality, which with him is a sacred duty. To these personal qualities there is joined great quickness of apprehension, a character lively and frank, and unflinching fidelity. He loves with enthusiasm his country and his sovereign, and respects his superiors, but refuses them slavish homage. His manners are gentle, polite and affectionate; his mien is noble, his gait easy, and his dress always neat. The costume of the females is simple and graceful; at home they wear a plain morning gown, with a linen chemise of a dazzling whiteness, plaited around the neck and fastened by a collar.^c A complexion of the lily and the rose, beautiful flaxen hair, and a person tall and well-shaped, give them a peculiar grace, which a stranger would be tempted to take for coquetry, if Scandinavian modesty and pride did not betray themselves in their look and behaviour. A few districts situated in the mountains have preserved some remains of the old Scandinavian costume; such as that of Valvers,^d where the inhabitants are no longer seen, accord-

^a The above paragraph is added by the translator.—P.

^b "Carrioles"—a kind of small chaises. For an account of them, see Conway's Journey through Norway, Sweden and Denmark (Constable's Misc.) p. 41.—P.

^c "While employed in their household, they wear simply a petticoat with a chemise, &c."—The women of the lower order wear a jacket, with a shining black apron over their petticoat, and a turban handker-

chief upon the head, beneath which appears a clean laced mob tied under the chin; but while employed in their household affairs, they frequently wear nothing more than a petticoat and a shift, with a collar reaching to the throat, and a black sash tied round the waist. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d Qu. Valdors or Walders—a district in the diocese of Drontheim.—P.

ing to an ancient custom, fighting with the knife, after being tied together by their girdles;^a that of Tellemark, where mutual trust and good faith leave them in ignorance of the use of locks; and the valleys, in fine, where some families of peasants, that marry only with one another, pretend to be descended from the ancient kings of the country.

Such are the manners of the peasantry; the morals of the inhabitants of the towns are, it is true, less irreproachable and less pure; some seeds of corruption may be already remarked there, but there is nothing at all resembling the depravity which we see in the cities in other parts of Europe.

Let us now cast a glance at the physical state of Norway. The mountains which traverse this kingdom and Sweden form of themselves a range^b which we may call the Scandinavian, and which is divided into three groups. That of the *Kælen* mountains,^c the most considerable from its length, extends from the northern extremity of Lapland, to its junction with the *Dovre* mountains, near the source of the small river *Nidelv*.^d Strictly speaking this forms but one great chain, but the branches it throws off to the right and to the left, the mountainous isles of *Lofoden*, which are merely the summits of some of its branches, and the mountains which terminate near *Lake Enara* in Russian Lapland, merit for it the name of group. That of *Dovre* or *Dovrefield*^e may be considered as forming with the mountain of *Snæ-Hættan*^f to the west, and with those of *Seveberg*^g and *Svuku*^h which terminate in plateaus in southern Sweden, a second group. Lastly, this group is separated by the course of the *Vog*, from that which is composed of the mountains of *Langfield*,ⁱ *Soynfield*^j or *Sunnanfield*, and *Hardangerfield*, and the branches which they send out to the west, the east and the south. This last group occupies all the southern part of Norway.^k

^a This may be rendered: while holding each other by the ends of their girdles.—P.

^b "Form a single system—"

^c The mountains of *Kolen* (Pinkerton)—of *Kiolen* (Ed. Enc.)—properly, of *Kiølen* (*kiøl-en* (Dan.) *kæl-en* (Swed.) the keel.)—From *Dovrefield*, a long branch, decreasing in elevation as it proceeds, stretches northward between Norway and Swedish Lapland, forming at its farthest extremity the mountains of *Kiolen*. (Ed. Enc.)—The chain of *Kolen* extends from the north of lake *Oresund* (where the *Dofrafall* terminates) and the vicinity of the copper mines of *Roras*, between Norway and Swedish Lapland. (Pinkerton.)—P.

^d *Elv*, in Danish and Norse, (*elf*, in Swedish,) signifies a river.—In Norway, as in Sweden, the largest rivers are called *Elven* or *Elben*. (Pinkerton.)—*Elven* is the word in the singular with the definite article *en* suffixed. *Niddven* consequently signifies the *Nidelv*, or the river *Nid*. The *Nid* passes by *Drontheim*.—P.

^e *Dovrefield* (Ed. Enc.)—*Dofrafiell*, *Dofrafiell* (Pinkerton.)—*Dovrefield* (Dan.) *Dofrafiell* or *Dofrafiell* (Swed.)—*Fiel* [*fiell* or *fiell*. P.] in the Swedish, and *fielt*, in the Norwegian language, [*field*, in Danish. P.] properly denotes those elevated summits, where vegetation entirely ceases; but it is a common denomination for all lofty mountain ridges. (Ed. Enc.)—*Fjall*, a ridge or chain of mountains. (Widegren's Swedish Dict.)—The *Dovrefield*, or *Dofrine* chain, extends east and west from the province of *Romsdal*, where the *Langfield* terminates, to the commencement of the chain of *Kiølen*.—P.

^f *Sneehattan*, height 8115 Eng. feet. (Ed. Enc.)—*Sneehatta* [without the article.] Lat. 62° 18' N. (Morse.)—*Sneehatten* (Dan.) *Snæhattan* (Swed.) the snow cap, from *sne*, *snæ*, snow, *hatte*, *hatta*, cap, and the article *en*.—P.

^g A branch from the eastern termination of the *Dovrefield*, extends to the south-east, forming the common boundary between Norway and Sweden, and is sometimes called *Seveberg*. (Ed. Enc.)—*Pontoppidan* calls this central chain, *Seveberg* or the seven mountains. (Pinkerton.)—*Sve* (Dan.) *sju* (Swed.) seven; *bjerg* (Dan.) *berg* (Swed.) mountain.—Some writers regard the *Seveberg* as the same with *Pliny's Sevo*, which was in Germany. (Pinkerton.)—The *Sevo mons* of *Pliny*, which it is thought accords with the *Riphæan* mountains, (said to have been near the source of the *Tanais* or *Don**) can be no other than the great chain of Norway. (D'Anv.)—P.

* Perhaps the Ural mountains, or the ridge of *Waldai* in central Russia.—P.

The average distance of the summit of the *Kælen* mountains from the sea-coast of Norway being only about twenty leagues, the rivers proceeding from them and running into the North Sea,^m can be of no great length. The most important is the *Namsen*, which, from its exit from the lakes that give rise to it, has only a course of thirty leagues. Other more considerable streams descend from the mountains of *Dovrefield* and *Sunnanfield*: these are the *Glommen*, the *Drammenselv*,ⁿ and the *Lougen*,^o which empty themselves into the strait of *Skager Rack*,^p separating Denmark from Norway. The *Glommen*^q is a river of one hundred and fifty leagues in length, the principal tributary of which, the *Vormen-elv*,^r has a course of not less than fifty leagues. The *Glommen* has a great many falls, and on the melting of the snows, or after great rains, it acquires a frightful rapidity, and its inundations desolate the fields. One of these falls is at *Hafslun*, about ten miles distant from *Fredericstadt*. Here the *Glommen*, about the size of the *Thames* at *Richmond*, "gradually contracts itself with more hurried current, till it arrives at the deep gorge formed by the projecting rocks, and then bursts headlong into the abyss beneath. The fall is not quite perpendicular. Some idea may be given of the body of water that descends, from the circumstance that a three-masted ship was loading at some distance below." The height of the fall is seventy-two Norwegian feet. A melancholy catastrophe occurred here on the 5th February 1702. The family seat of *Borge*, situated over against *Hafslun*, together with every thing in it, sunk down into an abyss of a hundred fathoms deep, the gap being instantaneously filled up by a sheet of water of between three and four hundred ells long, and half the breadth. The house was doubly walled; but of these, as well as several high towers, not the least trace was seen; fourteen persons and two hundred head of cattle

^h *Swukku*, *Swuckustoet* (Pinkerton)—one of the highest of the Norwegian mountains, near lake *Fæmund*.—*Seucku* is the name of the mountain, and *Seucku-stat* (*Svucku* Peak,) that of its summit. (W. Hisinger, *Anteckningar i Physik och Geognosi under resor uti Sverige och Norrige*, Första Häftet, p. 51.)—P.

ⁱ *Langfield*. (Ed. Enc.)—*Langfiell*, the Long Mountains. (Pinkerton.)—*Langfield* (Dan.) *Langfiell* (Swed.)—Long Mountain.—P.

^j *Sognefiell*. (Pinkerton.)—P.

^k It extends south and south-west towards the *Naze*, from the western termination of *Dovrefield*.—P.

^l For the height of these mountains, see Table of European Altitudes, Book XCIV. vol. II. p. 366.

^m Properly, the Northern Ocean.—The term North Sea, is generally limited to the German Ocean, south of the latitude of the *Shetland* Islands.—P.

ⁿ *Drammenelv* (Ed. Encyc.) *Drammen* (Conway.) The *Dramme* (Pinkerton.)—Flows into the west side of the bay of *Christiania*.—P.

^o Among other rivers in the south of Norway are the *Louven* [*Louve*.] Conway. Pinkerton—*Louven*. Tuckey) and the *Laugen*. (Ed. Enc.)—The *Louven* passes by *Kongsberg*, and enters the sea at *Laurvig*, west of the entrance of the bay of *Christiania*.—It may be here remarked, once for all, that the termination *en* or *n*, in Scandinavian names, does not, in general, belong to the name itself, but merely expresses the definite article, as *Glommen*, *Louven*, the *Glomme* and the *Louve*. It is therefore as improper to say the *Glommen* as the *La Seine*.—P.

^p *Skagerack* (Tuckey.) *Scaggerac* (Ed. Enc.) Called also the *Sleeve*.—The *Skager Rack*, which derives its name from the reef or sand-bank (the *Skagen-rack*) that surrounds the north point of *Jutland* (called *Skagen*, the *Skag*, by the Danes, and the *Scaw*, by English seamen,) is properly the strait extending north-east, at the entrance of the Baltic, and is succeeded by the *Cattegat* (a Dutch word signifying *Cat-Channel*), which stretches south and terminates in the *Sound* and the *Belts*.—P.

^q The *Glom* or *Glomen* [properly, *Glomme* or *Glommen*. P.] called also the *Stor Elv*, or great river. (Pinkerton.)—*Glommen Elv* (Conway.)—It rises in *Lake Oresund* in 62° N., in the angle formed by the *Dovrefield* and *Seveberg* mountains, and enters the sea at *Frederickstadt*.—P.

^r The *Worm*. (Ed. Encyc. Pinkerton.)—*Vormen Elv*, the river *Vorm* (Conway.)—P. ^s *Everest's Journey through Norway, &c.*

perished. The cause of this melancholy occurrence is attributed to the Glommen having undermined the foundation.^a The declivity of the surface does not admit of the lakes of Norway being equal in magnitude to those of Sweden. The largest is the *Miasen*,^b twenty leagues long by two in breadth, which is traversed by the Vormen-elv. The most important waterfalls are those of *Fciumfos* near Lister, six hundred feet in height, and *Røgenfos*,^c in the province of Tellemark, eight hundred and fifty feet in height.

The geological constitution of Norway is, in general, primitive. In the Hardangerfield mountains, the summit of Vetta-Kelden is composed of red porphyry, which, at the depth of from twenty to thirty feet, assumes all the characters of the rock called sienite. In the highest mountains of the group, gneiss predominates; from the mountain of Lic to the rivulet called the Totak, we find on the contrary micaceous schistus; in all that mountainous region, schistus^d shows itself at every step, and supplies slates which readily split into long and narrow plates, or else, as in the neighbourhood of Groven, furnish quarries of whetstones. On the banks of the Totak the surface is strewn with blocks of stone from thirty to forty feet in height; the position which they occupy is too far from the mountains to explain their origin; however, they can only be the result of alluvions formed at one of the latest geological epochs by currents of fresh water proceeding towards the sea.^e At all times these blocks have been objects of wonder to the natives of the country; according to a mythological tradition, it was the god Thor who broke them with his hammer, and who afterwards having let fall that instrument, threw them about on all sides in seeking it. A geologist breaking specimens from these stray blocks, might, even at this day, be taken by the inhabitants for a worshipper of Thor. Near Bergen, in the island of Hiertoen,^f there appears above the waves, a mass of black and porous lava, from twenty to thirty feet in thickness. The whole southern part of Norway has frequently experienced earthquakes. A naturalist^g maintains, that the mass of lava just referred to, may have been thrown up from the bosom of the waves; it is even said, that fifteen leagues to the south of Bergen, at the bottom of the bay of Bukfiord,^h fire sometimes issues from a crevice, in a precipitous rocky shore formed of gneiss.

All the mountains, and especially those of the south, contain a great number of minerals, sought after in collections, and of metals in use by man: the environs of Drontheim, at the foot of the Kœlen mountains, and of Raraas,ⁱ at the base of the Dovrefield mountains, contain copper of the best quality; the best iron mines are wrought in the district of

^a The above account of the fall at Hafslun [that of Sarpen, above 60 feet perpendicular,] and of the destruction of Borge, is added by the translator.—P.

^b The lake of Miøss. (Ed. Enc. Pinkerton.)—Lake *Miosen*. (Conway.)—Properly, *Miasen*, the Mies, or *Miasen Sø*, the Mies lake.—This must not be confounded with the *Mios-Vand* (Conway) or *Mios Mias* Water, west of Kongsberg.—P.

^c *Fos* signifies a waterfall, in Danish—*Røgenfos*, the smoke fall, from *ag*, smoke, in Danish.—P.

^d "Schiste"—Argillite.—P.

^e They belong undoubtedly to that class of loose rocks, out of place, called *boelders*, which by some have been attributed to general diluvial currents, and by others to mere local alluvion.—P.

^f Properly, *Hiertaen*. Qu. the Heart island, from *hierte*, heart, and *œe*, island, in Danish.—P.

^g See Observations on the Physical Geography of Scandinavia, by Professor Steffens: Hertha, vol. X. and XI.

^h *Fiord* (Dan.) *fjærd* (Swed.) a bay or gulf—generally applied in Norway to narrow creeks or gulfs, which run far into the land, sometimes to the extent of 30 or 40 miles.—P.

Arendal. The abundance of these metals in part indemnifies Norway for the diminished wealth of the silver mines of Kongsberg, the working of which has, however, been revived since 1815.^j In other places there are found lead, cobalt and plumbago. Different kinds of marble are dug from the sides of several mountains; some of them are employed in the arts, principally in the environs of Bergen.

In southern Norway the mountains are, many of them, surmounted with rounded summits, crowned with wood; in the north, on the contrary, the mountains, although less elevated, are almost always covered with snow, and consequently destitute of vegetation, but the hills, most generally composed of sand, give birth to many cryptogamous plants. Those whose surface is formed of mould are covered with different species of saxifrages, and other plants scattered here and there: here the *Diapensia lapponica* presents its evergreen tufts; there the elegant andromeda (*Andromeda cærulea*, Linn.) rises in small thickets by the side of the trailing azalea (*Azalea procumbens*), whose creeping branches preserve their freshness in the midst of the rigours of winter. At the foot of these hills, the birch, a tree whose sap, collected by the Norwegians, is used in making a liquor which resembles sparkling white wine, waves in the breeze its light and flexible branches, and often forms with the maple, the pine, and the fir, forests of an immense extent. The pyramidal form of these resinous trees is in harmony with the pointed rocks which serve them for a base, and with the icicles, which, during several months, load their branches with elegant stalactites. The fir attains a height of a hundred and sixty feet. It is much in request for masts and carpentry work. After being cut down, it is thrown from the top of the steep summits into the little rivers which descend from the mountains to the sea. Hurried along by the rapidity of these streams, it rushes over the cataracts, and does not stop in its progress till it reaches the ranges of piles^k fixed at a short distance from the creek or bay, where it becomes an object of commerce. In the low lands, the creeping strawberry-tree,^l the scarlet-flowered camarina^m (*Empetrum nigrum*), and the dwarf birch, whose seeds, concealed under the snow, are sown after during the winter by the ptarmigan,ⁿ rise amidst the lichens which form the food of the rein-deer. In the central provinces^o the aspen grows vigorously; in the environs of Drontheim, beyond the sixty-third degree of latitude, the oak begins to appear, and near Christiania, we see it flourishing, but it is only in the southern provinces that there are fine forests of this tree. In the south of Norway, apples and cherries arrive at perfect maturity; near Drontheim they do not ripen, but the mild

ⁱ Roras, Roraas.—Røras (Tuckey.) Røraas (Stat. Tab.)—P.

^j "The abundance of these metals indemnifies Norway for the poverty (*peu de richesse*) of the silver mines of Kongsberg, the working of which has, however, been resumed (*reprise*) since 1815."—These mines were accidentally discovered in 1623 by two peasants. They used to yield about £70,000 annually, but it is supposed that the produce now barely defrays the expense (Pinkerton, vol. I. p. 358—9, 3d Ed. 1811.)—P.

^k "Rows of stakes"—placed across the river to intercept the floating timber.—P.

^l "Arbousier traînant"—trailing arbutus, bear-berry, (*Arbutus Uraursi*).—P.

^m "Camarine à fleur écarlate"—*Camarigne noire* (Demonst. de Botan. Lyon, 1796.)—Black crow-berry or crane-berry—flowers reddish, berries black.—P.

ⁿ "White gelinotte"—White grouse. The plumage of the ptarmigan turns white in winter.—P.

^o "Middle region"—between the northern and southern extremities of Norway.—P.

influence of the sea, which we have already had occasion to remark, is so sensibly felt in the island of Touterœe, two degrees and a half from the polar circle, that these fruits ripen there without difficulty. In some gardens in the south, the peach, the apricot and the melon are cultivated, and succeed perfectly; and it seems even probable, that when horticulture shall have made some progress among the peasantry, they will be able to naturalize many plants of our temperate climates. Even now they cultivate with much care and success flax, hemp and hops, and the culture of the potato has shown, that it would be always easy for Norway to avoid the scourge of famine, by multiplying this vegetable so as to supply the place of grain. There is little wheat raised; barley is more abundant; but oats is of all other grains that which succeeds best in this country,^a where agriculture has a thousand obstacles to surmount, where the low lands are frequently exposed to inundations, and where the heights are rendered sterile at one time by cold, and at another by heat.

The increase of population has caused in Norway a diminution in the number of wild animals. The elk is now very rarely to be met with; the bear, rearing upon his hind feet, still attacks the hunter who awaits him armed with his knife; the wolf continues to be the terror of the herds and flocks; but whilst the bear takes refuge in the woody mountains, the wolf seems to dread the woods and hedges, and establishes himself in the open country, and even sometimes upon the ice.^b Different kinds^c of foxes inhabit the shores washed by the Icy Ocean, and the lemming descends in troops from the Kœlen mountains, and marching in close columns, ravages the cultivated fields. A multitude of birds inhabit the shores of the ocean, and Norway furnishes the greater part of the eider-down on which our delicate dames rest during their frequent headaches. Nothing is more dangerous than the manner in which the Norwegian goes to collect upon the rocks which border the sea, this down sought after by the effeminate. Suspended above the waves, he hoists himself up by the aid of a rope in order to reach the clefts and cavities where the birds build their nests.^d If the cord should give way, or if the staff on which he leans should break, the unfortunate adventurer, thrown from the top of the precipice, finds a frightful death amidst the rocks and reefs below. The Norwegian rears in his valleys numerous herds and flocks. His horses are small, but lively and sure-footed, like all those of mountainous countries: his horned cattle feed at liberty in the islands that border the western coast; there they often become so wild, that they are obliged to shoot them. His sheep are formed like deer, with long legs and small muzzles.^e Numbers of goats are also kept on the hills. Fish abound in the seas, lakes and riv-

^a Oats are the most generally cultivated in Norway; barley and rye hold the next rank; but wheat, buckwheat, and peas, are far from being common. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b In the long twilights of the winter season, the wolves become formidable to travellers, especially on the extensive lakes, where they assemble on the ice in great numbers. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c "Species."—In Norway, there are white, red and black foxes. (Ed. Enc.)—The common European red fox, and the cross fox, from the north of Europe, characterized by a black line along its back and across its shoulders, both belong to the same species (*Canis vulpes*.) The white fox (*Canis lagopus*—Isatis or blue fox, its colour being bluish grey and sometimes white,) is a distinct species.—P.

^d The common mode of gathering the down and eggs from the nests, is as follows. An individual seated on a stick, attached to a rope, with a guiding staff in his hand, is lowered over the edge of the precipice by others, and in this way is raised or descends, or advances along the shelves, according as is necessary in prosecuting his search.—P.

^e This sentence is added by the translator.—P.

ers, and the bold Norwegian derives considerable profit from his fishing.

The climate of Norway presents more variety than is generally believed: it is not everywhere equally cold and severe; towards the east, and in the interior, the winter is longest, and the cold the most intense. This season is the most favourable part of the year for the mutual intercourse of the people, and the interchange of commercial transactions. It is also the season for those parties of pleasure so little known in milder climates. At that time there take place, in the neighbourhood of the towns, splendid races^f upon the snow, where the elegance and richness of the sledges, the splendour of the harnessing, and the beauty of the horses, which, swift as the wind, make the air resound with the clear sound of their little bells, surpass by their lustre and their speed the brilliant assemblies of equipages at Paris, Vienna, and London. The spring announces itself by the sudden and terrible ravages occasioned by the melting of the snows.^g During the month of April, and the greater part of May, the country is impassable, and in the mountains, travelling is impracticable till about the month of September, when the snows that cover them are in a great measure melted, and the heats of the summer have lost their force. At Bergen the length of the longest days in summer is about nineteen hours, whilst in the neighbourhood of Drontheim, it is not less than three weeks. The average temperature of the year is at Christiania, five degrees above zero of Reaumur's thermometer, while at Petersburg, under the same latitude, it is only three degrees. Near the southern coast, the temperature in certain districts allows them to have two crops of grain, and in warm summers they have even three. Generally the climate is healthy. But towards the western coast the country assumes a different aspect: the saline exhalations from the sea are injurious to vegetation; the bays never freeze; the cold is not felt, except when the east wind prevails, which crosses the high mountains, on the north, which comes from the Icy Ocean; fogs, rains and tempests extend their pernicious influence, one of the effects of which is to favour the ravages of the scurvy.^h

We see from the preceding statements, that, situated between the fifty-eighth and seventy-first degrees of latitude,ⁱ and in length more than four hundred leagues by a breadth of about twenty in the northern and eighty in the southern parts,^j Norway presents an aspect, in some parts, of the most pleasing, and in others, of the wildest description. Here, dark forests of resinous trees rise on the confines of ravines frightful from their depth; perpetual glaciers bear sway, and the loud cry of the eagle alone interrupts the silence of the desert.^k There, dwellings covered with red tiles,^l and placed on the sides of hills, isolated spires reflect-

^f "Courses"—drives.

^g "—by the *débâcles*"—breaking up of the ice in the rivers.

^h See Excursion to the Fieldstuen Mountains, by W. M. Carpelan, published in Sweden in 1824.

ⁱ It extends from the Naze in 57° 58' N. to the North Cape in 71° 11' 30".—P.

^j "—by a breadth of about twenty leagues north of 64°, and of eighty south of that latitude."—It extends about 950 miles from north to south. Its breadth, in the southern provinces, is between 150 and 240 miles, but beyond the 67th of north latitude, does not exceed 60, nor in some places even 30 miles. (Ed. Enc.)—The breadth of Norway diminishes very considerably about the latitude of Drontheim, between 63° and 64°.—P.

^k "—perpetual glaciers predominate [i. e. the country is, in general, covered with perpetual snow and ice,] and the roaring of the north-wind (*aquilon*) alone disturbs the silence of the desert."

^l The roofs of the houses are frequently covered with tiles, but more commonly with planks, upon which is laid the bark of the birch tree with a coat of turf above all. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ed on the surface of the lakes, and forges and mills hanging over the torrents, announce a country where civilization and industry advance without opposition in the march of improvement. On the coast, arms of the sea surrounded with rocks succeed each other with the most melancholy sameness. But on entering them the scene all at once changes, presenting at the bottom of these bays and creeks, whose narrow and gloomy entrance is often dangerous, towns of a cheerful appearance. Let us notice some of the most important of these, beginning at the north and proceeding to the south.

Hammerfest, near the North Cape, is a thriving little place. The Spitzbergen trade is its principal support. Small sloops, from thirty to forty tons burden, are usually fitted out for expeditions to that quarter. This trade has given Hammerfest a more enterprising set of seamen than any port in Norway. Drunkenness is very prevalent among the Laplanders here. *Tromsø*,^a farther to the south, with its eight hundred inhabitants, is, says a traveller already quoted, "quite the pride of the North." It lies on an island covered with birch shrubs, and carries on some trade with the Russians from Archangel.^b

Drontheim or *Trondhiem*^c lies at the bottom of an arm of the sea of great extent. It is a walled city,^d but its walls and its two forts^e are falling in ruins. It is built of wood, but the frequent fires, to which it has been subject, have led to the erection of tastefully constructed houses, in room of the old habitations, and to the substitution of wide and straight streets, in place of narrow and crooked lanes. It was founded in 997 by Olof Trygvason upon the site of the old Scandinavian city of *Nideros*.^f At the distance of half a league from its walls, the church of *Hlade* covers the ground where stood the temple of Thor and Odin destroyed by Olof. Drontheim was long the residence of the Norwegian kings: the ancient throne of these princes is still to be seen in the palace, now used as an arsenal. Drontheim formerly possessed a magnificent cathedral, compared by the Norwegians to St. Peter's at Rome; but in 1719, it was destroyed by a frightful conflagration. It has been replaced by a church, less

magnificent indeed, but still remarkable for its extent, its ornaments, and its marble columns.^g By the treaty of union, this church enjoys, as the former building did, the privilege of being the basilicon,^h where the kings of Norway are crowned.ⁱ The most considerable buildings, after the cathedral, are the government house,^j and that of the Society of Sciences,^k the last of which contains a good library, and a cabinet of natural history. The environs of Drontheim have an agreeable aspect, being adorned with neat and pleasant villas that rise here and there in the country, and on the borders of the bay. They are, besides, embellished by two beautiful waterfalls, called the great and the little *Leerfos*.^l

Bergen, also at the bottom of a long bay, bristled with reefs, and surrounded by rocks, carries on a great trade in timber, spars, hides, and especially dry and salted fish. Seven mountains rise in a semicircle around the town, which is defended by batteries fronting the sea, but has no regular fortifications.^m The old castle built in 1070, by king Olof Kyrre, served as a residence to the sovereigns of Norway, until the celebrated epoch of the union of Calmar, about the end of the 14th century; it is now used as a prison, a store-magazine,ⁿ and a habitation for the governor^o of the place. Bergen, as a town, cannot be compared with either Drontheim or Christiania. In place of the wide streets crossing each other at right angles, which we find in both these towns, in Bergen you are involved in a labyrinth of narrow lanes, and a stranger who once quits sight of his own door, is fortunate if he has not to hire a man to show him the way home again.^p Amongst its 3000 houses, which are almost wholly of one story and painted on the outside, there are to be seen several of stone. There are in Bergen four churches, many schools, amongst others a Lancasterian school, where 350 boys and girls are instructed, and several charitable institutions. A museum is forming under the care of some individuals of the place, and the collection has enlarged so as to fill a handsome room: its principal riches are ancient remains of the country.^q It was the native place of Eric Pontoppidan,^r who became its bishop, and founded its university.^s It was also the birthplace of Lewis Holberg,^t an author

district. It is a large palace, which overtops the other buildings, built of wood, in a simple and noble style of architecture. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k A Society of Sciences was established at Drontheim in 1700, and sanctioned by the king in 1767. Its meetings are held in a large and beautiful stone edifice, recently erected, partly occupied by the society, and partly by the high school and its teachers. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^l See note c p. 1042.

^m "It is defended by several fortifications and by high walls."—This must be a mistake in the original, and besides contradicts its own statement respecting Drontheim. It has probably mistaken the mountains, with which the town is surrounded, for walls.—Bergen is built in the form of a crescent round a gulf of the sea, and is defended by seven lofty mountains, and by several fortifications, particularly that of Fredericksburg. (Ed. Enc.)—It is situated in the centre of a valley, forming a semicircle round a small gulf, and is defended on the land side by high mountains, and by several fortifications towards the sea. (Pinkerton, Tuckey.)—The town is protected by the castle of Fredericksburg, which defends it towards the sea, and by very high mountains towards the land. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

ⁿ "Magasin d'approvisionnement"—store-house for public supplies.—P.

^o "Commandant."

^p The two last sentences are added by the translator. In place of it, in the original, it is only stated that Bergen is irregularly built.—P.

^q This sentence, and the account of the Lancasterian school, are added by the translator.—P.

^r Eric Pontoppidan, bishop of Bergen, and author of a natural history of Norway, was born at Aarhus in Jutland, 1698. (Gorton's Biog. Dict.)—P.

^s "College."—There was no university in Norway, previous to the establishment of that at Christiania.—There is an academy or high school at Bergen, as well as at Drontheim. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^t *Ludvig Holberg*. (Dan.)

Properly, Tromsøe or Tromsøe.—Tromsø (Tuckey.)—P.

^b The above paragraph is added by the translator.—P.

^c *Heim* (Gerin. Dn.) *hicia* (Dan.) and *hem* (Swed.) signify home, and in the names of towns are the same as *ham* (Eng.)—P.

^d "It is the only walled town (*ville fermée*) in Norway."

^e The town is protected by the fort of Christianstein, and by the castle of Munkholm, situated on a rock in the harbour. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f It was anciently called *Nideros* (mouth of the *Nid*.) whence its Latin name, *Nidrosia*. (Tuckey's Mar. Geog. vol. I. p. 196.)—It is situated on a small gulf on the south side of the river *Nid*, from which it received the name of *Nideros* [*Nidaros*. Pinkerton.] or the outlet of the *Nid*. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g The cathedral, dedicated to St. Oluf, was formerly a magnificent building of marble; but it was burnt down in 1530, with the exception of the choir, which still forms part of the present cathedral. This cathedral is still the finest and largest edifice in Norway. (Ed. Enc.)—The cathedral, founded by St. Oluf, was of marble, and exceeded in size, as well as in magnificence, every thing of the kind in the north. It was almost entirely burnt in 1530, the choir alone remaining, which now serves as the principal church of the town. (Tuckey, vol. I. p. 197.)—P.

^h "Basilique"—Basilic (Lat. Ital. *Basilica*.) a church; properly, a large church, or one of royal foundation. The term *Basilica* is applied to several of the larger churches at Rome, such as St. Peter's and St. John of Lateran. *Basilicon* is the name of a well known plaster, but, we believe, is not applied to a church.—P.

ⁱ Reise durch das westliche Schweden, Norwegen und Finnland, von Fried. Wilh. von Schubert.—[Travels through the western part of Sweden, and through Norway and Finland, by Fred. Wm. Von Schubert.]

^j "Hôtel du gouvernement."—The town-house (*Stiftsamthaus*) is now the residence of the chief magistrate and the public bodies of the

distinguished as a historian and writer of comedies. During the middle ages, Bergen was a factory of the Hanseatic League; its harbour is large and well fortified. From this city, 1003 electors send four representatives to the *Storting*^a of Norway.^b

Christiansand, on the southern coast, is the fourth city in the kingdom. It was founded in 1641, by Christian IV. king of Denmark, who wished to make it the principal station for his navy. In 1807 it was destroyed by the English. Its harbour has been repaired: it is deep, and well fortified, and forms the principal refuge of vessels that have suffered damage in the dangerous passage of the Cattegat. The cathedral is the finest edifice in the city. Half a league from the coast, a quarantine establishment is erected on an island. *Arendahl*^c is a small but neat town, built on rocks that project into a channel of the sea, and is inhabited by merchants and fishermen. Ships lie close to the houses.^d *Frederikstadt*,^e at the mouth of the Glommen, carries on a considerable trade in timber. Batteries erected on several islands, and two forts which communicate by a subterranean passage, defend the entrance to its harbour. It is the only city in Norway which is built of stone. *Kongsberg*, celebrated for its silver mines and its manufacture of children's toys, is watered by the Lauven,^f which flows in a deep and wild valley.

Twelve leagues to the east of Kongsberg, the gulf of Christiania branches out into many bays. The length of this gulf is twenty-two leagues from south to north; its greatest breadth is five leagues, but in the narrowest part only a league and half.^g It is surrounded by high mountains, and studded over with islands, some of which are pretty large. Several small towns rise on its shores; amongst others that of *Moss*, where was concluded, on the 14th of August 1814, the convention which led the way to the union of Sweden and Norway. *Christiania*,^h the capital of Norway,ⁱ stands at the extremity of this gulf, and its houses and gardens, grouped in a circle around the harbour, seem to rest upon an amphitheatre of rocks and forests. The appearance of

this capital is pleasant, as well as majestic; its streets are broad and well paved, and, if it contained fewer houses of wood, it would be one of the finest cities in the North. Its suburbs are considerable; one of these, called *Old Opslo*, is all that remains of the ancient capital of Norway, founded by Harold the Fair-haired, in the eleventh century,^j and destroyed by a fire in 1624.^k The modern capital bears the name of Christian IV. its founder. Its regular buildings increase from day to day with the population. The finest edifices are the cathedral, the government palace,^l the new town-house, the military school, the new exchange, and the university, the number of students at which is about 120. The number of professors is 15, whose salaries are paid in corn. In the hall of this establishment are annually held the sittings of the constitutional assembly, called the *Storting*. Founded in 1813, it was intended as an university for the kingdom. Its library already contains many thousand volumes;^m it possesses, besides, a fine cabinet of natural philosophy, an observatory, a botanical garden, and a collection of natural history. Christiania is an episcopal see, the incumbent of which enjoys a revenue of £700 sterling.ⁿ There are in Christiania many benevolent institutions, and, among others, two orphan houses: one for those born in the city, and the other, called the house of *Anker*,^o for the reception of orphans throughout the whole kingdom. The latter, the most important of them all, gives assistance to the modest poor, and to indigent families, and furnishes instruction, free of expense, to those children whose parents have not the means of educating them. Christiania enjoys a considerable foreign trade.

To the east of the mouth of the Glommen, near the frontiers of Sweden, *Frederikshall*,^p whose harbour can receive large vessels,^q has joined to its ancient name of *Halden* that of Frederic, given to it by Frederic III. in 1665, on account of its courageous defence against the Swedes. This is a neat town, with paved streets: the houses are of wood, and painted of different colours, as in Sweden. It stands prettily in a valley surrounded with rocks, on an arm of the

^a "*Storting*"—the Danish orthography. See note ^a p. 1039.—P.

^b See Description of Bergen (*Bergens beskrivelse*.) by L. Sagen, 1 vol. 8vo. 1824.—(in Dan.)

^c Usually written *Arendal*.

^d This account of Arendal is added by the translator.—P.

^e "*Friderikstadt*."—*Frederikstad*, in Danish—usually written *Frederikstadt*, in English authors.—P.

^f The Louve (*Louven*).—P.

^g "Not more than half a league (*une demie*)."—P.

^h Christiania is the proper orthography. (M. B. Enc. Meth. Ed. Enc. (art. Norway.) Tuckey. Conway.)—Christiana. (Trans. Pinkerton. Ed. Enc. *sub nom.*)—P.

ⁱ Christiania, under the Danish government, was the residence of the viceroi, and the seat of the high court of justice for Norway; it is at present the place where the Diet (*Storting*) holds its sittings.—No viceroi had been appointed after the reign of Christian VI. (A. D. 1746,) but the governor of Christiania was invested with the general superintendance of the whole kingdom. (Ed. Enc.)—Norway has in fact three capitals, Christiania, Bergen and Drontheim. (Conway.)—Drontheim was the original royal residence, and afterwards the ecclesiastical capital; Bergen was the residence of the latter Norwegian kings; Christiania is the more modern capital. Bergen is mentioned as the capital in all the older geographies, and even as late as Pinkerton.—P.

^j Harold the Fair-haired (*Harfager*) reigned about the beginning of the 10th century. (See note ^g p. 1039) Harold III. (son of St. Olaf,) who was slain in battle against Harold king of England, Sept. 25, 1066, has been confounded by the English historians with Harold Harfager. (Pinkerton).—P.

^k Christiania is divided into the city and suburbs of Waterlandt, Peterwigen and Fierdingen, the fortress of Aggerhuus, and the town of Opsloe. (Ed. Enc.)—Christiania is divided into three parts—1. the city

proper [Christiania.] founded in 1624 by Christian IV., when Apske the ancient capital was consumed by fire; it has three suburbs: 2. the fortress of Aggershuus, on an eminence to the west of the city; and 3. the ancient city of Apslœ or Anslœ, in which is the episcopal palace. (Tuckey's Mar. Geog. vol. I. p. 200.)—Anslœ or Christiania was built by Christian IV. in 1624, and forms only a single town with what remained of Obslœ, which about that time was almost entirely reduced to ashes. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^l "Palais du gouvernement"—government house.

^m The original has "80,000 volumes," which, in so recent an institution, is most probably a mistake. A recent traveller says, "many thousands."—Translator.

ⁿ "—and the great college (*grand collège*.) In the refectory of this establishment, are annually held the sittings of the constitutional assembly called the *Storting*. Since 1813 there has existed in Christiania a university for the kingdom. Its library contains 80,000 volumes; it also possesses a fine collection of philosophical apparatus (*cabinet de physique*), an observatory, a botanical garden, and a cabinet of natural history; fifteen professors are attached to the institution."—The university, called *Fredericia* [in honour of Frederic VI.] was founded in 1811. (Enc. Amer.)—Previous to the establishment of the university, there was a gymnasium or Latin school, in Christiania, endowed by Christian IV. in 1635. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^o Dec. 11, 1811. See a poem for the festival (Dec. 11, 1811) on the occasion of celebrating the establishment of a university in Norway, by C. Pram (*Sang for festen, den 11 Dec. 1811, til at høitideligholde oprettelsen af en Høiskole i Norrig, af C. Pram*).—P.

^p "Maison d'Anker"—Dan. *Anker-huus* (Anker-house;) so called in honour of Baron Anker.—P.

^q "*Friderikshald*"—properly, *Frederikshald* (Dan.) with the article, *Frederikshalden*. Usually written *Frederickshall*, in English authors—*Frederickshald* (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^r "Ships of the line (*vaisseaux de haut-bord*)."—P.

sea, and carries on a considerable trade in timber.^a At the foot of its fortress, called *Frederiksteen*,^b Charles XII. of Sweden was killed by a cannon-ball^c on the 11th of December 1718. In 1814 the Swedes raised a pyramid^d on the spot where this great captain expired. Charles XII. has been styled a *great* man,^e but certainly with little propriety, if men understood their true interests aright. Has the experience of nearly 6000 years not yet convinced the world, that men such as Alexander of Macedon, Julius Cæsar, Timur, Charles XII., or Napoleon, whose only merit lies in the satisfying their own ambitious desires at whatever expense, have no claim to the name of great? and that it is only rightly bestowed when conferred on an Alfred, a Washington, a Granville Sharp, or a Howard—on men who, in some shape or other, have truly benefited and not destroyed their fellow-creatures?^f

The Norwegian Isles may be comprised under the denomination of the *Norwegian Archipelago*,^g and divided into three groups: those of Bergen and Drontheim, washed by the North Sea, and that of Lofoden,^h in the Icy Ocean.ⁱ The first commences at the gulf of Bukfiord^j on the south: its principal islands are *Carmoé*^k and *Fidjé*,^l where, it is said, Harold, the first king of Norway, long had his residence. On a small island, part of this group, stands a stone cross of silver-white mica slate, about twelve feet high and four in breadth. Nothing is known of its history, but that it has stood there for centuries.^m In the group of Drontheim, three islands are remarkable for their size, namely, *Smølen*, *Averoen* or *Frojen*,ⁿ and *Hitteren*, the latter the largest of the three; but the most celebrated are the small islands of *Vigten*,^o from whence departed, for the conquest of Normandy, the Norwegian or Norman chieftain Rolf, better known by the name Raoul or Rollo. The group of the Lofoden Isles occupies a length of sixty leagues; the most considerable are the long *Andæn*, the irregular *Langæn*, *Hindæn*, the most important of them all, *Mageroe*, in which the North Cape is situated, *Seyland*, where there is to be seen a peak of great elevation, *Soroe*,^p deeply indented by a

great number of bays, and *Ost-Vaagen*, the central point of the important expedition, which, every year, during the months of February and March, assembles in these latitudes more than 20,000 fishermen.^q Between *Varoe* and *Mosken Moskenæsøe*^r lies the dangerous whirlpool of *Mal-Strøm*,^s so dreaded by navigators.

The principal branch of Norwegian industry is undoubtedly the fishery: the annual exportations which the kingdom makes in herrings and cod, are valued at from six to seven millions of francs. In 1827 there were sent to England more than 1,100,000 lobsters. A recent traveller informs us that the trade with London in these creatures is so great, that, all the way from Stadt Land^t to Lindenoës,^u an Englishman and a devourer of lobsters are almost synonymous terms. There is an English Lobster Company, and their agents are busy all along the coast. Twice or thrice a-week their packets sail from Christiansand.^v The merchant of Bergen supplies Spain and Italy with the immense quantity of fish that is there consumed during lent. During the winter the Norwegian feeds even his cattle with the entrails of fish. By the sale of his iron, he purchases in the ports of the Baltic, the quantity of corn necessary for his consumption; the British merchant buys up the masts and planks of Christiania; the firs of Drontheim, less esteemed, are carried off by the Irish. With these articles, and many others of less importance, the inhabitant of Norway procures for himself not only the comforts of life, but also the enjoyments of luxury: the women of the most retired valleys wear around their necks the handkerchiefs of Masulipatam; in the Dovrefield mountains, the hospitals are always abundantly supplied with tea, sugar and coffee; while the rich cover their tables with the wines of Bordeaux and Cyprus, with oranges from Malta, and with raisins from Corinth. In fine, in this country, which is regarded as so poor, mahogany furniture, valuable porcelain, and curious eatables, are not more rare under the hospitable roof of the merchant of Bergen and Christiania, than in the house of the rich merchant of London, or the magnificent banker of Paris.

^a The two last sentences are added by the translator.—P.
^b "*Frideriksteen*"—properly, *Frederiksteen* (Dan.) Fredericksteen (in English authors.)—P.

^c In the original, it is simply: fatal ball. It has been disputed whether Charles XII. was killed by a cannon or a musket or pistol ball. Voltaire says, a half pound shot. Those who assert he was killed by a musket or pistol ball, attribute his death to assassination.—P.

^d An obelisk—by command of Bernadotte; with only this inscription—"In the fight against Frederickshall." (Conway, p. 274—5.)—P.

^e In the original.
^f These remarks on the character of Charles XII. are added by the translator.—P.

^g M. Ad. Balbi first proposed this name and division.

^h "*Loffoden*" (M. B. Pinkerton.) Lofodden (Ed. Enc.) Loffodden (Tuckey.)—P.

ⁱ Frozen Ocean, Arctic or Northern Ocean, or Icy Sea.—P.

^j "*Berkeford*" (—fiord.)

^k *Karm Æe* (Karm Island.)

^l *Fidjæe*?

^m Rev. Robert Everest, Journey through Norway, &c. Lond. 1829.

ⁿ *Averoen* or *Froijen*.—P.

^o *Vikten* or *Viktor* (Pinkerton—north of Drontheim in about 65° N. P.

^p *Andæn* (the duck island,) *Langæn* (the long island,) *Hindæn* (the hind island,) *Mageroe* (bare island,) *Sejland* (*sej*, black cod, coal fish, *Gadus corbonarius*, Linn.) *Soroe*.—P.

^q *Vaagæ* [properly, *Vaagæe*] is the central rendezvous of the fishing boats. (Tuckey, vol. I. p. 194.)—Von Buch calculates that more than 20,000 individuals are engaged in fishing at the single station of Lofodden, during the months of February and March. He also calculates that at these islands of Vaagæ nearly sixteen millions of large cod and tusk are taken every year. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^r The island of Moskoe [*Moskøe*] lies between the mountain of Hesleggen in Lofoden and the island of Ver [*Varoe*]. The current of the Maelstrom flows on both sides of the island of Moskøe; the channel on the Lofoden side being deep, and that on the Ver side shallow. (Guthrie.)—The Maelstrom or Moskøestrom is situated between the island of Moskøe and that of Moskøenæs. (Büsching.)—Moskøe is also called Moskøenes. (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

^s Maelstrom or Moskøestrom (Guthrie.)—Maelstrom (Rees' Cyc.)—Dan. *Melstrøm*.—P.

^t Stadtland—a promontory north of Bergen, where the coast begins to trend east towards Drontheim.—P.

^u Properly, *Lindesnæs*—the Naze. *Næs* signifies a cape or promontory, in Danish.—P.

^v Rev. Robert Everest Journey through Norway, &c. Lond. 1829.

BOOK CXLVIII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Description of the Scandinavian Peninsula.—Second Section.—Description of Sweden.

THE character of the inhabitants of Sweden, and in some respects the physical constitution of the country, present more than one trait of resemblance to the people and climate of Norway. The *Laplanders*, who inhabit the northern parts of the Swedish monarchy, have been represented as men of short stature, with a swarthy or yellowish complexion, and a disagreeable physiognomy; but the view thus given of them is far from being correct. In the northern parts of Norwegian and Swedish Lapland, they are taller than in the south, yet their height does not exceed five feet and two or three inches: their copper complexion is rather the result of a habitual residence in smoky huts than a character of the race. The mountain Laplanders, who live almost always in the open air, have a skin slightly dark; the greater part of the females are even tolerably fair; and among both sexes there are seen figures as agreeable as among other nations. Their temper is always equable; never does their cheerfulness forsake them. Their honesty is proof against every temptation; robbery and murder are crimes almost unknown amongst them. They are laborious and naturally temperate, but they cannot resist the temptation of drinking strong liquors.^a Travellers tell us, that in *Westro-Bothnia*,^b physical strength and beauty distinguish both the sexes, while an unbounded hospitality towards strangers, a cheerful temper, and an enterprising disposition, are qualities common to the whole population, which extends to the polar circle. The people of *Jämtland*^c have the light shape, the agility of body, and the fair hair of the Norwegians. The *Helsingian*^d is brave: in attacking the bear, he displays as much intrepidity as the mountaineer of Norway; even the young shepherdess has been frequently known to defend her flock with success against one of these animals: it is true, however, that, according to an old superstition, the bear can do nothing against a virgin. The people of *Nericia*^e have a melancholy and taciturn air: their character is a mixture of honesty and pride, distrust and obstinacy. In the provinces of

Upland, *Westmania*^f and *Dalecarlia*,^g the population, renowned for its bravery, still preserves the physical characters of the most northern tribes: dark hair, sunk eyes, a look somewhat fierce, but full of expression and vivacity, muscles strongly marked, prominent bones, and a stature almost gigantic. In *Westro-Gothia*,^h and above all, in *Gothia*,ⁱ fair hair, blue eyes, a middle stature, a light and slender figure, and a physiognomy indicating frankness, gentleness, and a certain sentimental elevation of mind, especially among the fair sex, are predominant. The people in the other provinces partake of these different physical and moral qualities.^j

Sweden is separated from Norway by the mountains of *Kalen*, *Svuku* and *Seveberg*.^k The distance between these mountains and the sea being much greater than in Norway, the surface has less declivity, the rivers are considerably larger, and the lakes more numerous and of greater extent; yet none of the Swedish rivers surpass in length the Norwegian river *Glommen*; ^l the largest scarcely traverse a course of 100 leagues. One of the most considerable is the *Tornea*, which issues from the lake of that name, situated at the foot of the *Kælen* mountains, and which, among the rivers received by it, reckons the *Muonio*, the natural barrier that separates Sweden from Russia, as far as its junction with the *Tornea*, after which the *Tornea* forms the boundary between the two states. The *Lulea* and the *Umea* do not yield in length to the preceding. All these rivers, and many others that we do not name, traverse lakes of a great extent of surface, and throw themselves into the gulf of *Bothnia*. The most important lakes of the Scandinavian peninsula are, in the order of their size, the *Wener*,^m 35 leagues long by 20 broad; the *Mælmar*,ⁿ 25 leagues in length, and from 9 to 18 in breadth; the *Wetter*,^o 24 leagues in length, and from 6 to 7 in breadth; and the *Hielmar*, 16 leagues in length by 4 in breadth. All four are situated in southern Sweden, and the first (the *Wener*) is, after lakes *Ladoga* and *Onega* in the Russian empire, the largest lake in Europe. It gives rise to the *Göta*,^p a small river, which, after making its way through

^a Reise durch das nördliche Schweden und Lapland, &c. von F. W. von Schubert. Leipzig, 1823.—[Travels through northern Sweden and Lapland, &c. by F. W. Von Schubert. Leipsic, 1823.]

^b West Bothnia—Wester-Botten (Swed. *Vester-Botten*).—P.

^c "Jemtie."—Lat. *Jemptia*. Jempterland (Enc. Meth.) Hiemtland (Catteau).—Also in different authors, Jemptland or Jemtland, Jämtland or Jamtland. Properly, *Jämtland* (Swed.)—P.

^d Native of Helsingland (Lat. *Helsingia*).—P.

^e "Nericie."—Lat. *Nericia*; Swed. *Nerike*.—P.

^f "Westmannie."—Westmanland; Lat. *Westmania*.—P.

^g "Dälccarlie."—Lat. *Dalecarlia*; Swed. *Dalland*, or *Dalarne* (the Dals), so called from the river Dal, formed by two branches, the eastern and western Dal.—P.

^h "Westro-Gothie."—Lat. *Westro-Gothia*. West Gothland—Wester-Gothland (*Vester-Gathland*, Swed.)—P.

ⁱ "Gothic."—Lat. *Gothia*. Gothland (a term including the whole southern part of Sweden, and among other provinces, comprising West Gothland).—P.

^j Mélanges Scientifiques et Littéraires, tome I.

^k See p. 1041.

^l The *Glommen* is the greatest river in Scandinavia. (Conway).—This arises from its flowing north and south, between two branches of the great dividing chain of Scandinavia.—P.

^m Wener (Morse).—Swed. *Veneren* (the *Vener*).—P.

ⁿ Meler (Pinkerton), Malar or Maler (Morse).—Swed. *Mälaren* (the *Mælmar*).—P.

^o Weter (Pinkerton).

^p Götha (Pinkerton).—*Gatha Elf* (Swed.)—P.

steep rocks, forming frightful cataracts, throws itself into the Cattegat.^a

There is no country in which it is more easy to form canals than in Sweden, and, since the reign of Charles XI.,^b the Swedish government has profited by the disposition of the ground, to multiply the means of water communication. The canal, which bears the name of the river *Arboga*, conducts its waters from lake Hielmar to lake Mølar; the canal of *Södertelge*,^c finished in 1819, unites the waters of the Mølar with those of the Baltic; the canal of *Woodden*^d shortens the navigation from the Gulf of Bothnia to the Baltic, by avoiding the dangerous arm of the sea situated between Sweden and the isles of Åland; and that of *Ålmar-Stæk*, finished in 1823, establishes a ready communication between Upsal and Stockholm.^e Other canals have been begun or executed, with the view of making several rivers navigable, and of rendering more valuable the immense forests situated in the northern provinces; but the most important of these works is the canal of *Göta*, now almost completed, which, by the aid of several small lakes, will open an easy passage between lake Wetter and the Baltic Sea.^f It may be noticed here, that the roads in Sweden are admitted by travellers to be excellent, and inferior to none in Europe.^g

In the Baltic Sea Sweden possesses two important islands, namely, *Oeland*^h and *Gothland*. The first is separated from the main land by the strait of Calmar. It is thirty leagues in length by from three to five in breadth. Its soil is composed of schistous, siliceous and calcareous rocks. Its valleys are pleasant and well watered. It is rich in pasturage and meadow-ground, and supports much cattle. Its population is numerous. *Gothland*,ⁱ much more considerable than the former, being 25 leagues in length and 10 in breadth, is a calcareous and sandy plateau from 150 to 200 feet in height, on which there rise hills, whose bare and dry summits have nearly the same elevation; one of these hills, called *Hoborg*,^j contains a great number of caverns. *Gothland* is watered by several lakes and rivers; one of the latter, called the *Lunnelund*, issues from the small lake of *Marteboe*, flows for some time in a subterranean canal, and

again issuing from an opening 12 feet in breadth, throws itself into the sea. The climate is much milder than that of those parts of Sweden lying in the same latitude. The island is rich in forests and in game, in arable land and in cattle; merinos are there perfectly naturalized, and goats attain a great height. Agriculture is susceptible of great improvements; but as the island possesses no noble families, and is divided into many small properties, the inhabitants live in easy circumstances and procure colonial merchandise, wine and other objects of primary necessity, in exchange for their wood, tar, marble, fish and cattle, and the excellent turnips which they cultivate. *Huen*,^k a small island at the entrance of the Sound, is chiefly remarkable for having been the residence of the celebrated Tycho Brahe, who there constructed the observatory, to which he gave the name of *Uranienborg*.

The physical constitution of Sweden has been the subject of the observations of several distinguished naturalists, one of whom, in a work drawn up with much precision and distinctness, gives us just a view of it, that we can in a few words trace its principal characters.^l We have already seen that gneiss and granite predominate in the mountains, which we consider as forming the Scandinavian range.^m Wherever these two kinds of rock are seen, they alternate with each other, the one passing insensibly into the other, as if they had been formed at the same time, but the first always occupies an extent much more considerable than the second. Granite, however, appears chiefly by itself on the banks of the Muonio, on the coasts of the Baltic to the north of Calmar, and in the provinces of Upland, of Westmania, and of East and West Gothland. The richest veins of iron, copper, and argentiferous lead,ⁿ that are worked in Sweden, are contained in the gneiss; this rock contains a much greater number of strata of other rocks than are to be found elsewhere; in the mountains they are generally inclined from north-east to south-west. The oldest formations containing organic remains are, in Sweden, much more extensive in proportion to their thickness, than in the other countries of Europe; we there see succeeding each other, strata of compact limestone, enclosing the spoils of

^a The Götha, besides some lesser falls and rapids, is precipitated over the great falls of Trollhatta [*Trollhatta*—with the article, *Trollhattan*,] a height of about 130 feet. (Conway.)—The descent of the Trollhatta falls is 114 feet. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b Canals were constructed in Sweden at a very early period, particularly side cuts on the rivers. A canal was opened from Upsal to the Baltic in 1030. The Arboga canal was constructed in 1632, during the minority of Christina. These, and various other works, were anterior to the reign of Charles XI. That monarch began to reconstruct the Arboga canal in 1691, and completed it in 1701. He, however, followed the channel of the river, instead of cutting an artificial canal along its banks.—P.

^c Södertelje (Ed. Enc.) Södertelge, a town 16 miles W. S. W. of Stockholm. (Morse.)—Swed. *Säder*, south, and *Telje* or *Telje*.—P.

^d "The canal of *Wadden*."

^e Consult the Summary of the Reports made to the king of Sweden and Norway, upon the public works executed in 1823: *Revue Encyclopédique*, 1824.

^f The canal here mentioned, by the name of the canal of *Göta* (*Götha* or *Götha*), is the line of inland navigation across Sweden, from the Cattegat to the Baltic, by the river Götha, and the lakes Wenern (the Wener,) Wiken, Wetteren (the Wetter,) Boren and Roxen, to the town of Söderköping (*Söderköping*). It is intended for the passage of smaller vessels, and has consequently 10 feet depth of water. The navigation of the Götha to the lake Wener is perfected by the lock at Akerstrom and that at Edit, the canal at Trollhatta (with nine locks,) and the locks at Karlsgraff. The remainder of the route was surveyed by Mr. T. Telford, at the expense of Count Platen, in 1808; a company was then formed, and a charter granted by Charles XIII. in 1810. The operations have been since carried on with much assiduity and success, and a considerable portion of the canal rendered navigable. The

length of the route from the Wener to the Baltic, including lakes, is about 120 miles; that of the artificial canals is about 55 miles. The ascent from the Wener to the summit, or surface of lake Wiken, is 162 feet; the descent to the Baltic, 307 feet. The number of locks is to be 56.—Gustavus I. projected in 1526, a different line of inland navigation across the kingdom, by the lakes Mølar, Hielmar, Skager and Wener; but the Arboga canal, between the Mølar and the Hielmar, was the only part executed.—Besides the canals already mentioned, there are others in Sweden, particularly the Strömsholm canal, between the Mølar and the province of Dalarne, (60 miles in length, partly natural water courses,) completed in 1795. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g There is nothing with which one is more struck, in travelling through Sweden, than the excellence of the roads. Macadamized Regent Street is not smoother, and scarcely even broader, than the whole of the road for upwards of 200 miles, from Fredericksshall to the Sound. (Conway, p. 278—9).—P.

^h "Oeland."—Oland or Oeland (Pinkerton,) Oeland (Tuckey,) Oeland (Guthrie, Morse.)—Oeland is the proper orthography. The island abounds in freestone, called Oeland stone (*Olands sten*), by the Swedes.—P.

ⁱ Gothland or Gottland (Morse.) Gottland (Tuckey.)—Those who believe that this island was the cradle of the Goths, write Gothland; but most of the Swedes write *Gottland* (good country.) (Tuckey, vol. I. p. 278.)—*God* or *godd*, good, in Swedish.—P.

^j Hoberg. (Tuckey.)

^k Huen or Hwen (Tuckey.)—Dan. *Hecn*.—P.

^l See the Introduction to the Mineralogical Geography of Sweden, by M. Hisinger, translated into German by Dr. Wöhler.

^m "Scandinavian system."

ⁿ Argentiferous galena—chiefly at what is called the silver mine of Sala, west of Upsal.—P.

those marine animals, with multilocular shells, called *orthoceratites*, argillaceous schists containing the small organized bodies to which Linnæus first gave the name of *graptolithi*, and which belong to the same family as the preceding, and lastly, sandstones and different kinds of rocks formed of various agglomerated substances.^a Dalecarlia, Jemtland,^b Nericia and East Gothland^c are covered with these older deposits.^d In Scania we begin to perceive more recent formations, comprehending the coal formation and the older shell limestone,^e called *muschelkalk* by the Germans, to which succeed, in the order of their formation, sandy and calcareous strata,^f as well as thick beds of chalk. In this province, rocks which bear the marks of an igneous origin, traverse the different formations, and appear on the surface. It is in this province, that one of our savans^g has recognised in the vast diluvial deposits, (*terrains de transport*), composed of sand, rolled pebbles, and enormous blocks of granite, (the accumulation of which forms here and there, in the environs of Upsal, on the borders of Lake Wener, and as far as the Sound, those hills called *ose* in Swedish,^h) the origin of the deposits of the same nature which cover the dutchy of Mecklenburg, Pomerania, and the Russian Provinces, as far as the mouth of the Neva. Thus, from Norway and Sweden have been conveyed by immense currents of water, those masses of *debris* which one is astonished to find on both sides of the Baltic, and which undoubtedly were there deposited, when that sea had as yet no existence, or when the country, more covered with forests than at present, and consequently colder, beheld the Sound and the other straits covered with ice, and presenting during the rigours of winter, a ready passage to these eruptions. In conclusion, one word will suffice to give an idea of the richness of the Swedish iron mines. They are wrought in the open air like stone quarries, and it is calculated, that they can scarcely be exhausted in fifteen centuries.

From the similarity of climate, it is to be expected, that the animals which are found in Norway, will also be found in Sweden, and, accordingly, this is the case. The bear and the wolf have their abode in Sweden, as well as in Norway, and the latter especially is destructive,

^a Puddingstones or conglomerates.—P.

^b "Jentie."—See note ^c p. 1047.

^c "Ostro-Gothie."—Lat. *Ostro-Gothia*. Oster-Gothland (*Ester-Gathland*, Swed.)—P.

^d If a line be drawn across Dalecarlia (*Dalarne*) from south-west to north-east, through the parishes of Malung and Venjan to Siljan, and thence through the parishes of Rättvik and Ore to the borders of Hel-singland, and if the same line be continued northward through Jemtland, leaving Herjedalia (*Herjedalen*) and a part of Jemtland on the north, and southward, from Trandstrandfiäll, through Norway, passing by Tryssild and the Os and Miæs lakes (*Osen-Sæ—Miæsen-Sæ*), and then along the western side of the gulf of Christiania to Skeens-fjord (about 40 miles S. W. of Christiania,) it will form a dividing line between the primitive region on the south, (consisting chiefly of gneiss, in which are included, however, subordinate beds or strata of hornblende, compact felspar, granite, limestone, mica-slate, and hornblende slate, and also different metals, particularly iron and copper,) and the transition region on the north, in which the prevailing rocks are sandstone, greenstone, porphyry, grauwacke and limestone. North-west of this transition region is another primitive region, (occupying the high ridge of mountains between Drontheim and Jemtland, and indeed the great range of Norwegian mountains, extending along the western coast to the south point of Norway,) in which the prevailing rock is mica-slate, including talcose and chlorite slates, and flanked on either side by argillite. The transition region thus forms a trough between two primitive regions, extending along the great valley of southern Norway and through the provinces of Dalecarlia (north-western part,) Herjedalia and Jemtland in Sweden. See Physical and Geognostical Observations during journeys in Sweden and

attacking not only the feebler animals, but sometimes man himself. The elk has become a rare animal, but is still met with; and the rein-deer exists in abundance, in the northern parts of the country, especially among the Laplanders. The domestic animals are in general small, but strong and useful. Fish in great variety and abundance are to be found in all the waters. The eagle and falcon are frequent in the northern and more inaccessible parts; and domestic fowls, and the smaller birds, are to be met with, as in Great Britain.ⁱ

What we have said of the vegetation of Norway, applies to that of Sweden. We will add, however, after the researches of a learned botanist,^k that the primrose (*Primula elatior*),^l which flourishes in our woods in the early days of spring, is common in Scania; that the common maple (*Acer campestre*), the smallest of this genus, grows by the side of several of our forest trees; that the humble asarabacca (*Asarum Europæum*) is found creeping on the surface of the ground in sandy soils; that the St. John's-wort (*Hypericum*) shows itself with its yellow flower in the sands of Bleking; and that the almond-leaved willow (*Salix amygdalina*), with its flexible branches, abounds in moist grounds, and sees growing at its feet the lively mouse-ear,^m with flowers of the most beautiful blue. Towards the 62d or 63d degree of latitude, fruit-trees cease to prosper; the cherry-tree becomes there a sorry shrub; but nature has multiplied from that latitude to the northern extremities of Sweden, along with several wild small fruitsⁿ known to the rest of Europe, two species, whose delicious fruits would be tasted with pleasure, even in our own climates. The one is the *Rubus arcticus*; its refreshing berry, of a sweet and aromatic flavour, holds a place between the strawberry and the raspberry. It has been in vain attempted to cultivate it in the south of Sweden: it may be said to have been given to northern Bothnia, in order to indemnify it for the want of fruit-trees. The other, (the *Rubus chamæmoris*),^p more widely diffused, descends to the 60th degree. It supplies the Swedes with a kind of lemonade both pleasant and wholesome. The abundance of these berries, and the benefit derived from them, have prodigiously increased their use.^q

Norway, by W. Hisinger. Part i. p. 24, 75. Part ii. p. 54. (*Anteckningar i Physik och Geognosi under resor uti Sverrige och Norrige. af W. Hisinger. Första Häftet, sid. 24, 75. Andra Häftet, sid. 54 Upsala, 1819—20.*)—P.

^e "Shell limestone deposited by the former ocean (*anciennc mer.*)"

^f Strata of sandstone and limestone.—P.

^g Al. Brongniart, Notice sur les blocs de roches des terrains de transport en Suède: Ann. des Sciences Naturelles, tome xiv.

^h Swed. *ås* [Dan. *aas*,] a ridge or chain of hills; also, the ridge of a roof, or a ridge formed by the plough.—P.

ⁱ The above paragraph is added by the translator.—P.

^k M. Fries, author of a memoir, entitled: Botanical Excursions in some provinces of Sweden.

^l The *Primula elatior* is the oxlip or greater cowslip—the common primrose is the *Primula vulgaris*.—P.

^m "Myosotide vivace"—perennial *Myosotis*.—This is the *Myosotis palustris*, Water Scorpion-grass, growing in wet grounds, and perennial—the *Myosotis scorpioides*, var. *palustris*, Linn. The *Myosotis scorpioides* Mouse-ear Scorpion-grass, (*Myosotis scorpioides*, var. *arvensis*, Linn.,) grows in dry soils, and is annual.—P.

ⁿ "Several brambles (*ronces*)"—Genus *Rubus*.—P.

^o Dwarf Crimson Bramble—flowers crimson; fruit yellow, with a purplish tinge.—A small plateful of the fruit fills an apartment with a more exquisite scent than the finest perfumes. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^p Mountain Bramble, or Cloudberry—flowers white; fruit crimson, turning yellow when ripe, and of an acid taste, like the cranberry.—P.

^q "The abundance of these berries, and the necessity of employing them, have greatly multiplied their use."—Does the original mean by

All that part of Sweden, lying between the Sound and the course of the Dalä,^a has made within the last twenty years great progress in agriculture; it produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, and farinaceous vegetables,^b in considerable abundance. In Dalecarlia, in Jemteland,^c and in Angermania,^d they cultivate everywhere flax, hemp and potatoes; but to the north of these provinces, the insufficiency of the crops compels the inhabitants to mix with their grain the bark of the *Pinus sylvestris* (Scotch fir), in order to procure a greater supply of food.

The climate of Sweden, generally less severe than that of Norway, is always a subject of astonishment to a stranger. In Gothland, the mildness of the temperature, and the fertility of the soil, have so favoured reproduction, that although this province is scarcely equal to a fourth of the whole kingdom, its population forms nearly two thirds of it. At Stockholm, the German from the shores of the Baltic, does not find those fogs, which extend over a great part of Germany; the Frenchman does not regret the climate of the north of France; he does not even feel those sudden and frequent changes, which lessen the pleasure of an abode at Paris. In the capital of the kingdom, the longest days and nights are eighteen hours and a half. At Calix, near the northern frontier, the winter lasts nine months, and the summer three, the latter terminating with the month of September; the sun never quits the horizon during the period of the longest days, and never shows itself during that of the longest nights. In general the air of Sweden is pure, and the ravages of contagious diseases are never experienced. The beauty of a warm and dry summer, which, in its short duration, sees the frost disappear all at once, and almost immediately the vegetation adorned with leaves and flowers, makes it a matter of indifference that spring is there unknown. Southern Europe, it may be said with justice, knows nothing of the mild clearness of a Northern morning or evening, the slow disappearance of the rays of the sun reflected in an ocean of purple clouds, and the nights that are embellished by the feeble glimmer of twilight, even till the moment when the dawn of morning shows itself in the east.

Let us now survey Sweden in all its extent; let us visit its cities, and sketch the manners of its principal provinces; and when, after having arrived at the southern extremity of the Scandinavian peninsula, we shall have examined its institutions, its industry and its commerce, the reader will be prepared to appreciate the Swedish monarchy, in all its relations.

The cities of Sweden are in general thinly peopled, nor ought this to astonish us. That crowd of idle people, who spend in the heart of towns their pensions, or the revenue of their lands, is unknown in Sweden. The

the necessity of employing them, that arising from the want of other fruits merely, or does it refer to their salubrious qualities? These fruits are considered valuable as antiscorbutics, and are very generally used in the north of Europe, as an article of cookery.—P.

^a Dal (Ed. Enc.) Dahl (Pinkerton.)

^b "Pulse (*legumes farineux*)."—P. ^c See note ^c p. 1047.

^d "Angermanie"—Lat. *Angermania*; Angermanland.—P.

^e Luleo—also Piteo, Umeo and Tornco. (Tuckey.)—The termination in *o*, or in *a*, pronounced as *o*, [the Swedish *å*,] signifies river. (Tuckey, vol. i. p. 273).—P.

^f Population 1000 (Stat. Tab.) 700 to 900 (Tuckey).—P.

^g "Proletaires" (*proletarii*), dependents, labourers—that class who live on the frontiers, in a state of dependence on the Swedes.—In the Ed. Enc. art. Lapland, the Laplanders are distinguished into the mountain Laplanders, who live by their herds of rein-deer; the mari-

proprietors of land, and even the nobility, enjoy in the country, and in the bosom of their family, all the sweets of domestic life and rural occupations, abandoning the towns and sea-ports to manufacturers and merchants. *Lulea*, or *Luleo*,^e in Northern Bothnia, is a small town of not more than 4000 inhabitants,^f whose port, at the mouth of the river of the same name, carries on some trade with the Laplanders. The alluvions formed by this river have led to the abandonment of the old town of Lulea, now too far distant from the sea. *Pitea* is of still less importance than Lulea. *Umea*, in Westro-Bothnia, with 1100 inhabitants, supports a society of agriculture and a school; like the two preceding towns, it is situated at the mouth of a river, whose name it bears.

Northern Sweden, whose three principal towns we have just enumerated, is peopled by Laplanders and Swedes. Of the Laplanders, four classes are distinguished, namely, mountaineers, inhabitants of the forests, fishermen, and beggars.^g The first live by the produce of their herds of rein-deer; they spend the summer upon the mountains, and the winter in the plains; their nomadic life obliges them to transport with them their families, their animals, and their dwellings.^h The Laplanders of the second class are stationary;ⁱ their herds of rein-deer are less numerous than those of the former; they lead them into the forests, or rather suffer them to feed at liberty, while they themselves are occupied with the cultivation of their lands. The Lapland fishermen have still fewer animals than the preceding; they intrust them to their countrymen of the forests, or while they are themselves employed in fishing in the different lakes, they send their wives and children to take care of the herds on the mountains. The begging Laplanders live, as their name indicates, by begging, or by hiring themselves out to the Swedish peasantry.^k Some of them, after having witnessed the destruction of their flocks by the attacks of wolves, or other untoward events, employ themselves in making wicker panniers and baskets. The rigour of the climate, the misery which the Laplanders frequently suffer, and the unfruitfulness of their women, prevent the increase of their population. The Westro-Bothnians, and the other Swedish inhabitants of the same regions, animated by the love of labour, and united by the most friendly cordiality, live happy in their families, where order and neatness reign. Their women heighten their natural charms by a certain elegance in their dress. These northern provinces contain few nobles and merchants; the clergy form the most respectable, the most influential, and also the happiest class of society, because they owe the consideration in which they are held to the gratitude which the people feel for the benefits conferred by them.

Hernæsand,^l more considerable than the cities of the

time Laplanders, who live by fishing; and those who inhabit the woody country bordering on Sweden.—P.

^h The mountain Laplanders have no fixed habitations, but live in tents, which they move from place to place, in quest of food for their rein-deer. These tents are constructed of poles nearly meeting at the top, and covered with the cloth called wadmål. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁱ The mountain Laplanders are continually moving from place to place to procure food for their rein-deer. The maritime Laplanders change their habitations only twice in the year, namely, in spring and autumn. Those who inhabit the woody region, are more stationary. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k "The Laplanders of the fourth class (*Lapons prolétaires*) live by begging, or hire themselves out to the Swedish peasantry."—See note ^g.—P.

^l Hernosand.

north,^a bears the name of the small island of *Hernæn*,^b on which it is situated. Its position, at the mouth of a bay,^c gives importance to its harbour; it is the seat of a bishopric, is regularly built, contains several manufactures, and possesses a university,^d a botanic garden, and a printing office, which publishes works in the Lapland tongue. *Gefle*, at the mouth of a small river called *Gefle-An*,^e has irregular, but broad and well paved streets, a tolerably good harbour, two docks for ship-building, sundry manufactures, several schools, and a celebrated academy.^f At *Falun*,^g situated in a valley, and divided into two parts by a small river, which connects lake *Varpan* with that of *Rums*,^h they manufacture cloths, ribbons and tobacco-pipes; several manufactories of chemical products, and others for the spinning of cotton and wool, have been also established there. Its school for miners enjoys some reputation. In the environs of this town are situated the most valuable copper-mines in the kingdom, besides several mines of gold and silver. About 500 workmen are there employed.

The Dalecarlians carry on a great trade with Norway. In the depth of winter they cross the mountains, and carry their productions to the markets of Drontheim. These journeys are made by caravans of from 300 to 400 men, and more than 1000 horses. It is a singular spectacle to witness these peasants making the air resound with their merry songs, mounted on light sledges, gliding with the rapidity of the wind over the snow, or over the surface of lakes rendered firm by the frost. The Helsingians, inhabiting a maritime country, enjoy a climate less severe than the Dalecarlians; their soil is not fertile, but by means of labour and industry, the province which they inhabit is perhaps one of the most flourishing in Europe. They cultivate enough of grain for their subsistence; their herds and flocks yield them abundance of butter and excellent cheese; their forests are peopled with game of the best quality; their rivers are full of fish and delicate salmon; and their exports in iron and hemp are considerable. Their habitations are commodious, substantial, and furnished with every thing necessary; among the rich, one apartment is ordinarily full of more linen and clothes than the family could use in a century. Order and foresight are the leading virtues of this people.

In approaching *Upsal*, we perceive on a rising ground a castle built by *Gustavus* (*Vasa*) I. *Upsal* or *Upsala*, formerly called *Æster-Aros*, is watered by the small river *Fyrisa*.ⁱ It is celebrated for its university, founded in the fifteenth century,^k in which there are sixty professors, and more than 800 students.^l Its situation in a fertile plain, fifteen leagues from *Stockholm*, is favourable

to an establishment of this kind, which, as far as possible, ought to be placed at a distance from the objects of temptation always to be found in a capital. *Linnæus*, *Cronstedt*, *Bergman*, *Wallerius*, and several other great men, have filled chairs in *Upsal*. The buildings occupied by the university are, without contradiction, the finest in the city. The *Gustavian* academy, erected by *Gustavus Adolphus*, contains a library of 80,000 volumes, besides a valuable collection of manuscripts. In the hall allotted for this purpose, there are to be seen two coffers deposited there by *Gustavus III.*, and to be opened fifty years after his death. In 1842,^m that time will have arrived. The same building contains an anatomical amphitheatre: to the observatory, which is finely situated, there is annexed a considerable library, composed of astronomical works; the chemical and physical laboratory, the museum of natural history, and the new botanic garden, are very rich collections. The university buildings also comprehend fencing and dancing halls, besides a magnificent riding-school. The present crown prince of Sweden, *Oscar*, received his education at *Upsal*, and resided while there in the palace of the archbishop.ⁿ The city likewise possesses other useful establishments: the society of sciences,^o founded in 1712 by *Eric Berzelius*,^p at first librarian and afterwards archbishop of *Upsal*; the cathedral school, a kind of secondary school, in which are taught literature and the sciences; Sunday schools, which are held in one of the halls belonging to the sacristy of the cathedral; a school for the poor; a house of voluntary labour for the indigent; a private institution for the relief of persons of distinction, principally females, the victims of the vicissitudes of fortune; an hospital for invalids, of which one part serves as a house of correction, and lastly, a Bible society. *Upsal* is the seat of an archbishop, with a revenue of upwards of £1000 sterling. The house and garden of *Linnæus* are still shown to travellers.^q

The houses of *Upsal* are built, some of stone, and others of wood; the finest have gardens, from whence there is an extensive view of the neighbouring country. The streets are broad and straight, particularly those which lead to its large and superb square. The cathedral is the largest and most magnificent church in the Swedish monarchy: its gothic architecture resembles that of *Notre Dame* at *Paris*. It was begun in 1258, and finished in 1435. It is covered with sheets of copper. Its length is 330 feet, its breadth 140, and its height 105. At the entrance of this church, we see the figure of *St. Olof*, king of Sweden, trampling under foot a monster, the symbol of idolatry; and in the nave, the

^a "Cités du nord"—properly, the towns situated farther north, in Northern and Western Bothnia.—Population of *Hernæsand* 1800 (Stat. Tab.) 2500 (Tuckey); of the others, 800 to 1100 (Stat. Tab.) 700 to 900 (Tuckey).—P.

^b The *Hern* island—*æ*, island, in Swedish.—P.

^c It is situated on the island of *Hernœ*, at the mouth of the principal river in *Angermanland*.—P.

^d "College."—The only universities in Sweden are those of *Upsal* and *Lund*.—The colleges (*gymnasia*) hold the next rank after the universities. (Catteau.)—P.

^e Properly, *Gefle-An* (the river *Gefle*)—*å*, river, in Swedish.—P.

^f "Gymnasium."—P.

^g *Fahlun*. (Ed. Enc. Pinkerton.)

^h *Fahlun* is situated between the two lakes of *Run* and *Warpen*. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁱ I is divided into two almost equal parts by the small river *Sala*. (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

^k In 1476,* by *Steen Sture*, regent of the kingdom after the death of *Charles Canutson*.—P.

* 1478 (Coxe.)

^l Number of professors about 20; ordinary number of students, about 500. (Coxe. 1779.)—Number of professors 21; of students, more than 1000. (Morse.)—P.

^m In the original, 1830. But *Gustavus* was assassinated March 1792, and fifty years from that brings us to 1842.—*Trans*.

ⁿ This sentence is added by the translator.—P.

^o The Royal Society of Sciences and Literature at *Upsal* (*Societas Regia Literaria et Scientiarum Upsalensis*).—P.

^p *Eric Benzelius*. (Catteau. Beauvais. Gorton.)—The Royal Academy* of Sciences, founded at *Upsal* in 1720, by *Eric Benzelius*, then librarian to the university, and afterwards archbishop. (Catteau's View of Sweden, p. 368. Eng. Trans.)—P.

* Society.—See note °.

^q The two last sentences are added by the translator.—P.

Swedish sovereigns were formerly crowned, and assumed the title of kings of Upsal.^a The interior of this edifice is filled with tombs and other objects of still greater interest. Near the altar, repose the ashes of Olaus Petri, the Swedish reformer; a little farther off, a monument of alabaster incloses the remains of Gustavus Vasa and his three wives. Here we see the silver coffin of Eric IX., and the sarcophagi of several Swedish kings; there, the magnificent marble monument erected to the memory of Baron Charles De Geer, the historian and naturalist,^b presents itself: another monument, that of Linnæus, erected in 1798 by the friends of that great man, is remarkable for its simplicity. In the two sacristies, other objects strike the eye: one contains the portraits of the most celebrated Swedish ecclesiastics; in the other we see the dress worn by the unfortunate Nils Sture, so unjustly accused of treason by Eric XIV., and poignarded by the hand of that prince in the castle of Upsal; the whetstone, three feet in length, sent in derision by Albert of Mecklenburg, king of Sweden, to Margaret, queen of Denmark,—an intimation to lay aside her sword, and attend to sharpening her needles; and the colours which she sent him in return, patched with bits of her shifts. It is known that Albert called Margaret *the breechless queen*, and that this epigrammatic war terminated in the battle of Falkøping,^c in which victory placed the crown of Sweden upon the head of Margaret. Another apartment contains several objects of great value, such as a gilded cross,^d containing a piece of the wood of the true cross sent by pope Alexander III.; a golden cup^e seventeen inches in height, enriched with diamonds, which was taken at Prague by Kœnigsmarck; and an old wooden idol, representing the god Thor. Gustavus Vasa erected a magnificent palace at Upsal, the greater part of which was consumed by fire in 1702, leaving only one wing habitable, where the king resides when he visits this city.^f

Nature, munificent in her gifts, has collected with so much prodigality in the environs of Stockholm situations the most diversified, that this city appears as if placed in the midst of a large and magnificent garden. On one side rise majestic mountains adorned by the dark foliage of the pine-tree, mixed with the leafy branches of the elm and oak, while, on the other, a pleasant valley opens to the view. Here the lake Mælar spreads out its surface irregularly indented by bays and promontories, and covered with a multitude of granite rocks, some of them steep and bare, others decorated with villas and clumps of trees; there rises a forest on a declivity adorned with verdure; farther off the eye rests on distant hills or islands. Palaces, the summer-residences

of the royal family, country-houses and gardens, animate the landscape. The capital of Sweden is in a singular and romantic situation, which strikes all strangers with surprise. It occupies two peninsulas, and several islands,^g washed by the Mælar, at the bottom of the gulf where that lake discharges itself into the Baltic Sea; and hence Stockholm has been called the Venice of the north. Canute, son of Eric the Holy,^h laid the foundations of Stockholm towards the close of the twelfth century,ⁱ in a spot which then contained only a few miserable huts of fishermen, with the view of making it a place of defence against the attacks of pirates. *Norrmalm* and *Sædermalm*,^k its two principal suburbs, occupy several islands, and are partly built upon piles. Its ten divisions^l are separated by different arms of the Mælar and by the sea, but they communicate with each other by thirteen large stone bridges, besides several others of wood; many houses are surrounded by gardens, the walls of which rise from the water's edge; others, as in *Sædermalm*, are built against rocks which, higher than the roofs, rise like walls in the midst of these islands. Stockholm is irregularly built; the greater part of it is of stone and brick, but many of the houses are of wood painted red. Its twenty public squares are small and inelegant; *Norrmalm* contains the broadest and finest streets, the longest of which is the *Drottninggata*,^m adorned by the fronts of several palaces. The harbour, defended by two forts, is difficult of access, but within it is spacious and safe; the water is clear as crystal, and so deep that the largest ships can go to its very extremity in the centre of the city, and unlade their cargoes on the quay, which is bordered by elegant mansions and vast warehouses. Many streets in the city rise in a circuit,ⁿ one above another, on the declivity of a hill, and form a fine amphitheatre crowned by the king's palace. This building, from its foundation to the sixteenth century, was merely a fortress. It has been since repeatedly rebuilt, the date of the last rebuilding being 1753. It is a square building, four stories in height, flanked by two wings, and built in a superb style, and is filled with rich furniture and collections of so great a value, that it may be compared to the finest regal abodes in Europe. There are many curiosities preserved in this place: amongst others, the cradle and small garden-carriage of Charles XII., with the clothes, stained with blood, worn by him when he fell at the siege of Fredericstein^o in Norway, his hat pierced with a musket-shot,^p and his walking cane; the masquerade costume worn by Gustavus III. on the night of his assassination; the clothes of the great Gustavus Adolphus, with the swords of several of the Swedish

^a The last sovereign who was crowned at Upsal was Ulrica Eleonora, A. D. 1719.—P.

^b Qu. natural historian.—De Geer is chiefly known by his History of Insects (*Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire des Insectes*, 7 vols. 4to.) published at Stockholm, in French.—P.

^c Anno 1396. Trans.—This is an error. The union of Calmar took place in 1397, previous to which several years had elapsed since the battle of Falkøping, during which Albert had been long prisoner to Margaret, and afterwards liberated on condition of his abdicating the throne of Sweden and retiring to Mecklenburg.—The battle took place in 1387. Albert was detained prisoner seven years. (Moreri).—P.

^d "Cross of silver gilt (*vermeil*)."

^e "Chalice."

^f This sentence is added by the translator.—P.

^g Stockholm is generally described as standing on seven islands.—P.

^h "Eric le Saint"—St. Eric.

Stockholm is said to have been founded by Birger Jarl, regent of

the kingdom, about the middle of the thirteenth century. (Catteau. Pinkerton).—P.

^k North and south suburbs.—*Norr*, north; *sæder*, south; and *malm*, suburb.—P.

^l "Quarters."—The different quarters into which Stockholm is divided are the city, the *Riddarholm* (Knights' Island,) the *Helgeandsholm* (Island of the Holy Ghost,) the *Blasieholm* (Island of St. Blaise,) the *Skeppsholm* (Ship or Admiralty Island,) the *Kongsholm* (King's Island,) the *Ladugordsland* [*ladugård*, farmyard,] and the northern and southern suburbs (*Norrmalm* and *Sædermalm*.) (Catteau. p. 16).—P.

^m Queen Street—*drottning*, queen, and *gata*, street.—P.

ⁿ "À l'entour"—around the quay.—At the extremity of the harbour several streets rise one above another in the form of an amphitheatre, and the palace, a magnificent building, crowns the summit. (Coxe's Travels, vol. iii. p. 95).—P.

^o Fredericksteen.

^p See note ^c p. 1046.

monarchs.^a The chapel is a very splendid one: there every year, on the 20th of December, they celebrate a festival in honor of Gustavus Adolphus, in order to keep up the remembrance of the noble perseverance, with which that monarch fought for the liberty of the protestant communion. The royal library contains 40,000 volumes, besides numerous manuscripts, and possesses the prayer-book of the emperor Ferdinand the Second, one of the trophies of Gustavus Adolphus during the thirty years' war, and the copy of the Vulgate Bible, which belonged to Luther, with notes in his own handwriting. The collection of paintings is composed of different works of the great masters of the Italian school, and of the best Swedish painters. The museum of antiquities is rich in Grecian statues and in medals. At the foot of the platform occupied by the palace, stands the statue of Gustavus III. erected by the burghesses of Stockholm; and in the square of Riddarholmen,^b there is a bronze statue of Gustavus Vasa. The square of Gustavus Adolphus is decorated with a bronze statue of that prince on horseback; and in the Royal Garden, we see that of Charles XIII. cast at Paris in 1821. The beautiful church of St. Nicholas, that of *Riddarholmen* (the Knights' Island,) decorated with 5000 foreign standards, and inclosing the ashes of several kings, and of the most celebrated Swedish generals, and the great church or cathedral, called *Storkyrka*,^c are buildings of the first order. The last is the most ancient: it has been used for the coronation of the Swedish kings, since that ceremony ceased to be performed at Upsal.^d Its altar, incrusting with gold, silver and ivory, representing the birth of Christ; a chandelier of silver, weighing 78 pounds; and the plume and spur of St. Olof, are only a few of the curiosities to be seen there. Join to these edifices, the magnificent building of the exchange, the opera-house, where Gustavus III. was assassinated, the town-house, the mint, the immense building where iron is stored, the artillery-park, the docks and the admiralty, the palace of the princess Sophia, sister to Gustavus III., and, at the northern extremity of the *Drottninggata*, on an isolated rock, the beautiful building of the observatory: and is it not a matter of regret, that the greater part of the private buildings in the city are so little in harmony with the beauty of these public monuments? Our limits oblige us to pass by the central veterinary institution, and the forest institution, intended for forming able scholars, the scientific collections, the learned societies, such as the academy of sciences^e and that of belles-lettres,^f and the schools of medicine and of mineralogy,^g and others no less useful. Among the philanthropic institutions, supported by the wisdom

of government, and by the zeal of individuals, we can only mention the society "Pro Patria," the object of which is to promote virtue amongst all classes; for this purpose, distributing silver medals, as a reward for the long and arduous labours of teachers of primary schools, the services of midwives, the good behaviour of workmen, the fidelity of servants, and the attention of the farmers and peasantry in endeavouring to improve and bring agriculture to perfection.

The commerce of Stockholm is of great importance. This city, sheltered from the violence of winds, ought apparently to be healthy, yet the mortality is greater, in proportion to its population, than in any other capital in Europe; the cause can only be ascribed to the exhalations from the waters and from the marshy grounds that surround it. We have spoken of the royal palaces that are seen in approaching its walls: that of *Drottningholm*^h is the finest; it presents some resemblance to that of Versailles, but its position on the northern point of the island of Lofse, in Lake Mælär, the beauty of its gardens, and the abundance of its waters, render it much more remarkable. *Carlsberg*, on the borders of the lake, is distinguished also as a royal dwelling, but especially for its military school, which contains 200 pupils. *Haga*, a small lodge surrounded by enchanting prospects, is the ordinary residence of the king during the fine season. Lastly, the beautiful residence of the *Botanical Villa* is that to which he prefers inviting strangers who are presented to him.

After quitting the borders of Lake Mælär, we see *Örebro*ⁱ near the Hiemar, and *Carlstad*, on the banks of the Wener. These two, which are places of note, but with a population of from only 2000 to 3000 souls,^k possess, like the greater part of the Swedish cities, more educational establishments than are to be seen in larger cities of France. *Örebro* is occasionally the place of meeting of the Swedish Diet,^l and contains, besides other schools, a normal school, and an agricultural society. *Carlstad* is a pretty town, and possesses, like *Örebro*, an agricultural society, besides an academy, an observatory, and a cabinet of natural history.^m *Wenersborg*, at the southern extremity of Lake Wener, is one of the principal marts for iron. It is a small, but neat town, with a spacious square. The houses are of wood, and painted, as in many Swedish towns, of different colours. The Lake Wener presents here the appearance of a sea, and like the sea is ruffled with tempests, and the navigation often dangerous.ⁿ *Nyköping*,^o with a small harbour on the Baltic, exports cannon and bullets. In its old castle, a part of which is used for a prison, Birger king of Sweden, who showed himself an able prince, but whose talents formed no apology for his

^a This sentence is added by the translator.—P.

^b "Place de l'hôtel des chevaliers"—square of the palace of the nobility (Swed. *Riddarhus*; literally, knight's house).—The *Riddarhus* is a house belonging to the nobility, in which they meet during the diets.—P.

^c *Stor*, great; *kyrka*, church.—P.

^d See note ^a p. 1052.

^e The Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, founded in 1733. (Catteau.)—It had its origin from six persons of distinguished learning, one of whom was Linnæus, who, in 1739, formed a society for reading dissertations on literary and scientific subjects. It was incorporated, March 31, 1741, under the name of the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences (*Konglig Svenska Vetenskaps Akademien*). (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f The Academy of Belles Lettres at Stockholm, founded in 1753 by Louisa Ulrica, mother of Gustavus III.—remodelled in 1786, by Gus-

tavus III., who gave it the name of the Academy of Belles Lettres, History and Antiquities. (Catteau.)—P.

^g "École des mines" (mining school)—College of Mines (Catteau.)—P.

^h Queen's Island.

ⁱ Örebro. (Ed. Enc.)

^k "These two chief towns," with a population of from two to three thousand souls.—

* Capitals of provinces. See Stat. Tab.—P.

^l This statement is made by the translator.—P.

^m "Carlstad possesses a similar society, a gymnasium, an observatory, and a cabinet of natural history."

ⁿ The three last sentences are added by the translator.—P.

^o Swed. *ny*, new, and *köping*, a kind of market town, from *kapa*, to buy.—The name of this town is also written, but incorrectly, *Nyköping*, *Nyköping*, and *Nicöping*.—P.

crimes, caused, in 1318, two of his brothers to be imprisoned, and starved to death. *Linköping*,^a in the midst of one of the most fertile plains of East Gothland, is regularly built; several fairs, well frequented, are held there; its academy^b possesses a fine library, besides a museum of natural history and antiquities; its cathedral is, next to that of Upsal, the largest and finest in the kingdom. *Jenköping*,^c well built upon the southern shore of Lake Wetter, possesses several regular streets, which have been laid out since the period when it was almost entirely destroyed by fire in 1790. *Gottenburg*, or *Gotheborg*,^d is reckoned the second city in Sweden, but from its situation and the excellence of its harbour, with the actual extent of business carried on, may probably, in a commercial point of view, be regarded the first. It lies in the province of West Gothland, near the mouth of the river Göta or Gøtha,^e in the Cattegat, and was once strongly fortified, but its fortifications have fallen into disrepair. It is built, partly on a rocky eminence, and partly on a marshy plain: the streets are in straight lines, and in the principal ones a canal generally runs through the middle, large enough to admit vessels of considerable size, which can thus be unloaded close to the houses of their owners. Four bridges connect one part of the town with another, and in many of the streets trees are planted, creating altogether a resemblance between this city and those in Holland. The population exceeds 20,000.^f *Gottenburg* has at different times suffered severely from fire arising from the houses having been built chiefly of wood. Since 1746 almost all the new buildings have been of stone or brick, but even subsequently to that year destructive fires have taken place. One fire in 1804 consumed two hundred houses, and another in 1813 one hundred. In general the houses are two or three stories in height. The principal buildings are the cathedral, the town-house, and the governor's house. It is a bishop's see, and the revenue is about £750 sterling per annum. The burial-grounds here are at some distance from the town, and tastefully laid out in walks planted with trees. The foreign trade of *Gottenburg* is considerable: iron and timber are the principal articles of export, and the herring fishery is carried on to a considerable extent. Six newspapers are published here. Many English and Scotch merchants are settled in *Gottenburg*.^g *Uddevalla*, to the north of *Gottenburg*, is a neat, clean town,

beautifully situated on a bay, with an extensive amphitheatre of rocky hills in the back ground, and carries on some trade in timber.^h *Halmstad*,ⁱ situated, like *Gottenburg*, on the borders of the Cattegat,^k would be a place of importance, were not its harbour choked with sand and pebbles. *Lund*, near the hill of Lybers, on which the ancient Goths elected their kings, possesses a university. *Malmö*,^l the principal town in Scania, is peopled by Germans and Swedes; it possesses some fine houses occupied by merchants, and one of its two churches, dedicated to St. Peter, is large and magnificent. There is, in that church, a superb monument erected to the merchant Tullström, who bequeathed one half of his property for the building of an organ, and the other for the support of several benevolent institutions. *Christianstad*, a handsome town, and the capital of a prefecture, at the bottom of a gulf in the Baltic,^m is regularly fortified, but its trade is inconsiderable. It was founded in 1614 by Christian IV. king of Denmark. Its church is very neat: a part of it was built by the subscriptions of the inhabitants, who, having learnt with joy, in 1814, that Norway and Sweden were united, caused to be engraved upon the church the arms and names of the different members of the royal family, namely, Charles XIII., Charles John,ⁿ Francis Oscar,^o and Eugenia Bernardine.^p *Carlsrona*^q is the principal station of the Swedish navy. Its harbour is capable of holding more than one hundred ships of war. For its defence a strong fortress has been recently constructed,^r and with the view of forming sailors, a school for ship-boys has been founded. The town is well built, but, with the exception of those in the neighbourhood of the admiralty,^s almost all its streets are deserted. The old basin or dock is deserving of notice, being dug out of the rock:^t it is eighty feet in depth, and two hundred in breadth;^u it is easily rendered dry, when necessary to repair vessels. The new dock,^x constructed in the same way, is not inferior to the preceding; it is in part covered with a roofing of copper. The arsenal, no less remarkable, contains models of ships of all classes and of all nations: in the armoury is preserved a variety of armour used by the ancient Goths; the sabres of these ancestors of the Swedes are not less than four inches in breadth. The church of the admiralty, which is built of wood, is not the finest in the city; it is, however, very large, being capable of containing five thousand persons.

^a Linköping (Ed. Enc.) Linköping (Morse.) Lincoping, Lindköping (Vosgien.)—P.

^b "Gymnasium."

^c Jonköping (Morse.) Jonköping, Jenköping (Vosgien.)—P.

^d Gottenburg or Gotheborg (Ed. Enc.) Gotheborg or Gothenburg (Pinkerton.) Gothenburg (Tuckey.)—Swed. *Gatheborg*.—P.

^e See note ^p p. 1047. ^f 24,000. (Stat. Tab.)

^g "*Gatborg*, situated on the *Gata-Elf*, at its entrance into the Cattegat, is, next to Stockholm, the most commercial city in Sweden; it is also one of the most important from its population." This is all the account of *Gottenburg* in the original.—P.

^h This account of *Uddevalla* is added by the translator.—P.

ⁱ Halmstadt (Trans.) Halmstadt (Conway.) Halmstad (Tuckey. Pinkerton. Morse.)—*Stad*, city or town, in Swedish.—P.

^k *Halmstad* is situated on the Cattegat, at the mouth of the Nissa.—P.

^l *Malmö* (Tuckey.) *Malmö* (Pinkerton. Morse.) *Malmö* (Trans. Vosgien.)—Situated on the Sound, nearly opposite Copenhagen.—P.

^m It is situated on the Helge, which empties itself into a gulf that separates the provinces of Schonen and Blekingen. (Tuckey. vol. i. p. 263.)—P.

ⁿ Bernadotte—the present king.

^o Joseph Francis Oscar, prince royal.

^p "Eugénie Bernardine Désirée"—the present queen.

^q Swed. *Carlsrona*, or *Karlskrona*, (Charles' crown.)—Carlsroon, Carelsroon (Vosgien.)—P.

^r The entrance to the harbour is defended by two strong forts, on islands, whose fires cross. (Tuckey, vol. i. p. 269.)—Ships of war can only enter the harbour between the islands of Aspø and Turkø, and these are furnished with batteries which completely command the passage. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^s "—in the quarter of the admiralty."

^t "In the quarter of the admiralty, is the old basin or dock (*Docke*)," dug out of the rock."

^u Swed. *docka*, a dock for ships. (Widegren.)—P.

^x "On the island of Lindholm is a dock for four sail of the line, excavated in the rock 80 feet deep. Besides this dock, Gustavus III. commenced an immense basin, which is still unfinished. (Tuckey, vol. i. p. 269.)—The new docks consist of a basin divided into four divisions from the centre to the circumference, each division having separate receptacles for five vessels. They were begun in 1757, during the reign of Adolphus Frederick, but the work was soon neglected; it was afterwards warmly patronised by Gustavus III. and again allowed to languish; so that only one of the four divisions has been executed, and that not fully completed. (Ed. Enc. 1814.)—P.

^y "Basin."—See note ^u.

On the coast of the strait formed by the Isle of Öland and the main land,^a stands *Calmar*, regularly built, although the greater part of its houses are of wood. Its finest edifice is the cathedral, erected in the centre of a large square, and whose lofty arched roof is supported without pillars. Its old castle, situated in the suburbs,^b was formerly esteemed one of the keys of the kingdom; it is celebrated in the history of Sweden for the Congress of July 20th, 1397, in which the fatal act of union was agreed to, which placed Sweden and Norway under the power of the Crown of Denmark. The hall where this congress assembled serves as a reserve store-house; and the rest of the building has been transformed into a house of correction and industry. Opposite this building floats the flag of the united kingdom of Sweden and Norway, announcing the happiness of two friendly nations, and the wisdom of a prince, who has accomplished a union better compacted than that of Calmar. Calmar has several tanneries and cloth manufactories, but it formerly possessed a trade much more considerable than at present: its harbour, small but secure, is sheltered on the south by Cape Stensöe, where Gustavus Vasa landed in 1520, to deliver his country from a tyrannical yoke. Louis XVIII., during his exile, fixed himself some time at Calmar, where his misfortunes and his affability gained him all hearts. A worthy admirer of the virtues that distinguished the Swedish hero, he caused a stone, bearing an inscription written by himself, to be erected to the memory of Gustavus on Cape Stensöe.^c

The Island of Gothland, which of itself forms a department, has for its capital Wisby, the only town in the island, the whole manufacturing industry of which consists in its marble-works, and the whole trade by sea in a few small vessels. Many antiquities found in its environs, and in other parts of the island, give room to believe that it was inhabited by those warlike Goths, who made themselves masters of the finest provinces of the Roman empire, and who, also inhabiting Gothland proper,^d or Southern Sweden, sent out those armed colonies, which founded several kingdoms in the south of Europe.^e

The philosopher of Geneva has said, that we ought to visit the south in summer and the north in winter. The capital of Sweden presents, during the latter season, a scene of activity difficult to describe: we have already seen, that the commencement of frost is the signal for the inhabitants of the interior of the Scandinavian Peninsula immediately to resort to the cities. The society of Stockholm, at all times animated by the most cordial politeness, and the most unaffected cheerfulness, but in general not numerous, becomes so when the long frosts have recovered their empire. Entertainments and pleasure-parties succeed each other day after day; the borders of Lake Mælar are covered with sledges, which in circuitous courses wander in long files over the frozen

waters, or the snow that whitens the fields; military music attends these joyous companies, which, after dinner, return to the city by torch light. In the evening, crowds repair to the theatre, to witness the representation of some national drama. On the first of May, a stranger sees with astonishment the promenades around the capital covered with a triple row of brilliant equipages, which remind one of the splendid retinues that, during the three last days of Passion-week, frequent the road from Longchamp to Paris. During the summer, a select society assembles at the waters of *Ramlosa* in Scania, and at those of *Medevi* in East Gothland, or the attraction of a military spectacle, a powerful one to a people naturally warlike, draws the curious to the camps where the national troops are exercised. These meetings do not resemble any of those that take place in our climates: an eye-witness of these festivals tells us, that dinners under tents and balls in the open air succeed the military evolutions; the sound of the violin mixes itself with the rolling of the drum; valour and beauty there divide empire.

The Scandinavian-Peninsula, much more enlightened than France, surpasses in information not only Prussia but the British isles: in Norway, the system of mutual instruction is spread over the remotest parts of the country; saving-banks are established in every province; granaries for the surplus grain are to be found in different places; and an improved prison discipline has brought back to honourable sentiments, those unfortunate beings who would otherwise have been hardened in crime. In Sweden every peasant can read, all know their rights, all join to a reasonable attachment to their religion, an attachment no less ardent to a form of government, which has for centuries protected their liberty. There is thus little depravity of manners, especially out of cities, and no need for those restraining measures, which, under the guise of securing tranquillity, are too often made use of to render legitimate the abuse of force, when we ought only to have in view the maintenance of order and justice. The security of the roads is not intrusted to gendarmes: that military police is in Sweden unknown, because it is there useless: at intervals we meet with peace-officers, to whom the inhabitants lend their aid when necessary. The recruiting of the army is done by publishing in the churches the names of those who ought to make part of the militia, and this simple appeal is enough to lead the youth to complete the number wanted.^f The taxes are levied in the same way, by announcing from the pulpit the quota of each citizen: these burdens, which press equally upon all, do not amount to more than five per cent. on income indirect taxes are unknown. The Swedish navy occupies the third rank in Europe; it draws its recruits from the merchant service, and, although not considerable, because government is not sufficiently rich to increase the materiel, yet, to give an idea of its merit, it is suffi-

^a Straits of Calmar, Calmar Sound.

^b "—in the suburb."—On an eminence behind the old town, stands the castle. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c Besides the towns above mentioned, those of *Norrköping** and *Söderköping*,† the former on the river Motala, the outlet of Lake Wetter, and the latter on the south shore of the gulf of Slætbacken, at

* Swed. *Norrköping* (north town.)—Norköping. (Caucas.) Norköping, Nordköping, Nordkiöping. (Morse.)—P.

† Swed. *Söderköping* (south town.)—Soderköping. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

the point where the canal across Sweden meets the Baltic, are places of considerable commerce.—P. ^d "Gothia."

^e Wisby is celebrated in the history of commerce, for a maritime code, compiled by its merchants and burgesses in the 12th century, called the laws of Wisby. (Azuni's Maritime Law. vol. i. p. 381—5. Eng. Trans.)—P.

^f Medewi [Medevi.] (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

^g Men from twenty to twenty-five years of age are obliged to serve. They form five classes.

cient to say, that in battle a Swedish ship of equal force has the advantage over a Russian.

The laws are wise, clear, and precise. With the exception of some modifications adopted under Gustavus III. (who abolished the torture) and under the successors of that prince, the code in use is that which was drawn up in the early part of the eighteenth century, during the reign of Frederic I. The punishment of death is not abolished, but the application of it is rare, because there are fewer murders committed in Sweden than elsewhere, and also because this punishment is not pronounced except when the accused makes confession of his crime. In civil cases, the two parties bear each their proportion of the expense: he who loses is never condemned to pay the costs. A new code of laws is about to be discussed by the Diet.^a

The constitution established during the reign of Gustavus III., in consequence of the revolution which baffled the plans of the senate and nobility, serves as the basis of the Swedish government. The monarchical power is hereditary, but females are excluded. The king of Sweden is perhaps, of all the constitutional monarchs in Europe, the one whose power is most limited. He does not attain majority till twenty-one; from his eighteenth year to that age, he may sit in the different councils, but he has no deliberative voice; if he place himself at the head of the armies, or if he quit the kingdom from any other motive, he must confide the administration to a regency, composed of four members of the council of state and of the minister of justice. If his absence lasts more than a year, or if any indisposition prevents him during the same space of time from attending to public affairs, the Council of State convokes the Diet (*Ständerne*)^b or States General, which must adopt some measure for the security of the country. Until this is done, the foreign ambassadors cannot approach within twenty-four leagues of the place where the States are assembled. The Senate or Court of Peers is composed of twenty-two members. Twelve counsellors of the crown form a council corresponding to the Council of State in France;^c it gives its advice, and the king decides. The king appoints to all offices and employments, and has the right of conferring pardons, but he cannot make any new laws, or interpret old ones, levy taxes, or declare war, without the consent of the states, which he alone has the power of convoking. No judgment can be given by a warrant. The law guarantees the rights and property of the citizens. The liberty of the press is among the number of fundamental laws, which cannot be modified without the participation of both monarch and states. The States have under their management the public debt and the national

bank. They are composed of four orders, namely, the nobility, in which order each family has its representative;^d the clergy, represented by the bishops, as well as by pastors chosen in each chapter;^e the burgesses, whose deputies are chosen by the principal towns in the kingdom;^f and the peasantry,^g who choose their own representatives in their assemblies. Each deputy must be 25 years complete, must belong to one of these orders, and profess the protestant religion. The deputies of the nobility are the most numerous, an inconvenience modified by an important regulation, which does not admit of voting individually, but by orders. The States assemble usually every five years, unless in case of extraordinary circumstances. The kingdom of Norway participates in the advantages presented by this constitution, which in time the progress of intelligence will doubtless improve, but it has only one legislative chamber (*Storting*),^h whose members enjoy no distinction one above another.

Industry is but little developed in Sweden, and still less in Norway. There are reckoned in Sweden only 7000 manufacturers of all kinds, and 3000 traders.ⁱ The government has for several years made the greatest efforts to encourage the manufacture of steel and of cloth, of glass and of china,^k but the amount of these is far from supplying the consumption of the country, an unanswerable argument against the partisans of the prohibitory system. It would be more advantageous for Sweden to abandon several branches of manufacture, which are only supported by a system of severe custom-house regulations, and to give fuller scope to the working of her mines of iron, copper and cobalt; to her trade in timber, which may be regarded as a source of inexhaustible wealth, if the reproduction of the forests is attended to; to the manufacture of mathematical and philosophical instruments, for which Stockholm enjoys some celebrity; to her tanneries, and the manufacture of gloves, a branch of industry in which the Swedes have few rivals; to her founderies, which procure for her so great advantages; to her cordage manufacture, in which the town of Fahlun excels; to the making of vases and other ornamental articles in porphyry, which occupies a part of the population of *Elfvédal*,^l in the prefecture of Stora Kopparberg;^m to the productive fishery of the cod and the herring; and lastly, to the building of ships, so much in request by foreigners. The extension of these different branches of industry would present to her the means of augmenting her trade, already so important, and would procure her a multitude of articles which she cannot fabricate at the same price with other nations. By this means she might renounce the prohibition of wine, tea, rum, and other commodities

^a "At the next session." (M. B. 1829.)

^b Swed. *stand*, rank, class, order—plur. *ständer*, states, estates—*Ständerne*, the States—*Rikens Ständerne*, the States of the Kingdom.—P.

^c *Sveriges och Norriges Calendar för året 1829* (Almanack of Sweden and Norway for 1829.)

^d There are reckoned to be in Sweden 1300 noble families: the eldest of each family sits in the diet, under the name of *caput familie* [Swed. *familiens hufvud*.] The nobility is divided into three classes, viz. that of counts and barons, that of knights [*riddarer*] or ancient gentlemen, without titles, and that of esquires [*srenner*], comprehending all untitled gentlemen who have obtained letters of nobility since the reign of Charles XI. (Catteau.)—The diet of 1786 consisted of 48 counts, 136 barons, 188 knights, and 396 gentlemen [*srenner*], besides 51 ecclesiastics, 94 burgesses, and 165 deputies of the order of peasants. (Pinkerton.)—P.

^e The fourteen prelates of the kingdom, namely, the archbishop of Upsal and the thirteen bishops, are *ex officio* members of the diet, and each archdeaconry deposes one or two representatives. (Catteau.)—P.

^f The citizens are represented by the deputies of cities. Stockholm has ten; cities of the second class have two or three, and the rest send only one. Sometimes, for the sake of economy, two small cities are represented by the same person. (Catteau.)—P.

^g "The order of peasants."—Farmers who cultivate lands belonging to them and their descendants, as long as they fulfil their engagements with the crown, constitute in the diet, the order of peasants. Each balliwick appoints a deputy, and defrays his expenses. (Catteau.)—P.

^h "*Storting*."—See note ^a p. 1039, and note ³ p. 1045.—P.

ⁱ "7000 manufactories (*fabriques*)—and 3000 merchants (*negocians*)."—

^k "Fatenca."

^l Elftal or Elfvédal (Ed. Enc.)

^m The former province of Dalecarlia.

foreign to her climate, a prohibition which has no other advantage than to keep up bands of smugglers; by this means she might also find, in her more extended relations, the means of increasing the productions of a soil, in which agriculture is perhaps more advanced than in any other agricultural country, and which even exports corn; and by this means, too, she might increase the advantages which she derives from transporting in her vessels, to different ports of Europe, as well as to her own, the merchandise of foreign nations.^a But the Swedish nation may expect every thing from the future; the accomplishment of her wishes has nothing to fear from Gothic prejudices; the States are unanimous in their desire to secure the public prosperity. The stubborn partisans of commercial restrictions have not been able to prevent the reduction of the duties on colonial commodities imported by the North Americans;^b freedom of trade is on the eve of being proclaimed in Sweden.

^a That is, from the carrying trade.—P.

^b "The United States."

^c "Government favors everywhere the employment of vaccination, the division of landed property, the draining of marshes, the establishment of colonies for the improvement of lands recently brought under cultivation, and also that of nurseries for the propagation of the oak, and of farms (*bergeries*) for ameliorating the breed of sheep."

^d "—have just been adopted" (1829.)

^e In Norway the conscription has been several years established; the duration of military service is from five to seven years.

VOL. III.—NO. 54 48

The government favours everywhere the use of vaccination, the division of lands, the draining of marshes, the establishment of colonies to render useful the lands newly brought under culture, the cultivation of the oak, and the ameliorating the quality of wool.^c Canals and roads are multiplying; measures are adopting^d to render more equal, and consequently more supportable, the burden of military service;^e the organization of the communes and departments is undergoing the changes desired by the people;^f the lands are almost all of them registered;^g steam-vessels establish frequent communications between the maritime towns;^h lastly, the increase of population since 1821 has been such, that in 61 years it will be doubledⁱ—an evident proof of general prosperity. We may then say with confidence, that the people of Sweden and Norway enjoy, under the protection of a government strictly constitutional, a happiness guaranteed by the present generation to posterity.

^f Statement of the general administration of the kingdom, made at the palace of Stockholm, Nov. 15th, 1823. (Bulletin des Sciences de Février 1829.)

^g "enrolled and valued in the public land register [*terrier*] (*cadastres*)"

^h Report made by the minister of the interior to the last legislative assembly of Norway.

ⁱ Report of the Royal Commission of Statistics, made to the king on population, &c. Stockholm, 1823. (Bulletin des Sciences de Mars 1829.)

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF

THE SWEDISH MONARCHY.

Table of the past and present Divisions, Geographical and Administrative, of the Scandinavian Peninsula.^a

KINGDOM OF SWEDEN.

SURFACE, 22,051 SQUARE LEAGUES.

Population per Square League, 127 Inhabitants.

I. SOUTHERN REGION—Gothland^b or Gothia.^c

Former Provinces.	Prefectures. ^d	Towns. ^e	Population.
Öster-Göthland or Ostrogothia ^f	Linköping	LINKÖPING†	3,000
		Norrköping	2,900
		Wadstena	1,400
		Söderköping	900
Småland or Småland ^g	Calmar	CALMAR†	4,500
		Westerwik	3,000
	Jönköping	Borgholm ^h	500?
		JÖNKÖPING†	3,000
Kronoberg	Adelfors ⁱ	500?	
	Ekeshjök ^k	1,100	
Bleking ^m	Bleking	WEXIÖ ^l	1,300
		CARLSKRONA	11,000
		Ronneby	300
Dalsland ^o and Westergöthland ^p	Elfsborg	Carlshamn ⁿ	3,400
		WENERSBERG	1,500
		Bæres ^q	2,000
		Trollhättan	500
Westergöthland or Westrogothia ^p	Skaraborg	Amal	800
		MARIESTAD	1,100
		Lidköping	1,500
	Göteborg or Göttenburg, ^s and Bohus ^t	Skara	1,000
		GOTTENBURG	24,000
		Marstrand	1,200
		Uddevalla	4,000
		Strömstad	1,000

Former Provinces	Prefectures.	Towns.	Population.
Halland	Halmstad	HALMSTAD	1,500
		Warberg	1,300
		Laholm ^u	900
Scaane or Scania ^x	Christianstad	CHRISTIANSTAD	3,000
		Engelholm	500
		Cimbrishamn	700
	Malmöhus ^y	MALMÖE	6,000
		Ystad	2,600
		Lund	3,200
Gothland ^{bb} (Island of)	Gothland ^{bb}	Landskrona ^z	3,800
		Helsingborg ^{aa}	4,000
		WISBY	3,800

II. CENTRAL REGION—Svealand^{cc} or Sweden.

Upland	Upsala	UPSALA†	4,500
		Løfsta ^{dd}	1,500
		Elskalerby ^{ee}	600?
		Söderfors	500?
Upland and Södermanland	Stockholm	Dannebora	400
		STOCKHOLM	79,000
Södermanland or Sudermania ^{hh}	Nyköping	Drottningholm	3,500
		Norrtegel ^{ff}	800
		Södertelje	500
		Vexholm ^{gg}	500
Westmanland or Westmania	Westeras ^{kk}	NYKÖPING	2,300
		Strengnæs ⁱⁱ	1,100
		Eskilstuna	1,500
Westmanland and Nerike or Nericia	Erebro	WESTERAS†	3,000
		Sala	2,000
		Arboga	1,500
Wermeland ^{mm}	Carlstad	Köping ^{ll}	1,200
		ÆREBRO	3,000
		Nora	800
		Askersund	800
		CARLSTAD†	2,200
		Christineham ⁿⁿ	2,000

^a M. Ad. Balbi calls it the *Norwegian-Swedish* monarchy; * but he proposes the name of *Svedo-Norwegian*,† as softer in pronunciation.

^b "Monarchie *Norwégieno-Suédoise*." † "Suedo-Norwégienne."

^c "Göthland" (Swed.)—See note ⁱ p. 1047.

^d *M. Hagelstam*, a learned Swedish geographer, divides the kingdom into three great regions; and these again are subdivided into twenty-four *laen* or prefectures, which have been substituted for the former division into provinces.

^e Swed. *lan*, a government or district.

^f Governments. (Catteau.)

^g The bishoprics and archbishoprics are pointed out by the marks † and ‡.^{*}

^h There is only one archbishopric in Sweden, that of Upsal. The number of bishops in Sweden, in 1790, was thirteen (Catteau)—in 1825, eleven (Ed. Enc.) Only seven are marked in the Table.—P.

ⁱ See note ^c p. 1049.

^j "Småland."—Generally written Smaland, in English authors—Smoland (Catteau, Tuckey).—Swed. *Småland*.—P.

^k In the Isle of Öland.

^l Adelfors (Catteau.) ^k Ekeshjök (Vosgien.)

^m Vexjö (Catteau)—the Swedish orthography.—P.

ⁿ Blekingen (Tuckey, Catteau, &c.)—with the article *en* suffixed.—P.

^o Swed. *hamn*, haven.—P. ^q Lat. *Dalia*.

^p See note ^h p. 1047. ^r Borohs (Vosgien.)

^t Bahus (Vosgien.)

^u Laholm or Lageholm—on the river Laga.—P.

^x Lat. *Scania* or *Scandia*.—Fr. *Scanie*.—Germ. *Schonen*.—Du. *Schoonen*.—Swed. *Skone* or *Skåne* (*Skonen* or *Skånen*, with the article.)—Dan. *Skaane* (*Skaunen*, with the article.)—P.

^y Malmöhus-Lan (Swed. *Malmahus-Lan*) or Government of Malmöhus (Morse).—P.

^z Landserona, Landseroon or Landskroon.

^{aa} Helsingborg, Helsingburg.

^{bb} "Gottland."—See note ⁱ p. 1048.

^{cc} Swed. *Seea* or *Sverige*, Sweden; *Seea Rike*, the kingdom of Sweden; *Seear*, the Swedes.—P.

^{dd} Lofsta or Hammerwerke (Morse.) Løfstad (Catteau.)

^{ee} Elfkarleby (Rees' Cyc.) ^{ff} Norr-Telje (Tuckey.)

^{gg} Waxholm (Morse).—Swed. *Vaxholm*.—P.

^{hh} Sodermanland, Sudermanland—Swed. *Södermanland*, Lat. *Sudermania*.—P.

ⁱⁱ Swed. *Strängnäs*.—Strengnes (Vosgien.) Strengnas or Strengnes (Morse).—P.

^{kk} "Vesteras"—Swed. *Vesterås*, Lat. *Arosia*.—Westeras (Hubner) Westeros (Catteau).—P.

^{ll} Köping (Vosgien.)

^{mm} "Verneland"—Wermeland, Wermland, Warmeland, Warmland.—P.

ⁿⁿ Christianaham (Morse).—Swed. *Christinahamn* (Christina's haven).—P.

Former Provinces.	Prefectures.	Towns.	Population.
Dalarn or Dalecarlia	Stora-Kopparberg ^a	FALUN	4,700
		Hedemora	800
		Avesta ^b	700
Gestrikland or Gestricia, ^c and Helsingland or Helsingia	Gefleborg	GEFLE ^d	6,000
		Søderhamm ^d	1,400
		Huddikswall ^e	1,500
III. NORTHERN REGION—Norrland ^f or the country of the North.			
Wester-Botten or Western Bothnia, ^g and Lappmark or Lapland ^h	Norr-Botten or Northern Bothnia	PITEA	800
		Lulea	1,000
		Gellivara	1,100
Lappmark or Lapland ^h	Wester-Botten or Western Bothnia	UMEA	1,100
Medelpad and Angermanland or Angermania	Wester-Norrland ⁱ	HERNÆSAND ^j	1,800
		Sundswall	1,600
Jemtland ^j or Jemtia and Herje Edalen ^k	Jemtland	ESTERSUND ^l	200
		Ijusnedal	150

KINGDOM OF NORWAY.^m

SURFACE, 16,668 SQUARE LEAGUES.

Population per Square League, 63 Inhabitants.

IV. SOUTHERN REGION—Søndenfjeld, or to the south of the mountains.ⁿ

Dioceses.	Districts.	Towns.	Population.	
Aggershuus ^o	Aggershuus ^o	CHRISTIANIA ^p	20,600	
		Drøbak ^q	1,400	
		Moss	1,400	
	Smaalehnen ^r		Friderikshald ^s	4,000
			Friderikstad ^t	2,300
	Hedemarken	Christian ^u	Hoff	—?
			Kongsvinger	400
			Elverum	3,000
			Lesøe	—?
			Biri	—?
Kongsberg			7,000	
Modum			4,500	
Drammen			6,000	
Eger			2,000	
County of Jalsberg			Tonsberg ^x	1,500
County of Laurvig ^y	Laurvig ^y	1,800		
	Frideriksværn ^z	600		
Christiansand	Bradsberg	Skeen	1,800	
		Porsgrund	1,500	
		Ndenæs ^{aa}	1,700	
		Mandal	CHRISTIANSAND	4,900
		Mandal	Mandal	1,600
Stavanger	Stavanger	2,400		

^a Great Copper Mountain—so called from the copper mine at Falun.—P.
^b Avestad (Morse.)
^c Gestrikland (Swed. *Gæstrikland*.) Lat. *Gestricia*.—P.
^d Søderham (Morse.) Søderham or Søderhafen (Vosgien.) Swed. *Søderhamn* (South-haven).—P.
^e Hudwikswall (Tuckey.) Hudwikswall or Hudikswall (Morse.) Swed. *Hudvikswall*.—P.
^f Dan. *Nordland*, Swed. *Norrland*—North-land—Northern country.—P.
^g See note ^b p. 1047.
^h "Laponie"—Lat. *Laponia*.
ⁱ West Norrland—called also the government of Hernæsand.—P.
^j Swed. *Jemtland*, or *Jemtland-jæmn*, neut. *jæmt*, even, level, and land, country.—P.
^k Lat. *Herjedalia* (Catteau).—Herjedalen (Morse)—Herjedal, without the article.—Herjedal (Ed. Enc.)—Herjedalen (Pinkerton).—Swed. *Herjedalen* (the dale or valley of the river (Swed. *å*) Herje).—P.
^l Ostersund (Morse.)
^m Norway is divided into three physical regions, and also into four dioceses, composed of sixteen districts or bailiwicks and two counties.
ⁿ A third branch [of the Norwegian mountains,] called Langfieldt [Langfield,] proceeds westward and then southward towards the Naze, dividing Norway into two principal regions, Sondenfields and Nordenfields. (Ed. Enc.)—*Sandenfields* and *Nordenfields* would be literally in Danish, the south and the north of the mountain. The chain dividing Norway into these two regions, includes the Dovrefield and the Langfield; it first proceeds west between Aggershuus and Drontheim, and then south between the former and Bergen.—P.
^o Aggerhuus (Ed. Enc.)

II. CENTRAL REGION—Nordenfjeld, or to the north of the mountains

Dioceses.	Districts.	Towns.	Population
Bergen	Søndre Bergenhuus ^{bb}	BERGEN	20,800
		Rosendahl (barony)	—
		Indvig	3,900
Bergen	Nordre Bergenhuus ^{cc}	Viig	—?
		Leganger	3,200
Drontheim	Søndre Drontheim ^{dd}	DRONTHEIM	9,000
		Røraas ^{ee}	3,000
	Nordre Drontheim ^{dd}	Levanger	300
		Størdalen ^{ff}	—?
		Skogn	—?
Romsdal	CHRISTIANSUND	CHRISTIANSUND	1,600
		Molde	800

III. NORTHERN REGION—Nordland or the country of the north.^{gg}

Drontheim	Nordland	BODØE	300	
		Alstahang ^{hh}	—?	
		Islands of West Vaagen and East Vaagen ⁱⁱ	4,000	
		Island of Langøen	—?	
		Island of Hindøen	—?	
	Finmark	TROMSØE	TROMSØE	800 ^{kk}
			Altengaard	2,000
			Hammerfest	—?
			Wardøehuus ^{ll}	—?
			Island of Senjen	—?
	Sorøe	—?		
	Magerøe	—?		

COLONIES OF THE SWEDO-NORWEGIAN MONARCHY.

Archipelago of the Antilles.—Island of St. Bartholomew 16,000

State of the Population according to the last Census.

Sweden	Nobles	20,500	2,800,000
	Ecclesiastics	14,000	
	Burgesses (not including civil functionaries)	57,330	
	Peasantry	2,636,540	
	Civil Functionaries	9,270	
Army and Navy	Officers	2,200	42,360 ^{mm}
	Soldiers and Scamen	40,160	
Total population in 1826		2,800,000	
Total population in 1815, according to M. Hagelstam ⁿⁿ		2,465,000	
Increase from 1815 to 1826		335,000	

^p We do not mark the capital of each district, because neither the travels of Von Schubert, nor the map of Mr. Hagelstam, nor the royal almanack of Sweden point them out. ^q Drøbak (Tuckey.)
^r Dan. *Smaa-lehn-en* (the small fief or district.) See note ^c p. 1058.—P.
^s See note ^p p. 1045. ^t See note ^c p. 1045.
^u Christianslehn.—P. ^x Tønsberg (Tuckey.)
^y Laurvig (Tuckey.) Larwigen (Morse).—Dan. *vig* or *vig*, Swed. *vik*, a creek or small bay.—P.
^z Stavørn or Fredericks-værn (Tuckey).—Dan. *Frederiksværn*.—P.
^{aa} Nedenæs (Conway.) See note ^u p. 1046.
^{bb} Southern Bergenhuus.—Bergenhuus (Lat. *Praefectura Bergensia* government of Bergen)—literally, Bergen-house.—P.
^{cc} Northern Bergenhuus.—P.
^{dd} Northern and Southern Drontheim.—P.
^{ee} See note ⁱ p. 1042. ^{ff} Størdalshalsen (Tuckey.)
^{gg} See note ^f. ^{hh} "Alstahang."
ⁱⁱ "West Vaagen and Ost-Vaagen"—Dan. *Vest-Vaagaen—Ost-Vaagaen* (East and West Vaage Islands).—P.
^{kk} "200."—Population 150. (Tuckey.) See p. 1044.—P.
^{ll} Wardhus, Wardhuys.—Dan. *Wardøehuus*.—P.
^{mm} The translator has made this sum 62,360, and that of the soldiers and seamen 60,160. I have followed the original, which is supported by the statement of the amount of the army and navy in 1827, p. 1060.—This alteration was probably made by the translator, in order to make up the full sum of 2,800,000; the sum of the items included being only 2,780,000. There is a similar discrepancy in the total amount of the population of the two kingdoms.—P.
ⁿⁿ Raiser durch das westliche Schweden, Norwegen und Finland, von F. W. von Schubert.

Brought forward		2,800,000						
Norway	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>{ Inhabitants of the Towns</td> <td>105,000</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ ————— of the Frontiers</td> <td>10,600</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ ————— of the Country</td> <td>934,400</td> </tr> </table>	{ Inhabitants of the Towns	105,000	{ ————— of the Frontiers	10,600	{ ————— of the Country	934,400	1,050,000
{ Inhabitants of the Towns	105,000							
{ ————— of the Frontiers	10,600							
{ ————— of the Country	934,400							
Total population in 1826		1,050,000						
Total population in 1815 ^a		886,400						
Increase from 1815 to 1826		163,600						
Total population of the two kingdoms		3,866,000						

Table of Births in Sweden.

Years.	Legitimate.			Illegitimate.			Sum total.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
1821	43,933	41,863	85,806	3,213	3,043	6,266	92,072
1822	44,647	42,737	87,384	3,595	3,330	6,925	94,309
1823	46,639	44,440	91,079	3,543	3,632	7,180	98,259
1824	44,477	42,606	87,083	3,316	3,178	6,494	93,577
1825	47,751	45,863	93,614	3,344	3,357	6,701	100,315
Total	227,452	217,514	444,966	17,021	16,545	33,566	478,532
Average for these 5 y'rs.	45,490	43,503	88,993	3,404	3,309	6,713	95,706
Average for the 5 preceding years, viz. from 1816 to 1820, inclusive	40,631	38,724	79,355	2,997	2,893	5,895	85,253
Annual increase of births during the 5 last years	4,856	4,779	9,635	407	411	818	10,453 ^b

Table of Mortality in Sweden.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
1821	33,466	32,950	66,416
1822	30,500	28,890	59,390
1823	28,802	27,265	56,067
1824	29,071	27,185	56,256
1825	29,180	27,285	56,465
Total	151,019	143,575	294,594
Children under one year	8,316	6,887	15,203

In the above five years there were reckoned among the deaths—

1. Children still-born 12,623
2. Children stifled in bed by their mothers or nurses 388
3. Children murdered 12
4. Adults do. 35
5. Persons drowned 1,126
6. Suicides 151
7. Deaths from drunkenness 36
8. Killed by lightning 6
9. Condemned to death and executed 7

Tables of Marriages in Sweden.

	Between unmarried persons.	Between widowers and unmarried persons.	Total.
1821	17,708	5,182	22,890
1822	19,026	5,405	24,431
1823	19,017	4,976	23,993
1824	18,971	4,936	23,907
1825	19,097	4,543	23,640
Total	93,819	25,042	118,861

^a See work last cited.

^b The illegitimate births during the last five years are to the total births as 1 to 13.3 nearly.* During the five preceding years they were as 1 to 14.5.

* More exactly, as 1 to 13.256.—P.

Classification of Families in Sweden, according to the Number of Individuals composing them. End of 1825.

Of 2 individuals	77,334
Of 3 to 5	244,641
Of 6 to 10	181,361
Of 10 to 15	16,076
Above 15	2,643
Total of families	522,055

Pauperism in Sweden. End of 1825.

Poor residing in private families	9,664
— receiving aid at home	8,991
— in alms-houses	2,033
— in hospitals	528
Total	21,216

Prisoners in both Kingdoms in 1827.

In Sweden, about	1,838
In Norway	862
	} 2,700

Average of Trade in Sweden.

1050 manufactories, employing 7,200 workmen, produce annually	} 6,840,000 rixd. or 15,390,000 fr.
The exports in iron and other metals, and also in corn, may be estimated at about	
Imports of all kinds	} 12,188,000 rixd. or 27,423,000 fr.
	} 14,294,000 rixd. or 32,161,500 fr.

Statement of the different Professions in 1827.

	In Sweden.	In Norway
Clergymen	3,193	415
Other individuals belonging to the church	3,753	
Professors and teachers	763	47
Public functionaries	4,375	304
Physicians and surgeons	391	118
Architects	11	
Persons holding offices connected with the saltpetre works	300	
Do. domains of the crown	1,180	460
Do. customs, &c. ^d	1,326	313
Do. mines, forests, &c. ^e	474	37
Do. police	273	103
Bridges and roads	483	15
Land and sea officers	1,872	798
Subalterns	2,511	1,153
Cadets (at the Academy of Carlsberg)	130	70
Soldiers and seamen	43,113	12,533
Musicians and drummers	711	417
Pilots and lighthouse keepers	779	1,613

Navy of Sweden and Norway.

VESSELS OF WAR.			
Ships of the line.	Frigates.	Inferior vessels.	Total.
12	13	60	85

Finances of the two Kingdoms.

Revenue in fr. 42,000,000.	Debt in fr. 200,000,000.
----------------------------	--------------------------

^c "Veufs"—married persons of either sex?—P.

^d "Customs and octrois (interior customs or tolls)."

^e "Mines, chases (chasses) and forests."

BOOK CXLIX.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Description of Denmark and of the Færoe Isles.^a

WHAT sublime recollections are connected with the history of the small Peninsula, which, bathed on the west by the north sea, on the east by the strait of the Cattegat, and on the north by that of the Skager-Rack, and flanked on the east by large islands, and on the west by a small archipelago, is interposed between Sweden and Norway! The cradle of the formidable *Cimbri*, the ancients called it the Cimbric Chersonese (*Chersonesus Cimbrica*.) From this country there issued, about 100 years before our era,^b those tribes which, joined by several others inhabiting the borders of the Baltic, ravaged Gaul and Helvetia, made Italy tremble, several times defeated the Romans, and were at last themselves defeated by Marius. The same people, under the name of Jutes and Angles,^c some centuries afterwards,^d invaded England, and, being hardy navigators, contributed to swell that swarm of pirates from Norway and Sweden, which, confounded during the middle ages under the name of Normans, were the terror of the rest of Europe for a period of several centuries.^e

Jutland, which comprehends the whole peninsula, inhabited by the Jutes, whose name it bears; the dutchy of *Sleswick*, an isthmus, which, with *Holstein* and the dutchy of *Lauenburg*, adjoining to it, was peopled by the Angles; and the islands of *Funen*, *Zealand* and *Laaland*, together with several others of less importance, form the kingdom of Denmark, and present an outline of more than 1500 leagues of coast.

At the sight of these countries, which are separated by several straits, dangerous from their shoals as well as from their inconsiderable breadth, such as the Sound, and the Great and Little Belt, one is tempted to broach a question that has been more than once agitated, and the solution of which divides in opinion several literary men, who, inhabiting the borders of the Baltic, are favourably situated for verifying known facts and making new observations.—Is it a fact that the level of this sea is subsiding? Olof Dalin says, that on the coast of Sweden, it annually loses half an inch; Andreas Celsius

has calculated that its diminution is four inches five lines every hundred years; Pontoppidan has made the same observation on the coast of Denmark;^f Bergman regarded this fact as incontestable. After a careful examination, we have arrived at the conclusion, that this diminution is very unequal; that in the Gulf of Bothnia, it may be estimated at four feet in a century, while it is only two feet on the coast of Calmar, and still less on that of Denmark. The inhabitants of the islets in the northern part of the Baltic, persuaded of this change of level, attribute it, not to the diminution of the waters, but to the elevation of the soil. Many geological facts prove, it is true, that the older rocks have been raised at a very remote period, by a force acting from the centre of the earth towards its surface; but it is not very probable that such elevations occur at this day.^g Besides, although it is natural to think that the accumulation of the remains of marine animals, and other causes equally slow, ought to contribute, in the course of ages, to diminish the depth of seas, yet after all, the diminution of the waters of the Baltic, a sea without either flux or reflux, may be a mere illusion. The alluvions which the larger and smaller rivers bear thither, drive back, as in other seas, its boundaries in some places; and the retiring of its waters, after having been raised by the violence of the winds, also favours the idea of its diminution. In one place, cities, formerly on the coast, are now at a distance from it; elsewhere, rocks, covered at one time by the highest waters, are now visible: these facts seem to confirm a diminution of the level,—a theory which, upon the whole, is more probable than the contrary hypothesis, in spite of the opinion of certain old observers, that the waters of the Baltic are higher than those of the Ocean.^hⁱ

Denmark is only a prolongation of the vast plains which, to the east and south, border this sea. The highest inequalities of the surface in the dutchies of *Holstein* and *Sleswick*, do not exceed 1000 feet. It is the same in the Danish islands; the mountains of *Funen*, and those in the centre of *Zealand*, being only hills. The soil, even to a very considerable depth, is

quake that occurred a few years since on the coast of Chili. Rocks that had before been submerged, were permanently elevated above the surface of the sea.—P.

^b “Here, towns, formerly situated on the coast, are now at a distance from it; there, rocks, covered by the highest waters, and at other times visible, appear to establish a change of level, so much the less probable, however, as it is false, notwithstanding the opinion of some of the earlier observers, that the waters of the Baltic are more elevated than those of the Ocean.”

ⁱ Consult the Observations of Mr. N. Brunrona on the Diminution of the Baltic Sea, accompanied with Remarks by Mr. Høllstrøm Memoirs of the Academy of Stockholm, 1823, 1824.

^a See note ^k p. 1075.

^b The *Cimbri* left their country A. C. 115, and having been joined by the *Teutones*, first entered Italy A. C. 109. The *Teutones* were defeated by Marius near Aix in Provence, A. C. 102, and the *Cimbri*, on the river Adige, A. C. 101.—P.

^c Lat. *Jute* and *Angli*.

^d The Jutes first invaded England A. D. 449, and the Angles, A. D. 547. (Pinkerton.)—P.

^e In the 9th century, these words were added to the Litany: *A furore Normannorum libera nos, O Domine*.

^f In his Geography, entitled: Danish Atlas.

^g A very obvious elevation of the soil was observed, after an earth-

composed of sand and clay, consisting merely of alluvial deposits which every where cover a chalky substratum. The clay supports the sand: in the former, which is ordinarily of a bluish colour, are found a great number of marine shells, which have in part preserved their original colours, and many of which are similar to shells now found in the sea, as if to prove to the observer, that this clay is one of the most recent formations that has been distinguished in geology. On some parts of the coast, this formation contains trunks of trees half decomposed, and not only impressions, but entire strata of plants of the family of *Aroideæ*, several individuals of which perfectly resemble the *Zostera marina*.^a The upper sand is sometimes mixed with reddish clay, and remains of plants are found there, which would seem to have been carbonized. In Northern Jutland, this diluvial sand does not appear to contain any remains of the bones of those large animals, so frequent elsewhere in similar deposits; but in several other parts of Denmark, these remains are found in the same sand. The savant who has furnished us with these remarks,^b asserts that he has never found, but in one place, those rolled blocks of granite, which are supposed to have been torn from the Norwegian mountains. Another savant^c is of opinion, that these masses of rock have been conveyed to Denmark by the ice, as is still to be seen in some countries farther to the north. What proves that this sand belongs to another period than that of the clay which it covers, is, that, even when the clay presents an irregular or undulated appearance, the sand is always in a horizontal position. In the *Vindsyssel*,^d in place of the sand there are strata of peat or turf of a great extent, which, on the borders of the sea, are covered by the sand of the downs. This peat forms a good article of fuel. The island of Funen presents the same geological organization as continental Denmark; thus, while the upper marine sediments,^e represented by the blue clay in Jutland, develop themselves in Holstein in such a manner as to present in the hilly part of that duchy, beds of stone fit for building, in the same way, chalk, clay, coarse limestone^f proper for building, and peat, may be found in Funen. In Zealand, the chalk appears to have again undergone the action of water since its first formation. The island of Bornholm, which is much nearer Sweden than Denmark, differs from the latter country and its islands; there, granite rocks sup-

^a The genus *Zostera* was arranged by Jussieu, in his *Genera Plantarum*, in the family of *Aroideæ*; it is at present arranged in the family of *Flurinales* (*Naiades*, Juss.) See Lindley's *Introd. Nat. Syst. Bot.* p. 257. Amer. Edit.—P.

^b Memoir by Dr. Pingel, on the *diluvium* and *alluvium* of Northern Jutland.

^c Geological and mineralogical observations on Northern Jutland, by Dr. Bredsdorff.

^d Wendsussel [Dan. *Vendsyssel*—*syssel*, a district]—including the north-eastern part of the peninsula [now island] north of the Lym-Fiord, and extending from the Seaw to that gulf—so called from the ancient Wends. (Hubner.)—P.

^e "Sédiments marins supérieurs"—Tertiary marine formations. The French geologists call the tertiary formations, upper sediments (*sédiments supérieurs*), or formations of upper sediment (*terrains de sédiment supérieur*), in distinction from the secondary formations, which they call lower sediments (*sédiments inférieurs*), or formations of lower sediment (*terrains de sédiment inférieur*). The tertiary deposits here referred to, viz. blue clay (London clay) and coarse limestone (*calcaire grossier*), belong to the lower tertiary marine formation; the upper tertiary marine formation consisting of marles, sands, and sandstones. Of the deposits found in Funen, the lowest or the chalk, also the substratum in Jutland, is the uppermost of the secondary formations; the clay and coarse limestone belong to the lower tertiary marine forma-

tion, (the sand above the clay in Jutland, belonging probably to the upper tertiary marine formation;) while the peat is an alluvial or rather lacustrine formation.—P.

port deposits of different periods, even including those which belong to the commencement of the chalk formation.^g After the view we have just given of the geological constitution of Denmark, it will excite no surprise to learn that it does not contain any metals in sufficient quantity to be wrought. We have already observed that the straits which divide the Danish isles, present a difficult navigation; we may also observe that shallows, rapid currents, and short and precipitous waves, concur to render the whole coast very dangerous, especially that of Jutland. The rivers of Jutland, and of the duchies of Sleswick and Holstein, are inconsiderable, but the country is compensated for this loss by the narrow arms of the sea^h which penetrate into the country to a great distance, and render more commodious the sea-ports established there. The Danes call them *Fjords*.ⁱ Some years ago, the most important was the *Lym-Fiord*,^k in the northern part of Jutland: its entrance was into the Cattegat, and it terminated at a neck of land washed by the North Sea; but this narrow isthmus could not resist the violence of the waves; in February 1825, a breach was made in it, and the Lym-Fiord, which towards the west takes the form of a large lake, in the midst of which rises the island of *Mors*,^l now open to the east and west, has transformed the northern extremity of Jutland into a long and irregular island. The opening which has been thus made is unfortunately of no commercial advantage: it is not navigable, and probably never will be so, for it would occasion an expense too considerable to finish what nature has begun. The most important of the other inlets of the sea^m are the *Ringkøbing-Fiord*ⁿ and the *Nissum-Fiord*, on the western coast of the Peninsula; the *Flensburg-Fiord*^o and the *Schley*,^p on the eastern coast of Sleswick; the *Odensee-Fiord*,^q on the north side of Funen; and lastly, the *Ise-Fiord*^r and the *Ræskilde-Fiord*,^s on the north side of Zealand. There are a great number of lakes in continental Denmark, and in its islands. Jutland contains twenty-five, Sleswick one, and Holstein three; in the island of Zealand they count at least twelve, and several are also to be seen in Funen. It is calculated that the lakes and marshes cover a one and twentieth part of the surface of Denmark, and that a seventy-eighth part is occupied by the channels of rivers; so that, without counting the bays, inlets of the

tion, (the sand above the clay in Jutland, belonging probably to the upper tertiary marine formation;) while the peat is an alluvial or rather lacustrine formation.—P.

^g "Calcaire grossier."

^h Geological Observations on Scania and the island of Bornholm, by Mr. Forchhammer.

ⁱ "Bays."—Gulfs (Tuckey).—P.

^j In Scotland, *Firths*, *Freta*. Tr. [Dan. *fjord*; Swed. *fjord*; Icelandic, *fjörðr*—Lat. *fretum*, plu. *freta*.—P.]

^k Gulf of Limfjord. (Tuckey. Ed. Enc. art. Denmark.)—Gulf of Lymfjord. (Ed. Enc. art. Jutland.)—P.

^l Isle of Mor (Tuckey)—Dan. *Morsæ* (Mor's island).—P

^m See note ^h.

ⁿ Gulf of Ringkøbing (Tuckey.)

^o Gulf of Flensburg (Tuckey.)

^p The Sley (Morse.) The Sleye (Ed. Enc.) Gulf of Sley (Enc. Meth.) Gulf of Slie (Tuckey. Vosgien.) Du. *Schleistroom* (Hubner.)—*Schley* is the German orthography.—P.

^q Gulf of Odensee (Ed. Enc.)

^r The Gulf of Isefiord, divided into two branches—On the west branch of Isefiord are Nykøbing and Holbek, and at the head of the east branch is Roskild, the ancient capital of Denmark. (Tuckey, vol. i. p. 283—4.)—P.

^s See note ^r and also note ^m p. 1070.—P

sea^a and canals, the waters form one sixteenth of the surface of the kingdom, computed at 2865 leagues, of which 2210 belong to the continent, and 655 to the islands. The three principal canals in Denmark are, that of *Odensee*, which, although of small extent, is important to the commerce of that town, from its opening a communication with the Great Belt; that of the *Steckenitz*, which by the junction of that branch of the Trave with the Delvenau, a feeder of the Elbe, connects the latter river with the Baltic;^b and the canal of *Sleswick-Holstein*, the largest of the three, which, conveying the waters of the Eider^c to the gulf of Kiel, unites the North Sea with the Baltic. Other canals are projected, with the view of forwarding the commercial relations of the kingdom.

The length of the continental provinces, from the course of the Elbe, which forms in part the southern limit of the duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, to Cape Skagen on the north, which separates the Cattegat from the strait of Skager-Rack,^d is 107 geographical leagues; their greatest breadth is 38 leagues, and their smallest breadth 11. In the widest part of the Danish Peninsula, there is no place more than 14 leagues distant from the sea; whence it happens, that, in spite of its situation, at the northern extremity of the northern temperate zone, the climate of Denmark is warmer than its latitude indicates. The abundance of its waters, and the proximity of the sea, cover the country with vapours and humid fogs; during the winter, the thermometer descends from 3 to 11 degrees, and during the summer it rises from 12 to 18 degrees;^e the winds, whose force is not arrested by any mountains, usually disperse the exhalations and mists. Under this foggy sky, spring does not adorn itself with those charms, which, in more temperate regions, announce the revival of nature: during this season, the weather is by turns humid, tempestuous, or frosty.^f Summer, almost always very variable, lasts only from June to the middle of August: to the heat of the day, the longest of which is 17 hours, succeeds the coolness of the night. Autumn is the finest of the seasons, but its duration is short: the cold weather returns in October, and the month of November passes in cold rains and in storms. Winter, subject to almost incessant snow or rain, especially in the months of January and February, rarely however sees the coasts covered with ice: the shortest day lasts about seven hours.

The constant humidity of the atmosphere favours vegetation in Denmark, but the violence of the tempests opposes the growth of forest-trees; a wind from the north-west, called *skai*, whose pernicious breath is especially felt in May and June, withers the tops of the trees, whilst the

west wind is sufficiently frequent to give them a very marked inclination. Of the dark and gloomy forests, which, in the tenth and eleventh centuries, covered the peninsula of Jutland, there now only remain long and narrow belts along its whole eastern coast; Holstein has only preserved a few fragments in the midst of its heaths; Lauenburg, to the south of Holstein, contains the forest of Saehsenwald, formerly much more extensive. In these three provinces, the woods are composed of the ash, the alder, the oak, and especially the birch: the pine and the fir are rare. The island of Funen is interspersed with small woods; the north-east part of Zealand, next the borders of the Sound, and the island of Falster, still contain several; and in that of Bornholm, there are to be seen forests of birch. The whole of the woods of Denmark form a surface of 130 square leagues. Their improvident destruction near the sea-coast has exposed the soil to invasion from the sands.^g On the coasts grow the common glass-wort (*Salsola Soda*);^h the juniper, the myrtle,ⁱ the bramble, and several other berry-bearing shrubs, border the high-ways and the skirts of the woods; a plant which the Danes call manna (*Festuca fluitans*, Linn.)^k throws out spontaneously its useful shoots in several of the islands, and especially in that of Laaland: the grain of it yields very good meal. Several other indigenous vegetables are found useful in medicine, and also in dyeing. The meadows of Denmark present a verdure as fresh as those of England: for a long time the cultivator of the ground has been in the practice of increasing its value by draining the marshes and multiplying artificial meadows.^l There are, however, on the western coasts of South Jutland and Holstein, pasturages naturally so rich and so fertile as to render all culture superfluous. In Holstein, Sleswick, and Jutland, they cultivate flax and hemp; but although the soil there has been found to suit these plants, they are yet much neglected. In Jutland they also raise tobacco, and sow a good deal of buck-wheat.^m The different kinds of grain succeed everywhere; the produce, estimated at seven millions of tons,ⁿ or at 1,300,000,000 kilogrammes, exceeds the wants of the population. The oats of Bornholm, the rye of Jutland, the wheat of Laaland, and the barley of Zealand, Sleswick and Holstein, are everywhere esteemed. Potatoes, cummin and mustard, as well as other useful plants,^o are much cultivated; and the kitchen-gardens abound in artichokes, cauliflowers, asparagus, and melons, of an excellent quality. These plants are also cultivated in the fields, but less extensively than in France and Germany. The grape does not ripen except in hothouses; but in the orchards, if peaches and apricots are rarer than in France, the inhabitants find an ample compensation

^a "Gulfs."

^b The Trave has a communication with the Elbe by the canal of Steckenitz, which unites the little river of that name, falling into the Trave, with the Devenau, a rivulet emptying into the Elbe at Lauenburg. (Tuckey, vol. i. p. 254.)—P.

^c Eyder (Ed. Enc. Tuckey.)

^d See note p. 1041.

^e "During winter, the thermometer descends to 3° at least, and at most to 11°; during summer, it attains an elevation of from 12° to 18°"—i. e. supposing the scale to be Reaumur's, it descends during winter, at least to 25½° Fahr. (6¼° below freezing,) or at most to 7¼° Fahr. (24¼° below freezing,) and ranges during summer, between 59° Fahr. (27° above freezing) and 72½° Fahr. (40½° above freezing.)—Though the thermometer, in general, does not fall beyond 12° or 13° below freezing, nor rise to more than 25° above it, yet sometimes the

heats of summer are very intense, and there are occasionally winters of extreme severity. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f "Humidity alternates with winds and frost."

^g "Downs (*dunes*)"—sand hills on the sea coast.

^h *Salsola Soda*, French salt-wort (Rees' Cyc.)—The *Salsola Kali* (prickly salt-wort) is the more common species.—P.

ⁱ "Myrtle"—*Vaccinium Myrtillus*, common Bilberry or Blaeberry of Europe.—P.

^k Floating fescue grass.

^l "Agriculturists have been long engaged in increasing their extent, by draining marshes and multiplying artificial meadows."³

^m The sandy ridge, which pervades the whole length of Jutland, is fit only for oats or buckwheat. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁿ Not tons Eng., but *tænder* or barrels Dan.—The *tænde* of Copenhagen is equal to about 3½ bushels Eng.—P.

^o "Plantes économiques"—plants used in domestic economy.—P.

in the culture of the plum, the cherry, the pear, and especially the apple: the apples of Gravenstein in Sleswick are much celebrated; fruits form an article of considerable export, especially to Sweden and Russia.

In losing their vast forests, the Danish territory and its islands have witnessed the extinction of the tribes of the larger wild animals: the wolf, which formerly ravaged this country, has entirely disappeared;^a the wild boar has become very rare; the stag and the fallow deer exist only in parks; the fox, the martin,^b the polecat,^c the rat, and several other small quadrupeds, are the only ones that do injury to property, from the circumstance of their existing in great numbers. Game is everywhere abundant, especially on the coasts of Jutland; hares are in demand as agreeable food;^d wild geese and ducks, partridges, snipes, and thrushes, people the marshes and the fields; swans live at freedom in the gulf of Lym-Fiord and on the islands of Amak and Bornholm, which they do not quit till compelled by the severity of the frost; the duck known under the name of eider-duck, lines with its soft down the nests which it makes in the clefts of the rocks and precipices;^e the eagle and the other large birds of prey are seldom seen; they seem to despise a country, which offers no heights sufficiently elevated for their dwelling.

Domestic animals form the principal riches of Denmark: geese and other fowl afford a considerable profit to those who breed them.^f The Danish horses are of two kinds:^g the one, small but vigorous, abounds in the islands; the other, large, strong, and elegantly shaped, is peculiar to Jutland and Holstein, and sought after by strangers. Horned cattle are also smaller in the islands than on the mainland; their great number, as well as that of sheep, whose breed has undergone the most important amelioration during the last twenty years, by crossing them with the breeds of Spain and England, attest the progress of agriculture. The swine of Jutland, sent in considerable herds into Holstein, form, in that dutch, a double branch of industry, being fattened and salted for foreign export. Lastly, Denmark has long supplied the Continent with that race of dogs called Danish, renowned for their strength and their fidelity, and also with the small black-muzzled dog called by the French *carlin*,^h so much sought after in France during the last twenty-five years.

Although not so well supplied with fish as those of Norway, yet the seas that wash Denmark amply reward

^a "—appears to have entirely disappeared." The wolves are reduced to a very small number. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b "Martre"—*Mustela martes*, Linn. Pine martin, Pine weasel, or Yellow-breasted martin.—P.

^c "Fouine"—*Mustela foinea*, Linn. Common martin, or White-breasted martin.—P.

^d "The hares are esteemed for their delicate flavour."

^e "Falaises"—bluffs.

^f Poultry are raised in great numbers in Denmark, particularly geese and ducks, whose feathers form an important article of commerce.—P.

^g "—belong to two races" (breeds.)

^h "The small black-nosed pug-dogs (*carlins*)"—Qu. The small Danish dog, leopard, or spotted dog.—P.

ⁱ Seals (*Phoca ritulina*).—P.
^k In the river or bay of Slie [the Sley or Schley, on which Sleswick is situated. See note ^p p. 1062] and the gulf of Flensburg, are taken a small species of herring of excellent quality. Besides what are consumed in the country, they export annually of the herrings taken here, nearly 1000 tons to Germany and Copenhagen. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^l "Guden-Aae"—Guden river.—*Aae* (J. Baden, Ordbog.) *Au* (L. Hasse, Handlex.) signifies river, in Danish.—P.

^m See the work of J. Collin, counsellor of state, entitled: "For historie og statistik især Fædrelandets [Contributions to History and Statistics, particularly to those of Denmark,]" vol. ii. Copenhagen, 1825.

the active fisherman. They not only furnish a supply of food to the greater part of the inhabitants, but afford a surplus for exportation: the plaice (*Pleuronectes platessa*), which is taken in the neighbourhood of Cape Skagen, is sold in a dried state to the Lubeckers, who pack it up neatly and send it as far as Italy; the western coast of Sleswick and Jutland is supplied with beds of oysters; on the shores of the Categat they catch abundance of lobsters; porpoises and sea-dogs¹ are frequently caught in the nets which they at the same time injure by their size; the small river Slie in Sleswick furnishes a species of herring which is in high estimation,^k and that of Guden-Aa,^l the most considerable in Jutland, excellent salmon.

The Dane thus finds a certain means of subsistence in the produce of the soil, in the animals which he rears, and in the fish of his lakes, rivers and seas. He exports grain, cheese, wool, salted provisions, tallow, horse and ox hides, feathers, and fish. His manufacturing industry supplies besides, as articles of trade, coarse pottery, hosiery, lace and cotton stuffs; but the greater part of these exports have been diminishing for several years back, owing, in part at least, to the restrictions which custom-house duties impose upon commerce, and to the obstacles which indirect taxes present to the development of industry. Government ought to encourage the culture of hops, woad and oleaginous plants, the rearing of bees, the improvement of wool, and the making of cheese.^m

With the exception of a few thousand Jews, the greater part of whom are established at Altona and Copenhagen, the inhabitants of Denmark descend, as has been already said, from one of those ancient nations, whose assemblage forms the Germanic stock. The idiom which is spoken in Jutland, Sleswick, and the Danish archipelago,ⁿ is a dialect of the Scaldic or Scandinavian language;^o that of Holstein, and that of the small archipelago lying near the western coast of Sleswick,^p are two dialects of the old Saxon. It is in these idioms that we find the signification of the names given to the islands and provinces which compose Denmark. The name of this country signifies *low lands*;^q *Fionia*,^r *a beautiful country*; *Laaland*, *low country*; and *Zealand*, *a country surrounded with water*.^s *Belt* means *a girdle*.^t and in point of fact, the two Belts are long and narrow. The name of Jutland appears to be merely a corruption of the word *Gothland*.^u it too was a country of the Goths.

ⁿ A German or Low Saxon dialect is spoken in a part of Sleswick, and a Frisian dialect on the western coast of that province, and in the adjoining islands. In the rest of Denmark Proper, the language is Danish.—P.

^o See note ^a p. 1036.

^p The popular language of Holstein is Low Saxon (Germ. *Platt Deutsch*).—The language of the islands here mentioned, and of parts of the adjacent mainland, is a dialect of the Frisian language, other dialects of which are spoken in East and West Friesland. See note ^a.—P.

^q From *dalm*, low, and *mark*, fields. ["From *dann*, below [Eng. *down*.] and *mark*, fields."—*Dann* is not a modern Danish word. *Mark* signifies field, sing., in Danish.—Denmark is said to be derived from *dann* or *dann*, signifying lowlands. (N. Am. Rev. No. 62.)—P.]

^r "Fionie"—Funen (Dan. Fyen.)—Dan. *fin*; Swed. *fin*; Icelandic, *fen*; Eng. *fine*.—P.

^s The ancient name of this island was *Sia-Lund*, which signifies *a forest in the sea*; from *sia*, sea, and *lund*, forest. [The present Danish name is *Sjeland* (See note ^a p. 1077)—The present Danish word for sea, is *se* (Swed. *sjæ*.) *Lund* now signifies rather a grove than a forest.—P.]

^t Dan. *belte*, *bælte*, a girdle.—P.

^u Rather a corruption of *Jutland*, from the Jutes, its original inhabitants. See p. 1061.—P.

Holstein, which the Hibernian chronicles^a call *Holsaturland*, is *Holsatia* or *woody Saxony*.^b The Danish language, as spoken by persons of education, is soft and harmonious: what distinguishes it chiefly from the Swedish, is the substitution of *e* in place of *a* in the greater part of words.

The climate of Denmark is not injurious to the health of the inhabitants, as is proved by the proportion which the population bears to the surface of the country. Possibly, however, the humidity of the atmosphere, and the quantity of salted meat and fish used by the Danes, may have contributed to render their character dull, patient, and difficult to move. "Formerly an insatiable conqueror, now brave but pacific; of little enterprise, but laborious and persevering; diffident but proud, hospitable but not officious; cheerful and open with his countrymen, but somewhat cold and ceremonious towards strangers; loving his ease more than show; more economical than industrious, and that too sometimes from vanity, and sometimes from laziness; an imitator of others, a judicious observer, a profound thinker, but slow and minute; indued with an imagination more strong than rich; constant, romantic and jealous in his affections; capable of great enthusiasm, but rarely of those flashes of intellect, or sallies of wit, which, by their unexpectedness, demand and obtain victory and applause; strongly attached to his native soil, and to the interests of his country, but caring little about national glory; accustomed to the calm of monarchy, but the enemy of slavery and arbitrary power; such is the portrait of the Dane."^c The inhabitant of Holstein would not recognise himself in this portrait, because in effect he differs in many respects from the inhabitant of Denmark; he is economical and industrious like the Hollander, and not less bold in his commercial views. The Dane is generally middle-sized, well-made, fair, and of a mild and agreeable physiognomy; the native of Holstein rarely displays in his features the nobleness and delicacy of northern countenances. In both nations, private virtues, morals more severe in reality than in appearance, and manners polite rather than refined, distinguish the higher ranks; among the lower ranks, the love of order is not a rare quality, excepting with the seaman, who, by his kind of life, is led to adopt the vices of different nations. The peasant is laborious; he dresses himself with neatness, loves to sing and to dance,

and appears to be happier than in the rest of Europe, and especially than in France. He has become a proprietor, as in the latter country, by the advantage which the disposal of seignorial lands in small portions offers to their proprietors. The personal services due by the peasantry to their landlords^d have been long since abolished, or an annual payment substituted in their place; and many farms are let on perpetual leases,^e a circumstance which has contributed not a little to the advancement of agriculture.

There is much more education in Denmark than in France. It is rare to meet a peasant, or any other of the lower class, who cannot read. In 1822, government permitted the introduction of the system of mutual instruction into the elementary public schools: the succeeding year, the number of schools which had adopted this method amounted to 244, and in the beginning of 1829, it was about 2500. At that date there were reckoned in all more than 4500 primary schools, of which 400 were private. This rapid progress is due to the zeal of the *Society for Elementary Instruction* established at Copenhagen. In Denmark, this instruction is not confined, as in France, to reading, writing, arithmetic, and religious instruction; it comprehends also history, geography, and natural history.^f The higher studies enjoy the same favour as the earlier branches of education.

Many learned men and writers of distinction have added celebrity to the Danish nation. Holberg, a comic author, has enriched the national literature with a heroi-comic poem, regarded as classical by his countrymen;^g his comedies have procured for him the surname of the Plautus of the North.^h Pram has made himself known by a fine epic poem, and by some good tragedies.^k Thormodus-Torfeus,^l Gram,^m Langebeck,ⁿ Schjonning,^o and some others, have employed the resources of a vast erudition in the study of the history and antiquities of the north. Malling, among the historians, has distinguished himself by the elegance of his style. We are indebted for several philosophical treatises to Boye, Gamborg and Treschow, the last of whom has refuted the opinions of Kant. Among the men who have cultivated with success the physical and natural sciences, Laurensberg, Steno, and Gaspard Thomas, have left valuable works on mineralogy;^p Erasmus Bartholin^q discovered the double refraction of that variety of carbonate of lime, call-

^a "Chroniques irlandaises"—This is doubtless a typographical error (*irlundaises* for *islandaises*.) It should be: Icelandic chronicles.—P.

^b *Holz* signifies wood [in German.]

^c Géographie mathématique, physique et politique, &c. tom. ii. [This refers to the Geography published by Malte-Brun and Mentelle (*Géog. math. phys. et pol.* Paris 1804—7, 16 vol. 8vo.)—P.]

^d "The servitudes (*corvées*) to which the peasant was subjected—"

^e "Hereditary leases (*bail héréditaire*)."—The great proprietors, in order to enable the peasants the better to improve the soil, grant them hereditary leases. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f "It comprehends also the study of their national language and history, geography, and natural history."

^g See Extract from the Report to the king of Denmark, inserted in the *Revue Encyclopédique* for April 1828.

^h It is entitled: *Pæder Pors*. [*Pæder Paars* (Dan.) (Enc. Amer.)—Peter Paars. (Gorton.)—Pierre Pors. (Beauvais.)—P.]

ⁱ Holberg was a native of Bergen in Norway.—P.

^k Christian Pram, born in Norway, died at St. Thomas, W. I. 1821—author of an epic poem entitled *Stærkodder*, and three tragedies, besides other poems.—P.

^l Thormodus Torfeus (Thormod Torvesen,) a native of Iceland—author of a history of the Orcaades, and another of Norway, besides many other historical works, all in Latin.—P.

^m J. Gram, historiographer and royal librarian, a native of Aalborg in Jutland—author of several critical works in Latin.—P.

ⁿ Gram-Langebeck—

an error faithfully copied by the translator.—James Langebeck, a native of the diocess of Aalborg in Jutland, appointed keeper of the royal archives—author of different historical works in Danish, German and Latin, but best known for his historical collection: *Scriptores Rerum Danicarum mediæ ævi*, 7 vols. fol., only three of which were published before his death.—P.

^o Schjonning.—Gerard Schoening or Schioening. (Beauvais.)—P.

^p Qu. Should not this read: "Laurenberg, Steno, and Caspar (*Gaspard*) and Thomas Bartholine, have left valuable works on medicine."—Steno and the Bartholines are well known as medical writers, particularly as anatomists. There were three physicians of the name of Laurenberg (Peter, John and William,) of some note for their writings, particularly Peter Laurenberg. I cannot find any notice of any such mineralogical writers as are mentioned in the text, in which the translator has faithfully followed the original. I merely find it stated that William Laurenberg wrote an historical description of the eagle-stone (*aitiles*), then celebrated for its magico-medical virtues, (*Descriptio historica aitilis*), that Caspar Bartholine wrote a dissertation on the nephritic stone and the most remarkable amulets (*Dissert. de lapide nephritico et præcipuis amuletis*), that Thomas Bartholine, father and son, each wrote a paper on the Iceland crystal, and that Steno wrote a treatise on myology (*Myologia Specimen*).—P.

^q Lat. *Bartholinus*—Bartholine, in English authors.—P.

cd Iceland spar;^a Pontoppidan, bishop of Bergen in Norway, has made us acquainted with the minerals of Denmark and Norway; Brünnich first composed in Danish a manual of mineralogy;^b Abildgaard, a learned physician, wrote on minerals and animals; Winslow passes for the founder of descriptive anatomy; Borch,^c at once a physician, chemist and philologist, has left numerous writings; Thomas Bartholin,^d the author of a multitude of works, was considered the first physician of his age; Fabricius, so celebrated as an entomologist, has carried the torch of his genius into many questions of natural history and political economy. If so many distinguished names are not enough for the glory of Denmark, let us remember that the name of Tycho Brahe alone throws a lustre on this country. It is less rich in celebrated artists, a natural consequence of the small number of large fortunes in Denmark; several Danes, however, more alive to glory than to the favours of fortune, have obtained a name in painting, engraving and sculpture.

Previous to the year 1660, the constitution of Denmark was, like that of Norway and Sweden, a limited and elective monarchy. The sovereign was elected by the States-General, consisting of the nobility, clergy, and commons,—the last including burgesses and peasantry. This has been admitted by all historians, and the memorable answer of Waldemar III. in the fourteenth century to the Pope's nuncio, who was attempting to assume authority in the kingdom, may be here quoted to show the opinion of royalty itself in a matter, where, had not the fact been indubitable, silence would have been preserved. "Our nature," says the prince, "we have from God, *our kingdom from our subjects*, our wealth from our parents, and our religion from the Church of Rome, which last we are willing to renounce, if you envy us the felicity it brings." The king was in general chosen from the royal family, but without regard to hereditary succession; and, if he conducted himself in opposition to the laws and constitution, the States made no difficulty of bringing him to trial, and deposing, banishing, imprisoning, and even putting him to death, if occasion required. The laws required that frequent convocations of the States should be held, and by them

all matters connected with government were transacted, questions as to peace or war, the imposition of taxes, the enactment of new laws, and abolition or alteration of the old. It was the duty of the king to see the laws well administered, and justice done impartially to all, to command the army in time of war, and to prevent one order in the State from usurping power over the other orders. He had no support from the people, and his revenue arose entirely from his own estate, from the crown lands, as they might be called. But since 1660, Denmark has been a hereditary monarchy, submissive to the most absolute authority that exists in Europe, having no other limits than the will of the prince. The revolution took its rise from the usurpations of the nobility, and the advantage taken by the reigning prince of the discontents that arose out of these usurpations. The States, which ought to have been frequently called together, were seldom convoked, and the nobility, who had taken advantage of this circumstance to increase their own privileges, and inroach upon those of others, were not anxious that assemblies should be called, which might reduce, or attempt to reduce the power they had unjustly acquired. The grand cause of offence was their having contrived, in the imposition of taxes, to lay the great burden of these taxes upon others, and to free themselves almost entirely from that burden, under the pretext of the peculiar privileges of their order. To perpetuate this state of things, partial assemblies of the States were convoked, and the clergy and commons came to be considered as mere cyphers in the government, the whole power falling into the hands of the aristocracy, and some creatures of the court. The Senate, for so it appears was the States-General called,^e which exercised without responsibility, what, under the circumstances mentioned, became an usurped power, lost with time the imposing character which had long drawn to it the respect of the nation.^f It is in a political crisis, such as this, that we can judge of the real strength of a government. When it has not for its foundation the interests of the whole, it resembles a frail scaffolding, which a breath of wind can overturn. The war declared against Sweden by Denmark [in 1657] drew upon the latter kingdom the disasters of an inva-

^a "*Spath d'Irlande*"—*spath of Ireland* (Trans.)—*Irlande*, in the original, is merely a typographical error for *Islande* (Iceland).—P.

^b Brünnich wrote an elementary work on zoology (*Zoologia Fundamenta*) in Latin and Danish.—P.

^c Dan. *Olav Borch*—Lat. *Olaus Borrichius*—died 1690.—P.

^d See note ^a p. 1065.

^e The Senate was a body entirely distinct from the States-General, as is stated in the original. (See note ^f.) It was in fact an executive council, in which, with the king, the executive authority was vested. As it had by the constitution, no legislative authority, which, together with the right of electing the sovereign, was vested in the States, the right which it assumed of voting the laws, during the discontinuance of the assemblies of the States (diets,) as stated in the original (see note ^f), was obviously an usurpation.—Before the revolution in 1660, the right of electing the sovereign, and the supreme legislative authority, resided in the three estates of the kingdom, the nobles, the clergy, and the commons, assembled in a diet by means of representatives. The executive power was vested in the king and senate, the latter composed of the principal nobles. The king was little more than president of the senate, and commander of the army, the royal prerogative being circumscribed by the charter of rights, always ratified by the sovereign at his accession. It was the custom also for the states to communicate their plans or wishes respecting the subjects on which the diet was convoked, to the king through the senate; but this was disregarded, during the diet that brought about the revolution, by the clergy and commons, who then communicated directly with the king.

(Ed. Enc.)—When the Christian religion was established in Denmark, the clergy were admitted, not only to be an order of the states, but also to have seats in the senate. (Guthrie.)—After the reformation, the estates of the clergy having been annexed to the royal domains, they of course lost much of their temporal influence, and being commoners by birth, were no longer admitted to the senate, which at the time of the revolution was monopolized by the nobility.—P.

^f "Denmark had, for several centuries, like Sweden and Norway, been an elective monarchy, in which the power of the sovereign was restricted by a national assembly; but since 1661, it has been an hereditary monarchy, subject to the most absolute authority that exists in Europe, since it has no other limits than the will of the prince. Before the revolution by which this change was effected, the government resided in the States-General, composed of the nobility, the clergy, the citizens (burgesses,) and the peasantry, and in the royal authority; but the States were rarely convoked, and the nobility, careless of the public interests, did not desire that an assembly should be called together, in which they exercised but a limited influence. The senate became then, in fact, the only depository of a part of the authority. Its members, who were nearly all dispersed in the provinces as governors, assembled once a year to vote the laws, in concert with certain court personages. This senate, which exercised without responsibility, and without any legal right, an usurped authority, lost in time the imposing character which had long secured to it the respect of the nation."—This is all, in the original, that corresponds to the preceding part of the paragraph.—P.

sion, [in which Copenhagen was twice besieged^a by Charles Gustavus,^b king of Sweden, and only saved from destruction by the heroism of Frederick III., and the sudden death of the king of Sweden.] Peace was soon concluded, but several provinces were lost,^c the public treasury was greatly in debt, the fields were desolated, industry and commerce had received a fatal blow, the collection of the taxes was embarrassed, the troops demanded the arrears of their pay, and the navy stood in need of urgent repairs: discontent was general. It was in this state of matters, that, towards the end of the year 1660,^d an assembly of the States was convoked. That, at this time, the court meditated a great change, is proved by the fact that the order of the peasantry was not represented in this assembly, which was made up of deputies from the clergy, nobility and burgesses. The nobility renewed their old pretensions to supremacy; the clergy, jealous of the nobility, vowed to see that order humbled; the burgesses of Copenhagen, proud of the confidence which had been expressed towards them by the government,^e and full of hope in expectation of future favours, manifested their devotion to the crown. They called to mind the dangers which the monarch [Frederick III.] had encountered during the sieges^f of the capital, and the traits of character by which he had acquired a great popularity. While his subjects were in this state of mind, the prince affected to know nothing about what was in agitation, but the agents of the court took their measures in secret. Already some influential men in the three orders had been gained, when the assembly undertook to examine the means of remedying the calamities which overwhelmed the country. The nobility proposed a tax upon articles of consumption, in which they consented to bear their part, but with so many restrictions, that the burden would have been insupportable by all classes, themselves excepted:^g this was the signal for dissension.^h While the discussion was going on between the nobles and the clergy, the latter, in conjunction with the burgesses, drew up memorials, in which, for the first time, transpired ideas of hereditary

monarchy, which found partisans among the public, but especially in the court. The proposal of a stamp-dutyⁱ increased the confusion; murmurs were heard from amongst all the three orders; one of the influential deputies of the burgesses ventured to propose hereditary succession, "with a view," he added, "that the king might be master;" the same motion was made amongst the clergy, and it was adopted by these two orders. At first the nobility refused their concurrence, but writings being circulated in which their privileges were vigorously attacked, in the end they gave their consent to this important change.^k The making the succession to the crown hereditary nullified the agreement^l which the king had signed on his coming to the throne; besides, great alterations became necessary in the relations that were to exist between the Crown and the States, and the burgesses were anxious to rise above the state of political nullity, in which, by means of the assemblies having been convened only at remote intervals, they had hitherto been held. In the mean time their minds were too much agitated to be able to examine, with the necessary prudence, the questions relative to a new constitution; it was therefore decided that this important matter should be intrusted to a committee, and, in order that the nomination of this committee might not be influenced by the general agitation, the appointment of the members was left to the king. This committee, unanimous as to the nullity of the oath that had been taken by the king, could not, whether under a pretext, or from a real difference of opinion, come to any agreement as to the terms of the new constitution;^m the bishop of Zealand, one of the members gained by the court, then moved that the decision of a question, in which those interested found so much difficulty in coming to an agreement, should be left to the impartiality of the king.ⁿ The three orders approved of this motion; they put a new oath into the hands of their now hereditary monarch,^o and in order to give more solemnity to this imposing ceremony, the order of the peasantry was convoked, but merely to join

^a Copenhagen was thrice besieged by Charles Gustavus. Although the Danes defended themselves with great energy, the first siege was, however, raised by the mediation of Cromwell's envoy, Meadows, and the two latter by the Dutch fleet. Advantage was taken of Charles' death, which occurred soon after the last siege was raised, to conclude a treaty (March 1660).—P.

^b Charles X.

^c The provinces of Scania, Halland, and Bleking, at the southern extremity of the Scandinavian Peninsula. Trans. [By this treaty (1660), the island of Rugen, and the provinces of Bleking, Halland and Schonen, were ceded to Sweden.—P.]

^d Sept. 8th, 1660.—P.

^e Several of the rights of nobility had been granted to the citizens of Copenhagen, as a reward for their patriotic and gallant behaviour during the siege. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f "Siege."—Here, as in the passage quoted from the Ed. Enc. (note ^c), no distinction is made between the different sieges of the capital, but the whole are considered as one. In fact, the Swedish army remained, during the whole time, on the island of Zealand, and the sieges were raised only by foreign intervention. They may indeed be considered only as three acts of the same drama.—P.

^g They offered to contribute equally to this tax; but when their offer was explained, it was found in fact to amount to almost nothing. They consented to pay this tax only when they were in town, and not at all while they resided on their own estates; nor would they subject themselves to it, even with this limitation, for a longer period than three years, while they insisted that the farmers (peasantry) should pay it as a permanent tax, and to its full amount. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^h "The senate made common cause with the nobility, and thus completely destroyed the last remains of its popularity."—This is

omitted by the translator, as not agreeing with his mistaken notion of that body. See note ^e p. 1066.—P.

ⁱ "—of an edict for levying a stamp tax."

^k The nobility having farther irritated the other orders, by materially altering a tax bill which had been sent to them, the bishop of Copenhagen immediately proposed to his order to sign a declaration, making the crown hereditary in the royal family. This proposal was readily accepted; the declaration was signed by the clergy, sent to the representatives of the people, who as readily gave their sanction to it, and on the very same day transmitted to the speaker of the nobles, to receive the concurrence of that order. The nobles, being now alarmed, proposed to Frederick, that the crown should be hereditary in the male line only; but this proposal was rejected by the king. On the next day, this order found itself under the necessity of acceding to the declaration. (Ed. Enc.)—After the clergy and the citizens had formed their resolution, they went in a body to the hall of the nobles, where John Nansen, chief of the order of citizens, after enumerating the evils of the state, and the important services rendered by the king, proposed that the crown should be hereditary in his family.—P.

^l "Capitulation."—The Danish kings signed a capitulation or charter on their accession to the throne—a species of contract between the king and the people, defining and limiting his power, and determining the privileges of the different orders. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^m "—as to the form of a new capitulation."

ⁿ In the midst of the clamorous debates, arising from the difference of opinion as to the terms of the capitulation, the bishop of Zealand (Copenhagen) suddenly proposed, that the crown should be made hereditary, without any stipulation or condition; this was agreed to, only with the exception, that the right of primogeniture, and the indivisibility of the monarchy, should be guarded. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^o "They took a new oath to the new hereditary monarch—"

their oath to that of the other orders. To the pomp of festivals and great entertainments succeeded the deliberations of the States upon the privileges which they ought to preserve; the agitation, the hesitation and the exasperation of the parties were greater than they ever had been, and at last, worn out or corrupted, the States renounced their rights. A solemn act of January 10th, 1661, declared that the king was invested for ever with absolute power.^a [It is remarked by an old writer, "that this is the only legal absolute monarchy, perhaps, in the world; the king being declared so by the States of the kingdom, who had that power by the constitution." Was this deed irrevocable?^b]

Four years after this extraordinary event, the reigning sovereign (Frederic III.) issued a decree, bearing date 14th Nov. 1665,^d regulating the order of the succession, and declaring what the new constitution of the kingdom was. One article of this decree declares, that "the hereditary kings of Denmark and Norway shall be, and indeed ought to be, looked upon by all their subjects as the only supreme chiefs which they have upon the earth. *They shall be above all human laws*; and shall acknowledge, in all ecclesiastical and civil affairs, no other judge or superior than God alone." By another, it is declared, "the king alone shall have the right of imposing taxes, and of raising contributions of all kinds; since it is clear that we can only defend kingdoms and provinces with armies, and maintain troops, *by means of supplies which are levied upon the subjects.*" It is also declared, that "the king shall not be obliged," on coming to the throne, "to take any oath, or to make any engagement, under whatever name or title it may be, since in quality of a free and absolute monarch, his subjects cannot impose on him the necessity of an oath, or prescribe any conditions which limit his authority."^{e f}

In terms of the same decree, the king is major on completing his 13th year.^g He presides in the council of state, which takes special cognizance of all matters

^a On the 16th of October 1660, the three estates annulled, in the most solemn manner, the capitulation or charter signed by the king at his accession, absolved him from his engagements, cancelled all the limitations imposed on his sovereignty, and on the following day, closed the whole by the public ceremony of doing homage, and of taking the new oath of allegiance; but the three orders did not sign a separate act, consenting that the crown should be hereditary, investing the sovereign with absolute power, and giving him the right to regulate the succession and the regency, till the 10th of January 1661, nor even after this, was the new constitution explained or sanctioned by any promulgated law, till the accession of Christian V. in 1670. This law, called the royal law, was drawn up by the bishop of Zealand and Count Griffenfeld, and received the king's sanction on the 14th of November 1665, but was kept in the royal archives till the period above mentioned [1670.] (Ed. Enc.)—It is well known that this revolution was brought about by the clergy and commons, for the purpose of punishing the insolence and oppression of the nobility, and of compelling them to bear an equal part in the burdens of the state. It was the intention and expectation of the lower orders that the power deposited with the king, should have been restored, with a more equal distribution of rights, to the people. In this, however, the monarch proved too crafty for his subjects; but as if in return for their surrender of authority, he and his successors have so administered affairs, as to have rendered themselves, perhaps, the most popular sovereigns in Europe. The liberation of the peasants (1787) the encouragement of learning and general education, particularly the recent extension of the system of mutual instruction, and in general, the mild and equitable administration of the laws, are so many proofs that the government has not forgotten the source from which its absolute authority is derived.—P.

^b By one of the articles of the royal law, the king may annul all laws, which either he or his predecessors shall have made, excepting this royal law, which must remain irrevocable, and be considered as the fundamental law of the state. (Ed. Enc.)—It is obvious, however,

of consequence. The different ministerial functions are exercised by colleges or councils with presidents:^h the college or council of the *chancellorship*ⁱ has the administration of justice, general police, the church, public instruction, and all that regards the interior of the kingdom; that of the *finances* lays on taxes,^k watches over all the pecuniary affairs of the state, and has under its administration the exchequer, the revenues, crown lands, &c.;^l the college of *economy and trade* has under its care manufactures and whatever regards industry.^m The bailiffs have nearly the same power as the prefects in France;ⁿ a supreme court, in which the king himself sometimes presides, determines civil and criminal causes in the last resort: the punishment of death is very rarely pronounced.

The clergy do not form a separate order: the only distinct classes in the state are the nobility, the burghesses, and the peasantry. Every royal functionary belongs to the class of nobles. The counts and barons enjoy great privileges: these titles, and some others, are subjected to a tax, called the tax upon rank; and the honour of being styled *his excellency* is given to those who choose to pay for it. The nobles have preserved many peculiar rights, which, however, vary in the Danish and German provinces;^o thus, in Holstein and Lauenburg, where their ancient constitution has been guaranteed by the Germanic diet, the noblesse exercise supreme power in their own domains; on the other hand, the Frieslanders of the islands which border the western coast of Sleswick,^p and the inhabitants of the city of Altona in Holstein, enjoy a very ample liberty. [Till 1787 the peasantry on the estates of the nobility were in a most degraded condition. They and their posterity were unalterably fixed to the estates on which they were born; and, when it was sold, the peasants, with their wives and children, were transferred along with it. These abominable chains were broken in the year above mentioned, through the exertions of the present king of

to present ideas, that this whole system of absolute authority is easily revocable by the will of the people.—P.

^c The passages in the above paragraph, inclosed in brackets, are inserted by the translator.—P. ^d See note ^a.

^e See copy of this decree in Travels, by William Rae Wilson, Esq. in Norway, &c. App. No. xvi. London, 1826.

^f The above paragraph is added by the translator.—P.

^g "By a royal decree [the Royal Law of Nov. 14, 1665.] the king is of full age at fourteen."—P.

^h "—colleges composed of several members and a president."

ⁱ "The college of the chancery—"

^k "—proposes taxes." See note ^m.

^l "—the treasury, the public debt (*rentes*, funds,) the domains, &c."

^m The king is assisted in the exercise of his royal functions by a privy council [council of state,] in which the laws are proposed, discussed, and receive the royal sanction, and all the important affairs of government are transacted. The business is prepared in the different colleges or chambers to which it more immediately belongs, and through which all applications to the council must come. These different offices of government are: 1. the Chancery of Denmark and Norway; 2. the Chancery of Germany, for Sleswick and Holstein; 3. the Office of Foreign Affairs; 4. the College or Chamber of Revenue; 5. the Chamber of Customs; 6. the College of Finances; 7. the College of General Economy and Commerce; 8. the War Office; and 9. the Admiralty Office. (Ed. Enc. 1817.)—P.

ⁿ Denmark is divided into seven provinces, or grand bailiwicks, called *Stifts-ampts* [Dan. *stiftamt*, sing.] each of which is governed by a *Stifts-ampts-man* [Dan. *stiftamtmand*.] These are subdivided into districts or bailiwicks, called *ampts* [Dan. *amt*, sing.] under the superintendance of inferior governors, called *ampts-men* [Dan. *amtmand* sing.] (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^o The nobility of Sleswick and Holstein form a distinct body, and enjoy more extensive privileges. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^p See note ^p p. 1064.

Denmark,^a then crown prince, by the issuing an edict which restored them to their liberty.]^b Finally, the Danish government manifests a paternal spirit in the exercise of its power, and is very tolerant in regard to religion: the confession of Augsburg^c is the predominant religion; but Roman Catholics, Calvinists, Mennonites,^d and even Jews, are admitted without distinction to public employments and dignities. His German provinces constitute his Danish majesty a member of the Germanic confederation, to which he furnishes a corps of 3000 men; they give him also a voice in the Diet.^e

We have neglected nothing to give a correct view of this country as a whole; an excursion through the principal cities and towns still remains to be made: it will be short, because they are not numerous. The coasts of Denmark are as pleasant and well cultivated as those of Sweden are barren and wild: their thick groves, says a traveller,^f the gentle declivities of their hills, the meadows which descend softly to the very border of the sea, and the emerald green, which, during the fine season, forms the general colour of this agreeable landscape, produce an enchanting coup-d'œil. We cannot see the strait of the Sound,^g covered with vessels of every nation submitting to a duty^h which brings in two or three millions of francs annually to the crown of Denmark, without being astonished that a power of the fifth order should have been able to render tributary all the nations which trade to the Baltic. The first commencement of this impost is unknown: it is certain, however, that in the 15th century it rested upon a very ancient custom. It is probable that it had for its origin the expense of the building and maintaining several light-houses placed by the Danes on the coast for the benefit of navigators, and which, according to stipulations now forgotten, they consented to defray the expense of, by a toll imposed on every ship passing the Sound.ⁱ

Copenhagen, the capital of Denmark, called in the language of the country *Kiøbenhavn*,^k occupies, in the Sound, the bottom of a gulf in the island of Zealand, besides a part of the northern extremity of the small island of *Amak* or *Amager*. Its foundation is attributed to bishop Axel, who, in 1168, obtained from the reigning king of Denmark the concession of a small piece of ground occupied by a hamlet of fishermen, and protected it by raising fortifications.^l In less than a century it had become considerable enough to obtain the privileges of a city, and in the 14th century, it became the residence of the court.^m Its buildings were originally of

wood, but having been consumed by destructive fires in 1728, 1794 and 1795, were replaced by elegant buildings and regular streets. It was regarded as one of the finest cities in Europe, when, in 1807, surprised in time of peace by a British squadron, it endured a dreadful bombardment, which destroyed its cathedral, and a part of its university, mutilated several of its principal edifices, and destroyed several hundred houses.ⁿ Its fleet, and the greater part of the military stores of all kinds, accumulated in its magazines and arsenals, were carried off to England. It was thus that Great Britain repaid the refusal given by Denmark to enter into the coalition against France. On the 18th of November 1824, a dreadful hurricane drove the waters of the sea into the city, and caused great destruction. In spite of disasters so recent, Copenhagen, defended by 24 bastions, by fosses filled with water, and by a strong citadel, is still one of the finest capitals in Europe. There are in the city 10 public squares and 5 markets, 3 royal palaces, 9 parish churches, a Roman Catholic chapel, 3 convents, 1 Moravian meeting-house, 5 Jewish synagogues, 14 hospitals, including one for foundlings,^o and 30 houses for the reception of the poor.^p Seen from the narrow entrance of the harbour, which is capable of containing 500 merchant ships, besides the royal navy, it presents a magnificent appearance; its three quarters, the old town, the new town, and Christiansavn,^q which formerly bore the peculiar characters of their more or less ancient origin, owe to contemporary repairs their modern elegance. The old town, or Copenhagen properly so called,^r separated from the new town by the new canal, is not surpassed by it: it is even larger and more populous; its houses, though built of brick and wood, have a fine appearance: there is here seen the large square of the new market,^s the irregularity of which almost disappears in presence of the buildings which ornament it, such as the palace of Charlottenburg, formerly the residence of the court, and now occupied by the academy of fine arts, and by a superb gallery of paintings,—the artillery depot, the theatre, and the equestrian statue of Christian V.^t On the side of the harbour stand the exchange and the bank. The old town also contains the palace of prince Frederick; the arsenal, in which may be seen the royal library composed of 250,000 volumes, and the Arabic manuscripts of Niebuhr; the university, which possesses a fine library; several scientific collections, a botanical garden, and an observatory established in a tower of a singular construction.^u The finest part of the new town is that which is called Fred-

^a Frederick VI.

^b The sentences, inclosed in brackets, are added by the translator.—P.

^c Lutheranism, the established religion in Denmark—formally established in 1536.—P.

^d The Mennonites deny the baptism of infants, and hold that adults alone ought, according to the New Testament, to be baptized. They baptize by immersion. Some of their views correspond much with those held by the Society of *Friends* or *Quakers*. Trans.

^e He has three votes in the general assembly of the diet.—P.

^f Coxe, in his *Travels in Denmark*, &c.

^g Oresound (Dan. and Swed. *Øresund*).—P.

^h Toll of the Sound.—Sound Tolls (Conway).—P.

ⁱ May not this toll have had its origin in the ninth or following centuries, when the Danes were masters of these seas, and probably chose, in this way, to declare their pre-eminence? Trans.

^k Originally, *Kiømandshavn* (Merchant's Haven).—Lat. *Hafna*.—P.

^l Copenhagen owes its origin as a city, to a castle which was built

here in 1160, by Archbishop Wide, to defend the coasts against the pirates which then swarmed in the Baltic. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^m It became the seat of the court in 1443, during the reign of Christopher of Bavaria. (Ed. Enc.)—Christopher III. (of Bavaria) was elected in 1438, but not crowned till 1445.—P.

ⁿ The cathedral with 305 houses were destroyed, and about 600 damaged by the bombardment. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^o "One foundling hospital (*hospice*.) 13 hospitals (*hospitaux*).—"

^p There are 22 hospitals and 30 poor-houses. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^q Christianshavn (Ed. Enc.)—Dan. *Christianshavn* (Christian's Haven).—P.

^r "—or the city properly so called."—Old Copenhagen (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^s Dan. *Kongens nye Torv*, the king's new market.—P.

^t In the centre of the area, is an equestrian statue of Christian V in bronze. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^u It is built in the form of a cylinder, about 70 feet in diameter, and 130 feet in height, and has a spiral carriage road of brick to within 20 or 25 feet of the top. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

eristadt.^a The two principal edifices in this quarter are, the old royal castle of Rosenburg, which contains a fine collection of antiquities, and the magnificent hall in which the king opens the sittings of the high court of justice, and whose garden serves as a public walk; and Amalienburg, a group of buildings composed of four distinct palaces, namely, those of the king, his son and his brother, and the navy school, ranged around an octagonal square, the centre of which is occupied by the equestrian statue of Frederick V. In the isle of Amak, Christiansavn,^b which bears the name of Christian IV., its founder, presents regular and well-built streets; its squares are large and elegant; it contains docks for ship-building, the large warehouse of the India Company,^c the port for ships of war, and the church of the Saviour, the finest in Copenhagen: that of the Trinity, the dome of which contains the university library and the large globe of Tycho Brahe,^d cannot, notwithstanding its beauty, be compared with it.

Copenhagen possesses a great number of literary establishments and academical societies; the most important of these are, the royal society of sciences, and those of natural history, medicine, oriental languages, and Scandinavian literature, a branch of which last mentioned institution is established at Reikiavik in Iceland.^e Till a very recent period, Copenhagen might be considered as the centre of the industry and trade of the kingdom. In 1826, there were reckoned in Copenhagen about two hundred and forty distilleries, fifty breweries, twenty-nine tanneries, thirty manufactories of tobacco, twenty of woollen cloths, fifteen of cotton goods, eighteen of hats, twenty-four of gloves, thirty of linen, and various others, which together employed more than 11,000 people, or nearly one-tenth of the population. It was at that time calculated that more than 5000 vessels entered the port; but the prohibitory system has since that date brought upon this city the results which, sooner or later, are to be expected from it; strangers no longer come to Copenhagen to seek the spirits distilled there;^f its other products can no longer support foreign competition, and the English and Americans have, by their rivalry, given a mortal blow to its commercial relations with the East Indies. Its commerce is now reduced to the single branch of home consumption, and the whole business of Denmark is concentrated at Altona, which has been long a free port. The ruin of industry has considerably lowered the value of houses at

Copenhagen: very recently indeed, proprietors of houses have been known to sell them, from inability to pay the taxes.

The police of this capital is under the superintendence of a special establishment; the public safety is intrusted to the garrison, and to the national guard; companies of fire-men are distributed through the different quarters; a commission of physicians and surgeons has the charge of watching over the public health, a duty so much the more necessary, as the air of Copenhagen is moist and unwholesome, the water bad, and the mortality greater than in the other towns of the kingdom.

The following are among the most remarkable places in the environs of Copenhagen. *Frederiksberg*, a magnificent castle, the usual summer-residence of the king, is built upon a height; the public enjoy the splendid sight of its fine gardens, which are open to them.^g *Frederiksborg*, another royal castle, is a fine specimen of the architecture of the seventeenth century;^h the hall of the knightsⁱ is deserving of much attention. *Ræskilde*,^k a small city of 2000 souls, formerly the capital of Denmark, now receives the mortal remains of her kings. *Jægers-Preis*^l is still a royal residence, where repose the ashes of the ancient heroes of the North, and of many celebrated men;^m we see there the tomb of the great Bernstorff and that of Tycho Brahe. *Elseneur*, in Danish *Helsingør*,ⁿ is situated on the coast, eight leagues to the north of Copenhagen. It is a well built town, but many geographers speak erroneously of its harbour; it has no harbour but a small roadstead, where the ships that pass the Sound cast anchor, to take in supplies and to pay the toll, to which all vessels are subjected, and which amounts to one per cent. on the value of merchandize belonging to privileged nations, and one and a fourth in regard to others and even the Danes themselves. Near *Elseneur* rises on the coast the fortress of *Kronborg* or *Kronenburg*,^o where was confined, in 1771, the unfortunate queen of Denmark, Caroline Matilda of England, the sister of George III., the victim of intrigue and calumny. A royal mansion, not far from *Kronenburg*, is pointed out to strangers as the spot where, in olden time, stood the palæe or castle, the scene of Shakspeare's play of *Hamlet*.^p

The island of *Bornholm*, situated thirty-two leagues from that of *Zealand*^q in the Baltic sea, is peopled by 20,000 inhabitants; it contains seven towns and twenty-one parishes; the capital is *Rønne*,^r known for its

^a "Friedrickstadt"—Dan. *Frederikstad*.—P. ^b See note ^q p. 1069.

^c "Compagnie des Indes"—The East India or Asiatic Company, established in 1732. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d The great celestial globe of brass, placed in the hall of the Royal Academy (1633,) by Udalric, son of Christian IV.—P.

^e The principal literary societies in Copenhagen are, the Royal Academy of Sciences, founded in 1743; the Royal Economical Society, in 1768; the Medical Society, in 1772; the Society for Icelandic Literature, in 1779; and the Board of Longitude, in 1784. (Ed. Enc.)—In 1779, a society was instituted at Copenhagen for aiding the literature of Iceland, and bettering the condition of the inhabitants. In 1790, a project was formed for transferring the society to Iceland, which occasioned such dissensions as suspended all the proceedings, and the society now exists only in name. A second Icelandic society was established in the island in the year 1794, by the present chief justice Stephansen; but various occurrences, particularly the war between Great Britain and Denmark, occasioned its almost total extinction. A new society was established in 1816, by the exertions of Mr. Rask, the celebrated philologist. (Ed. Enc. art. Iceland. 1818.)—P.

^f In 1800, the distilleries in Copenhagen consumed 287,824 tons of grain, which yielded 2,347,850 gallons of spirits. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g "Its fine gardens, which are open to the public, command a magnificent prospect."

^h Built by Christian IV. (died 1648.)—P.

ⁱ Dan. *Riddersal* (knight-hall)—the hall of ceremony.—P.

^k Roschild (Ed. Enc.) Roskild (Tuckey.)—P.

^l Dan. *Jægerspriis*, Germ. *Jägerspreis*.—P.

^m In the gardens of the palace, monuments have been erected to the illustrious men of the country. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁿ Fr. "Elseneur" or Elsenor. Eng. *Elseneur* or *Elsinore*. Dan. *Helsingør*.—P.

^o Cronborg or Cronenburg.—Dan. *Kronborg* (Crown Castle.)—P.

^p This sentence is added by the translator.—Half a mile from the castle of Cronborg, on an eminence, commanding a fine view of the Sound, is the new palace of Marienlyst [Marienborg], near which is a garden, in which the murder of Hamlet's father is supposed to have been committed, and which is thence called Hamlet's garden. (Tuckey, vol. i. p. 285.)—P.

^q "—to the east of Zealand."—Bornholm is 7 leagues and a half distant from the coast of Sweden, and upwards of seventeen from the island of Rugen. (Tuckey.)—Rønne is 93 miles E. S. E. of Copenhagen. (Morse.)—P.

^r Ronne (Tuckey.)—Ronne or Ronde (Morse.)—P.

potteries and clock and watch making:^a it annually exports watches to the value of about 13,000 rix-dollars. The little isle of *Mæn*,^b at the southern extremity of Zealand, containing 7000 inhabitants, has for its chief town *Stege*,^c in which the only manufacturing establishment is a tannery. The island of *Funen*,^d in Danish *Fyen*, between Sleswick and Zealand, is eighteen leagues in length by twelve of average breadth, and has 154 of surface and 110,000 inhabitants. *Odensee*, its capital, was first named *Othins-Ey*,^e that is, the domain of *Odin*. It stands in the centre of the island, in the midst of a large plain. Gloves, soap and woollen cloths are manufactured there. Its cathedral is handsome; it has a university^f and two libraries, and is one of the neatest towns in Denmark. *Svendborg*^g has tanneries and stocking-manufactures, and carries on a great trade in the exportation of rye. The island of *Langeland*,^h which signifies *longland*, extends from south-east to north-west,ⁱ between Funen and Laaland, and contains 11,000 inhabitants; *Rudkiæbing*,^k its principal town, also exports rye. *Laaland* or *Lolland*,^l peopled by 4000 souls,^m has for its chief town *Mariebæ*,ⁿ which is enriched by its trade in grain. The small island of *Falster*, to the east of Laaland, numbers 16,000 inhabitants: *Nikiæbing*,^o its chief town, is magnificently situated; the king possesses there a fine castle, formerly the abode of the queens-dowager of Denmark. *Sam-Sæ*,^p *Fanæ*,^q *Anholt*, where there is a light-house,^r *Lysæ*,^s and other small islands, are too unimportant to be particularly noticed.

In the Danish peninsula, *Aalborg*,^t in North Jutland,^u the seat of a bishopric, is a city surrounded by moats, and contains soap-works, an academy,^x schools and libraries, an hospital and two alms-houses. Its harbour, in the *Lym-Fiord*, receives annually 500 vessels,^y which

export grain and herrings. *Viborg*,^z one of the oldest cities in Denmark, was formerly of more importance than now; there is still held there, about the end of June, a fair which attracts a great number of strangers. *Aarhus*,^{aa} on a gulf of the eastern coast,^{bb} has manufactories of tobacco, and of woollen and cotton cloth, with a small harbour from which grain and cattle are exported. Its cathedral, a Gothic monument, is said to be the loftiest in Denmark. *Randers*,^{cc} on the *Guden-Aæ*,^{dd} possesses manufactures similar to those of Aarhus. The finest horses and the best cattle in Denmark come from the environs of this town. *Ripe* or *Ripen*,^{ee} at the mouth of the *Nibes*,^{ff} on the western coast, carries on a great trade in cloth,^{gg} and contains a cathedral, in which are to be seen the tombs of several Danish kings. *Fredericia*,^{hh} which wants a good harbour to render it of importance, stands upon a promontory commanding the northern entrance into the Little Belt. There is collected here a duty on all the vessels which pass through this strait.ⁱⁱ In South Jutland,^{kk} *Sleswick*^{ll} is the capital of the dutchy to which this city gives its name, whose true orthography is *Schleswig*,^{mmm} because it is situated at the extremity of the arm of the sea called the *Schley*,ⁿⁿ on the border of which it rises in the form of an amphitheatre. The finest of its buildings is the castle of *Gottorp*,^{oo} the residence of the Governor-General of this dutchy, and of that of Holstein. *Flensburg*^{pp} or *Flensborg*, six leagues to the north of Sleswick, is a neat and well built town; its public squares are adorned with fountains; the town-house, exchange and theatre are handsome buildings. It is the most flourishing town in Jutland; it contains 10 sugar refineries, besides soap-works, oil-mills, and tobacco manufactories. Without its ill-preserved walls, there is a brass-foundry^{qq} and

^a "Horlogerie."—Among the manufactures of the island, are coarse pottery* and chimney clocks [small clocks for mantle pieces.] (Tuckey.)—P.

^b Rome manufactures porcelain. (Vosgien.)—Clay proper for potteries, and particularly useful in the manufacture of porcelain, is found in Bornholm. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c Moen (Pinkerton.) Mona, Mohn (Ed. Enc.) Mone (Enc. Meth.) Mone, Lat. *Mona* (Hubner.)—P.

^d "Fionie."—Lat. *Fionia*. Fr. *Fune*, *Fionie* (Vosgien.) Germ. *Fühnen* (Enc. Amer.)—P.

^e Dan. *Eje*, possession or property.—*Odensee* is said to be a corruption of *Ottense*. (Conway.)—P.

^f "College."—*Odensee* has a college, or gymnasium, with four professors. (Ed. Enc.)—There are only two universities in Denmark, viz. those of Copenhagen and Kiel.—P.

^g *Svendborg* (Morse.)—*Schwinburg* (Hubner.)—P.

^h *Langland*, or Long Island. (Tuckey.)—Dan. *lang*, long, and *land*.—P.

ⁱ Properly, from north-east to south-west, or nearly from north to south.—P.

^k The correct Danish orthography. It is variously spelt in different authors, not Danish—*Rudkiæbing* (Tuckey.) *Rudkiøping* (Morse.) *Rudcoping* (Vosgien.) The same remark will apply to the names of other Danish towns with the termination *kiæbing*, which corresponds with the Swedish *kæping*. See note ^o p. 1053.—P.

^l Laland.

^m This is doubtless a mistake for 40,000.—Population 40,000 (Tuckey.) 34,000 (Morse.)—P.

ⁿ *Mariebo* (Morse.)—*Mariebæ* (Tuckey.)—*Marieboe* (Rees' Cyc.)—Qu. Dan. *Marie*, Mary, and *boe*, to dwell.—P.

^o Dan. *Nykiæbing* or *Nyekiæbing* (New Town.)—P.

^p This should be written *Samsæ* (Sams Island.)—*Samsø* (Tuckey.) *Samsøe* or *Sams* (Morse.)—P.

^q Situated in the Little Belt, between Colding and Middelfart.—P.

^r There are two lights on *Anholt*. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^s Doubtless a mistake for *Lessæ*.—*Lessø* (Tuckey.) *Lessoe* (Morse.) *Læssoe* (Pinkerton.)—P.

^t *Aalburgh*, *Alburgh* (Eng.)—*Aalborg*, *Albourg* (Fr.)—Dan. *Aalborg* (Eel-town.)—P.

^u Jutland Proper, or the Province of Jutland.—P.

^x "Seminary"—It has a college with six professors. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^y "130 to 150 vessels arrive and clear out annually, and it has 60 to 70 trading vessels belonging to it." (Tuckey, vol. i. p. 298.)—P.

^z Dan. *Viborg*.—Wiborg, Wiburg (Ed. Enc.)—Wibourg (Fr.)—Wiburgh, Wyburgh (Eng.)—P.

^{aa} Dan. *Aarhus*.—Aarhus, Aarhus, Aarhusen (Ed. Enc.)—Arhus, Arhusen (Vosgien.)—P.

^{bb} The bay of *Kalce*. (Tuckey.)—Dan. *Kallæe Viig*. (Pinkerton.)—It is situated in a fine plain between the sea and lake *Gudde*, from which a broad canal passes through the town, dividing it into two equal parts, and communicating with the harbour. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^{cc} *Randersen* [with the article] (Hubner.)—P.

^{dd} *Guden Aæ* or *Aæ*, *Guden river*.—It is situated on the north shore of its gulf [the estuary of the *Guden-Aæ*,] five leagues from its entrance.—P.

^{ee} *Ribe*, *Ripen*, *Rypen*—Lat. *Ripa*.—P.

^{ff} *Nipsaa* (Tuckey. Vosgien.)—P.

^{gg} "Toiles"—linens.—There are two linen manufactories in Jutland, besides which a considerable quantity of linen is manufactured in the villages throughout the country. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^{hh} Lat. *Fredericia* (*Fridericia*. Enc. Meth.)—Dan. *Frederiksdode* (*Frederick's Cape*).—P.

ⁱⁱ The merchant vessels passing through the Little Belt pay toll at *Fredericia*.—The toll (duty) on all merchant vessels passing through the Great Belt, is paid at *Nyborg* [*Nyeborg*] in Funen. (Tuckey, vol. i. p. 299.—259.)—P.

^{kk} The Dutchy of Sleswick.—P.

^{ll} "Sleswig."—Sleswick, Slesvich, Sleswig. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^{mmm} Germ. *Schleswig*.—Dan. *Slesvig*.—Du. *Sleswyck* (Hubner.)—Eng. *Sleswick*.—P.

ⁿⁿ See note ^p p. 1062.

^{oo} The old palace of *Gottorp*, which is a large brick building, encircled with a rampart and moat, stands close to the town. (Ed. Enc.)—*Gottorp*, a strong and handsome castle, not far from the town of Sleswick, surrounded by the *Schley* (*Schleistroom*). (Hubner, *Korte Begryp der Geog.* p. 326.)—The castle of *Gottorp* is on an island in the river *Sley*, 2 miles N. W. [S. W. Vosgien] of Sleswick. (Morse.)—P.

^{pp} "Flensburg." Fr.—Dan. *Flensborg*.—Germ. *Flensburg*.—Eng. *Flensburgh*.—P.

^{qq} "Copper foundry."

extensive tile-works. Its harbour, situated at the western extremity of *Flensborg-Fiord*,^a is frequented annually by more than 800 vessels, 250 of which belong to the place. The territory lying between Flensborg and Sleswick still bears the name of *Angeln*.^b It is highly probable that this was a part of the country of the *Angli*, a people who perform so important a part in history, but who, according to the learned Weddegen, were only a colony of the *Angrivarii*, who occupied Holstein and a part of Westphalia.

Husum, at the mouth of the Hever;^c *Tondern*,^d on the Widau; *Apenrade*,^e whose small harbour, at the bottom of a gulf, carries on a considerable trade; and *Hadersleben*,^f on the eastern coast; small towns which we cannot entirely omit, because they are the capitals of bailiwicks, present nothing particular. Nor ought we to forget the small islands which border the western coast. *Fanwe*, more considerable than the island of the same name, which lies in the Little Belt,^g is inhabited by fishermen and builders of small merchant vessels: *Rømø*^h is less industrious: *Sylt* rears cattle, and produces good seamen: *Fahr*,ⁱ peopled by 6000 souls, is frequented for the purpose of sea-bathing, and possesses a bed of oysters, of which it sends a vast quantity to Hamburg; it is the rendezvous of so great a number of wild ducks, that it is estimated more than 100,000 are taken annually.^k *Nordstrand* possesses a valuable breed of horned cattle; its cows give each day 22 pints of milk: *Pelworm*,^l without the strong dikes that protect it, would be swallowed up by the sea; it forms, with *Nordstrand* and several small islets, the remains of a large island, the greater part of which disappeared under the waves in 1634.^m Near the eastern coast, *Alsen*, 7 leagues in length, and 2 in breadth, with a population of about 16,000 souls, is, from its woods, its small lakes, and its high state of cultivation, one of the most agreeable islands in the Baltic. *Sonderborg*, its chief town, possesses a royal castle,ⁿ a good harbour, and an academe-

my.^o *Arræ*,^p consisting of lands fertile in grain and kitchen vegetables, supports more than 8600 inhabitants.^q *Femern*,^r not less rich than the preceding, is better peopled;^s its inhabitants have preserved their ancient and simple manners. *Burg*, an ancient town which stands in the centre of the island, is the capital of a bailiwick.

The duchy of Holstein has several subdivisions, namely, Holstein properly so called, *Dithmarschen*,^t the lordship of *Pinneberg*, the county of *Randzau*,^u and the territory of the thirty parishes of the nobility.^x The capital of this feudal assemblage is *Gluckstadt*.^y It is regularly built on the right bank of the mouth of the Elbe;^z many canals intersect it, but drinkable water is so scarce, that the inhabitants are obliged to collect rain water in cisterns. It was founded in 1617, by Christian IV. *Kiel* is the most ancient town in Holstein, being mentioned in history as early as the eleventh century. It is distant about four miles from the Baltic, at the inland extremity of a small gulf, called the *Kieler Fiord*,^{aa} justly celebrated for its beauty. The harbour is secure, and well situated for trade: more than 500 vessels annually enter it. There is no extensive manufacture but that of hats. Kiel is a handsome town, and stands in the midst of delightful scenery. The borders of the firth are eminently beautiful, being lined with gentle rising grounds clothed with woods sweeping down to the edge of the water, while the lands around are in a high state of cultivation. Along the shore are several little villages, which enliven the prospect; and among the hills glides the river Swentin,^{bb} till it loses itself in the firth. On a hill, in the environs of the city, is seen a handsome royal palace built by the inhabitants. The church of St. Nicholas is a fine old building. The university, which was founded in 1665 by Christian Albert, duke of Holstein, is a plain and not very capacious building, affording no accommodation for the residence of students, nor even a sufficiency of apartments

^a Flensburgh Wick (Ed. Enc.)—Dan. *Flensborg Viig*.—P.

^b Angeln or Anglen, a district on the E. coast of Sleswick, between the bay of Flensburg and the river Schley. (Morse.)—P.

^c The Hever (Heever. Tuckey) is the name given to the gulf or arm of the sea between the island of Nordstrand and the mainland, as well as to the river on which Husum is situated.—P.

^d Tonder (Pinkerton.)—Tonderen or Tundern (Vosgien.)—Toendern (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e Appenrade, Apenrade (Ed. Enc.)—Apenrade, or Apenrode (Vosgien.)—Aabenrade (Pinkerton.)—Situated on a bay of the Baltic, N. of Flensborg.—P.

^f Haderslev (Pinkerton.)—Situated on a narrow bay making up from the Little Belt.—P.

^g See note ^a p. 1071.

^h Røm (Tuckey.)—Røm or Røm (Vosgien.)—P.

ⁱ Fahr or Fora (Morse.)—Fore or Fœhr (Enc. Meth.)—Fora, generally.—P.

^k Sylt is celebrated for its oysters, and for being visited in winter by vast flocks of wild ducks, of which 40,000 are said to be killed annually. (Tuckey, vol. i. p. 423.)—P.

^l Pelworm (Tuckey. Pinkerton.)—P.

^m Nordstrand, after repeated attacks in 1350, 1354, &c., was at length almost totally swallowed up in 1634. Such an inundation arose at 10 o'clock in the evening of Oct. 11, that there perished 6408 persons with 50,000 cattle; 1332 houses, 30 windmills and 6 churches were swept away by the waves. There remained but a high part of the isle now called Pelworm. (Pinkerton.)—P.

ⁿ Near the town, is the ancient castle of Sonderborg, in which Christian II. passed 17 years of captivity. (Tuckey.)—P.

^o "Gymnasium."

^p Doubtless a mistake for *Arræ*.—Aaroe or Arroë (Morse.)—Æroë (Pinkerton.)—Ærë (Tuckey.)—Situated in the Baltic, to the south of Funen.—P.

^q "Nearly 8000."—Population 7,573. (Morse.)—P.

^r Femern.

^s "—has a somewhat greater population."—Population 7,600. (Morse.)—P.

^t Dithmarsh, Dithmarsh (Eng. authors.)—Ditmarsen (Morse.)—Dithmarsen, Lat. *Dithmarsia* (Hubner.)—P.

^u Rantzow (Hubner.)—County of Barmstadt or New Ranzaw (Morse.)—The county of Pinneberg formerly belonged to the counts of Schaumburg. The line having become extinct, the county of Pinneberg was divided between the king of Denmark and the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, the latter taking the two parishes of Barmstedt [Barmstadt] and Elmshorn. This division was acquired in 1649, by the counts of Rantzow, in exchange for Rantzow and other possessions, [whence the county of Barmstadt or New Ranzaw.] (Hubner, p. 389—90.)—P.

^x Holstein, under the empire, was divided into Holstein Proper (Lat. *Holsatia Propria*), on the north—Rendsburg, capital of the royal, and Kiel, of the ducal portion; Wagerland (Lat. *Wagria*) on the east—Ploen, in the royal, and Rantzow and Eutin, in the ducal portion; Stormar (Stormarn. Lat. *Stormaria*) on the south—Gluckstadt, capital of the royal, and Trittow, of the ducal portion; and Dithmarsh (Lat. *Dithmarsia*) on the west—Meldorf (Meldorf,) capital of the royal, and Lunden, of the ducal portion. The greater part of Holstein was divided between the king of Denmark and the duke of Holstein-Gottorp. There were besides, the county of Barmstedt (see note ^u), the jurisdiction of the four cities (Kiel, Rendsburg, Itzeho and Oldeslo,) the two imperial cities of Hamburg and Lubec, &c. (Hubner.)—P.

^y Germ. *Gluckstadt* (Fortunate Town.)—Lat. *Tychopolis*, or *Fanum Fortunæ*. (Hubner.)—P.

^z On the right bank of the Elbe, near its mouth.—Brunsbittel, at the mouth of the Elbe, is 13 miles N. W. of Gluckstadt.—P.

^{aa} Gulf of Kiel (Tuckey.)—Kieler Wick [Dan. *Viig*, bay.]—(Enc. Meth.)—P.

^{bb} Schwentin.—P.

for the professors' use, many of whom (thirty in number)^a give lectures in their own houses. It is particularly distinguished for medical science, and the number of students is upon the increase. In 1806, they amounted to only 100: in 1820, they had increased to 270, of whom 50 were students of medicine.^b The opening of the new year is celebrated by the students in the following manner. Before midnight, they assemble in the market-place within a circle formed of torches, and when the clock has struck twelve, they sing Voss's celebrated hymn, beginning, "The year's last hour;" after which a general huzza hails the entry of the new year. They then go round the streets with their torches, halting at the professors' doors; while a deputed select body enter and present the students' congratulations. After receiving the professors' answers, a bonfire and hymn to liberty close their proceedings. The library of the university contains 60,000 volumes. The tone of society in Kiel is decidedly literary; and the university contains among its professors names of distinguished literary eminence. English literature is held in high estimation. Besides the university, it contains a celebrated Latin school,^c an orphan-house, a poor-house, two infirmaries, and a botanic garden; besides valuable private collections of pictures and antiquities.^d

Rendsburg^e is probably the best built city in Holstein; it stands upon the banks of a canal which unites with the Eyder. It is important on account of its arsenal, its magazines, its barracks, and above all, its fortifications. It is the principal fortress of continental Denmark, since the fortifications of Gluckstadt were razed. Rendsburg is interesting, as being the ancient limit of the Roman empire, notified by an inscription on one of the gates. *Heyde*^f is a small town only interesting from its schools. *Preetz*,^g upon the river Swentin, some miles to the south-east of Kiel, contains about 400 houses and 3000 inhabitants, and carries on some trade in the making of shoes and of soap. It contains what was originally a convent, but now converted into a sanctuary for the daughters of the Sleswick and Holstein nobility.^h It possesses also an orphan and a poor house; and the pastor's library, as it is called, founded in 1681 by a Hamburg clergyman, a native of Preetz, contains 9000 volumes. The *Probsty*ⁱ of Preetz is a district to the eastward of Kiel, and on the east side of the Fiord, containing a population of 6000 souls, occupying twenty-four towns or villages. The name is as old as the thirteenth century; and the people, who have lived during several centuries secluded from their neighbours, are believed to be a colony of the Wendians^k or Van-

dals, who inhabited the borders of the Baltic Sea, towards the mouths of the Oder and the Vistula. They are large in stature, with a physiognomy essentially distinct from both Danes and Germans; and their dress and manners also differ materially from the people around them, retaining, at their marriages and other great occasions, a variety of customs and ceremonies peculiar to themselves. Till within the last 40 or 50 years, the Probststeiers had no intercourse with strangers: it was positively forbidden, and the young people that married out of their own tribe were excluded from the society; but this state of seclusion is gradually wearing away, and probably, before the lapse of another half century, they will be completely mingled with the surrounding population. They are an agricultural people, and many of them in the harvest season go to a considerable distance for employment. They are also skilful in thatching, in plaiting of straw and similar works, besides weaving and spinning. The coast of the Baltic here is subject to great changes, and severe injury has been done by tempests and inundations, large tracts of land having been overflowed, and villages overwhelmed or insulated. The town of Preetz is the residence of the *probst* or provost of the *Probsty*.^l

To the south of Preetz lies the small town of *Ploen*,^m romantically situated on a stripe of land between two lakes, so narrow as scarcely to afford room for a single street. The southernmost of these two lakes is particularly beautiful, being adorned with overhanging woods and highly cultivated hills, with an island finely wooded. The town is crowned with a castle built on the summit of a steep hill, rising from the end of the principal street. About ten miles to the north of Gluckstadt, and on the river Stör or Stöer,ⁿ stands *Itzehoe*,^o anciently *Essefeld*, sheltered on the north by considerable woods. The streets are handsome, and many of them are planted, as usual, with trees. It is a town of some importance, and has ships employed in the Greenland trade. It has two churches. As early as 809, a strong castle was built here by Charlemagne. Near Itzehoe, on a sandy heath to the south, are to be seen a variety of green hillocks. These are artificial, are called *Hünengraber*,^p and are monuments of the old warriors of the North. They are not uncommon throughout Holstein. Many of them have been opened, and an apartment, rude enough, is generally found within, containing, besides an urn, an old sword, axc, or other weapon. Near Albersdorff, on the confines of Sleswick and Holstein, in what is called *De Brut-Kamp* (the "*Spouse's Plain*"),^q an oblong field inclosed with hedges and

^a Number of regular professors 19, besides 10 extraordinary. (Morse.)
—Number of professors, in 1785, twenty-four. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b There were about 300 students in 1785, when Mr. Coxé visited Kiel. (Ed. Enc.)—In 1818, the number of students was only 107. (Morse.)—P.

^c College—established in 1768. (Ed. Enc.)—P.
^d "Kiel, a handsome town, in the midst of delightful scenery, is important from its literary and charitable institutions. The library of its university contains 60,000 volumes. It is built on a tongue of land, at the extremity of a gulf of the Baltic, and has a secure harbour and a flourishing commerce; more than 500 vessels enter its port annually. On a hill in the neighbourhood of the town, is a handsome royal castle^l built by the inhabitants."—This is all the account of Kiel in the original.—P.

^e The commerce of Kiel has been much facilitated by the canal of Kiel, which unites the North Sea with the Baltic. It commences on the gulf of Kiel, three miles north of the town, and terminates at Rendsburg in the Eyder, which is navigable to its mouth in the North Sea. It admits vessels of 120 tons. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f The castle, which is finely situated, has an observatory. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g "Rendsburg."—Rendsburg (Tuekey.)—Rendsborg (Conway.)—P.
^h Heide (Hubner.)—P. ⁱ Preetz (Hubner.)—P.

^h Originally a priory for nuns—since the reformation, appropriated by the Lutheran nobility of Holstein as a place of retreat for females of their number. It is governed by a prioress, assisted by a provost (male) for the management of its affairs and the protection of its rights. The provostship (*probstey*) of Preetz is the domain attached to the convent. There are two other similar establishments in Holstein, viz. the abbey of Itzehoe and the priory of Utersen.—P.

ⁱ Germ. *probstey*, provostship.—P.

^k Wends (a Slavonic people.)—P.

^l See Downes' Letters from Mecklenburg and Holstein. Lond 1822. ^m Plæn (Vosgien.)—P.

ⁿ Stor, Stöer.—P.

^o Itzeho (Hubner.)—P.

^p Germ. *Hünengraber*, Giants' graves.—P.

^q Germ. *Der Braut-Kamp* (The Bride's Field or Enclosure.)—*De Brut Kamp*, must be in the Low Saxon dialect of the country.—P.

nearly encompassed with trees, is to be seen an immense mass of granite supported by five much smaller stones, and forming a kind of circular chamber within. All round the bottom of the hillock, on which this stone stands, grow oak-trees, thorns, sloe-trees, &c. In appearance it is similar to the cromlechs or Druidical altars, as they are supposed to be, which abound in Ireland, and their origin is probably similar. To the south of Itzehoe, in the middle of an elevated sandy plain, the famous obelisk is erected, which, according to popular tradition, was built by Henry, Count Ranzau,^a in the 16th century, in consequence of a wager he laid with Frederic II. of Denmark. "The conditions of this wager were, that the Count should build on his estate in one night a pyramid or obelisk, the top of which should be higher than that of the steeple of Krempe, a neighbouring village.^b He accordingly chose the loftiest situation he could find; and, assembling a number of workmen, raised within the limited time, and on the summit of the hill of Nordho, a low and rude obelisk of granite, supported by a square base, the top of which was thus more elevated than that of the steeple."^c The obelisk still remains; but the steeple and church of Krempe were blown up in January 1814, when employed by the Swedes as a powder-magazine. The obelisk has several curious inscriptions upon it. Henry, Count Ranzau, was a man of eminence in his age, attached to literature, and himself an author. In his castle of Wardsbeck^d did the celebrated Tyeho Brahe find an asylum, when, persecuted by his enemies, he withdrew from the island of Huen, and there did he remain, till invited to Prague by the emperor Rodolph II., where he died.

Elmshorn^e is an extensive and handsome town, lying on the banks of a small river, along which its streets sweep in a direction nearly circular. Some of the houses are very old, with pious sentences inscribed upon them. *Pinneberg* is a pretty little town, situated on the skirt of a forest, and watered by a small river. The approach to it is lined with oaks. *Oldesloke*,^f another handsome town, is situated on the river Trave, and is distinguished for its baths and salt-works. These last were established in the twelfth century by Count Adolphus II. of Holstein. *Altona*,^g on the right bank of the Elbe, at a short distance from the great trading city of Hamburg, is the second city in the Danish dominions. Its trade is considerable, and it carries on different manufactures, besides embarking deeply in the herring and whale fisheries: but the contrast is striking between the constant stir and bustle of the one city, and the comparative quiet and silence of the other. Altona seems a desert when compared with the never-ending activity that prevails in Hamburg. It is built partly on the declivity of a hill, and the streets are for the most part wide and airy. The *Palmaille* (Pall Mall) is a fine street of considerable length, with handsome houses, and along the middle of it runs a shady walk, bordered on each side by a double row of lofty trees—oaks, lindens, and

acacias. Altona was founded about the time of the Reformation by refugees of the old religion, who did not enjoy in Hamburg all the liberty they wished and were entitled to. Its vicinity to that city excited jealousy in the Hamburgers, and when it was burnt down in 1547, an ineffectual exertion was made to prevent its being rebuilt. Frederic III. of Denmark took it under his especial protection, and conferred upon it many favours.^h Notwithstanding its original inhabitants were Roman Catholics, Altona has ever been noted for religious toleration; and at this moment there are to be found in it all classes of religious parties, with perfect freedom of worship. There are in it churches or chapels belonging to the Lutherans, German and French Reformed, Roman Catholics, Mennonites, German and Portuguese Jews. The most remarkable event in the history of Altona, is its destruction by the Swedes on the 9th January 1713, a blot in the history of that honourable people. Voltaire relates it in his usual lively manner. The Danes had burnt Stade, a city in the duchy of Bremen, then part of the Swedish dominions. After the victory obtained by Steinbock,ⁱ the Swedish general, at Gadebusch in Mecklenburg, over the Saxons and Danes, he determined to avenge the loss of Stade by the destruction of Altona, then a flourishing city. "Arriving in sight of Altona," says the historian, "he by a trumpet commanded the inhabitants to withdraw from the place with what they could carry with them, as he was determined to destroy it from the foundations. The magistrates threw themselves at his feet, and offered one hundred thousand crowns in name of ransom. Steinbock demanded two hundred thousand. The Altonese begged time to send to their correspondents in Hamburg, and promised payment by the day following. The Swedish general replied that the money must be instantly paid, otherwise Altona would be set on fire. The soldiers were already in the suburbs with torches in their hands; and the city was without defence, except a wooden gate and a ditch completely dry. On the 9th January 1713, during an exceedingly cold season, and in the middle of the night, these unfortunate people were compelled to fly. A violent wind from the north, while it increased the cold, helped to spread the flames throughout the city, and to render more insupportable the sufferings to which the people were exposed in the open fields. Men and women, bending under the burden of such moveables as they were able to take with them, hurried along, weeping and lamenting, towards the neighbouring rising grounds, at the time covered with snow. Some people were to be seen carrying on their shoulders the aged and paralytic. Several women newly accouchées escaped with their infants, only to die of cold on the rising grounds, from whence they beheld their homes in flames. The inhabitants had not all of them left the city, when the Swedes set fire to it. The houses were almost wholly of wood, and so quickly did the flames perform their work, that next day it would scarcely have been known that a flourishing city

^a Henry Ranzau or Ranzovius. (Ed. Enc.)—See note ^a p. 1072.—P.

^b Krempe, a town in Holstein, near Itzehoe—population, 1000. (Morse.)—P.

^c Downes' Letters from Mecklenburg and Holstein. Lond. 1822.

^d Wansbeck, Lat. *Wandesburgum*. (Ed. Enc.)—Wandsbeck (Büsching.)—P.

^e Elmshorn (Morse.)—P.

^f Qu. *Oldesloke*.—Oldeslo (Hubner.)—Oldesloe (Vosgien.)—P.

^g Altena or Altona (Vosgien. Morse.)—Altenau, Lat. *Altenaria* (Hubner.)—P.

^h In 1640 it became subject to Denmark, and was constituted a city in 1664. (Ed. Enc.)—The reign of Frederick III. extended from 1648 to 1670.—P.

ⁱ Magnus Steinbock (Swed. *Stenbock*.)—P.

had stood there! To add to the misery of these poor people, thus ferociously driven from their homes,—when the aged, the sick, and the women of feeble constitutions dragged themselves to the gates of Hamburg, and begged admission, it was refused, on the pretext that there had been in Altona contagious sickness, and that they durst not expose their own city to the risk of infection!"^a How true are the words of the English poet:

"There is no flesh in man's obdurate heart;
It does not feel for man!"

COWPER.

The remains of Klopstock lie in a burial-ground at *Ottensen*, a village, which, from its proximity, may be reckoned a suburb of Altona.^b Between Altona and Hamburg are the cemeteries belonging to the latter city, remarkable for their neatness and simplicity, being laid out in compartments, intersected by avenues, and planted with the black poplar, weeping ash, lindens, &c. The fishing-village of Blankenese,^c on the banks of the Elbe, below Altona, is deserving the attention of the traveller from its cleanness and picturesque situation.^d

The small dutchy of Lauenburg formerly made part of the French department of the Mouths of the Elbe; by the treaty of 1815 it fell to Prussia, and was by that power exchanged for Swedish Pomerania, which had been given to Denmark by Sweden in exchange for Norway. This dutchy is divided into two bailiwicks. *Ratzeburg* is its capital, picturesquely situated in an island on a lake to which it has given its name, and communicating by two bridges with the opposite shores. The town itself is built entirely of red bricks, and the houses are roofed with red tiles, so that to the eye it presents a clump of red brick dust. It is a place of great antiquity, the church having been erected in 1157.

^a Voltaire, *Histoire de Charles XII.* liv. 7.

^b Altona was originally a village in the parish of Ottensen. (Ed. Enc.)—Ottensen was one of the parishes, constituting the old county of Pinneberg, that fell to the share of Denmark, after the extinction of the house of Schaumburg in 1640. See note ^u p. 1072.—P.

^c Blankenese (Morse.)—Blankennie (Tuckey.)—P.

^d "Rendsburg may be considered the best built town in Holstein; it is situated on the banks of a canal which unites with the Eyder.* It is a place of importance from its arsenal, its magazines, its barracks, and especially its fortifications. It is the principal fortress in continental Denmark,† now that the fortifications of Gluckstadt have been razed. Heyde and Preetz are small towns, interesting only from their schools. Pinneberg is merely a village, but Altona, on the right bank of the Elbe, is, next to Copenhagen, the largest city in the kingdom, and the only one that carries on a flourishing commerce; it also possesses the most important manufactures. It contains all the useful institutions and places of amusement that distinguish opulent cities, and it is extensively engaged in the herring and whale fisheries."—This is all the account, in the original, of the towns in Holstein, from Rendsburg to Altona, inclusive.—P.

* Rendsburg is situated at the point where the canal of Kiel joins the Eyder.—It is divided by the Eyder into the old and new town; the former in Sleswick; the latter in Holstein. (Tuckey.)—P.

† Its garrison is usually 3000, but it has accommodations for 15,000. (Tuckey.)—P.

^e "Ratzeburg is its capital, it is situated on an island in a lake, to the last of which it has given its name. By means of the small river Wackenitz, it carries on an active communication with the port of Lubeck. But what is peculiar to Ratzeburg, is the circumstance that two of its quarters, called *Domholt* and *Palmberg*, belong to the grand duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz." M. B.—The town of Ratzeburg originally belonged in part to the county of Ratzeburg, and in part to the bishopric of Ratzeburg; the greater part to the former, and the cathedral (*domkirche*), with the quarter called *Palmberg*, in its vicinity, inhabited by the principal families dependent on the bishopric, to the latter. The bishopric possessed only this part of Ratzeburg, and the bailiwick (*amt*) of Schönberg, not far distant, in the direction of Lubeck. The county of Ratzeburg afterwards fell to the dukes of Lauenburg, and the bishopric to the dukes of Mecklenburg, whence the present division of the town.—P.

^f "Faience"—delft.

The small river of Wackenitz forms a means of active communication between Ratzeburg and the port of Lubeck. But the greatest peculiarity about Ratzeburg is that two of its quarters, called *Domholt* and *Palmberg*, belong to the grand-duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz.^e *Lauenburg*, the capital of a bailiwick, is the most southern city in Denmark; it stands upon the right bank of the Elbe, at the point of junction of that river and the canal of Steckenitz. It contains soap-works, breweries, and manufactories of common Dutch-ware:^f the toll established upon the Elbe brings in 75,000 florins per annum. Lauenburg derives its name from an old castle, of which the remains are still seen, built by Henry the Lion, and named in honour of him, *Læwenburg* (Fort of the Lion.)^g In this castle was signed, in 1803, the treaty by which Hanover was given up to France.

Situated between the Shetland Islands and Iceland, the archipelago of *Færoe*^h is attached to the government of Iceland. However, this small archipelago, which rises in the midst of the Atlantic Ocean, belongs to Europe; whilst Iceland, considered in a physical relation, is a dependency of Greenland, a country which forms part of America.ⁱ The *Færoe* or *Færøer* Islands^k were discovered during the ninth century by the Norwegians, who formed a settlement there.^l They gave them the name of *Færøer*, from the word *faar*, which, in the Scandinavian language, signifies *sheep*, because that animal was found in sole possession of the islands.^m These islands are thirty-five in number, seventeen of which are inhabited.ⁿ The total population is about 6000 souls.^o *Strømæø*^p is the largest; it is thirteen leagues in length by five in breadth: *Asteræø*, to the west,^q and *Suderæø*, to the south,^r are the next in importance: the others, namely, *Sandæø*, *Waargæø*, *Bordæø*, *Winderæø*,^s dimin-

^g Literally, Lion-Fort or Castle.—P.

^h This is probably intended for *Færoe* [*Færøer*?]—at least, it is so arranged in the Index to the original.—See notes ^k and ^m.—P.

ⁱ Iceland is described, book lxxvii.

^k Faro or Ferro Islands (Guthrie.)—Færoe (Ed. Enc.)—Færoe or Færøer Islands (Morse.)—Færoe Islands (Tuckey.)—Færo, Fære, Faro, or Færøer (Enc. Meth.)—Fero, Ferro, or Fære; Lat. *Insulæ Glessariæ*. (Hubner.)—See note ^m.—P.

^l The Færoe Islands appear to have been resorted to long before Iceland was discovered [Iceland was discovered about the year 860, by a Norwegian pirate named Naddodur, who was accidentally driven on the coast while on a voyage to the Faro Islands;] and the same cause, the subjugation of the petty states of Norway by Harold the fair haired, led to the colonization of both in the ninth century. [Iceland was colonized from Norway, in the year 874.] (Ed. Enc.)—The Færoe (*Færoer*) Islands were discovered about the year 861, and between 860 and 872, three navigators visited Iceland. (Malte-Brun, *Hist. Géog.* p. 390.)—P.

^m The proper Danish orthography, according to this etymology, is *Færøer* (Sheep Islands.) from Dan. *faar*, Swed. *får*, sheep, and Dan. *øer* (plu. of *ø*), islands.—Their name is thought to be derived from *faer*, a sheep, and *ø*, an island, or from *fær*, feathers, or finally from *fiær*, distant, as relative to their position with respect to Norway. (Tuckey, vol. iv. p. 408.)—These words, in Tuckey, are not all in the Danish. *Fær* should be *faar*, and *fiær*, *fiærn*, in that language.—P.

ⁿ The group consists of 22 islands,* of which seventeen are inhabited. (Ed. Enc. Tuckey.)—P.

* 25. (Morse.)—24; 12 large, and 12 small. (Vosgien.)

^o 5,500, in 1827. (Stat. Tab. 5500.)—5209, in 1812, by census. (Ed. Enc.)—4409, in 1782. (Tuckey.)—P.

^p Dan. *Strømæø* (Stream Island); the central island of the group.—*Stromø* (Tuckey.)—*Stromøe* (Ed. Enc.)—*Stromoe* (Morse.)—P.

^q This should be *Esteræø* (Dan.) Eastern Island.—*Osterø* (Tuckey.)—*Osterøe* (Ed. Enc.)—*Osteroe* (Morse.) It is situated to the east of *Strømæø*, from which it is separated by a narrow channel.—P.

^r *Suderæø* (Southern Island), the southernmost of the group.—*Suderø* (Tuckey.)—*Suderøe* (Ed. Enc.)—*Suderoe* (Morse.)—P.

^s *Sandæø* (Sand I.)—*Vaagæø* (Waargæø is erroneous)—*Vaagøe* (Ed. Enc.)—*Vaagæ* (Tuckey.)—*Bordæø* (Table I.)—*Videræø* (Farther I.) is the correct orthography, not *Winderæø*—*Viderøe* (Tuckey.)—P.

ish gradually in size, and are surrounded by twenty-eight still smaller islands, the extent of some of which is less than a square league. The greater part of these islands are covered with mountains of igneous origin, which rise from 1800 to 2000 feet above the level of the sea; the decomposition of the rocks of which they are formed, produces a gravelly and blackish earth, which is covered with pasturage so much the richer from its being watered by numerous rivulets; bays deeply indented surround these islands, and increase the dangers presented by a navigation full of rocks and rapid currents. The climate is not so cold as the latitude would seem to indicate;^a the frosts last little more than a month, and the winter is seldom rigorous enough to cover the bays with ice. Summer, however, continues only during the two months of July and August; but by one of those compensations which the wisdom of nature presents, the furious storms which desolate these

^a They lie between 61° 20' and 62° 30' of north latitude, and between 7° 55' and 10° 25' of west longitude from Paris. [They lie between 61° 20' and 62° 25' N. and between 6° 15' and 7° 43' W. long. from Greenwich. (Ed. Enc.)—P.]

^b "Legumes."—This may signify vegetables cultivated for their roots or leaves, such as turnips, potatoes, cabbages, &c. as well as pulse or leguminous plants.—Barley and rye are the only cultivated grains, and carrots and potatoes the only vegetables. (Tuckey.)—The inhabitants being regularly supplied from Denmark with barley and rye, and sometimes with pease, the cultivation of grain is carried to a very small extent. Barley, turnips and potatoes are the principal crops cultivated. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c This might be translated very fine (*assez fine*).—In the Shetland Islands, is a breed of sheep, running wild among the hills, remarkable for the fineness and softness of its wool, which is chiefly employed for knitting gloves and stockings. Some of the stockings have been knit so fine as to sell at 40 shillings the pair. This breed is also found in the mountainous parts of Sweden and Norway. Its wool is short and very fine, like down, intermixed with some long hairs. The Argali or wild sheep, to which it approaches nearest of any breed appropriated by man, has the same fine close down, particularly in winter, under a covering of coarse hair. Ed. Enc. art. Shetland. Rees' Cyc.

islands purify the air, by dispersing the pestilential miasmata which otherwise would threaten the inhabitants. Wheat rarely ripens, but barley, rye and leguminous plants^b succeed well. However, the rearing of cattle is much more attended to than agriculture. The horse, the ox, and other domestic animals, are of a good breed, but small size; the sheep are covered with a tolerably fine fleece.^c The whale and herring fisheries, and the pursuit of aquatic birds,^d bring great profits to the inhabitants. The knitting of woollen stockings is also beneficial;^e they export about 120,000 pairs per annum. The Færoe Islands are divided into six districts and seventeen parishes,^f the government of which is confided to a bailiff^g who resides at *Thorshavn*,^h the only town in the islands. It is situated on the eastern side of the island of Strømøe; a small fort defends it, and a church, an academy,ⁱ a Latin school, and an hospital, are its principal edifices.

art. Sheep. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. Scot. vol. i. p. 394 (Delting,) vol. v. p. 188 (Unst.) and vol. x. p. 198 (Bressay).—P.

^d Bird-catching is extensively pursued on the rocky coasts of these islands, in a manner similar to that mentioned in the account of Norway, p. 1043.—P.

^e "The knitting of woollen stockings is, next to these, the most profitable employment."—Stockings and knit jackets are at present the chief articles of export. (Ed. Enc. 1817.)—P.

^f There are seven parishes, and 39 places of worship, in the islands. The religious establishment is under the superintendance of a provost. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g The civil establishment is under the direction of a military officer, commanding 30 men. Under the commandant are, the *landfoged** or treasurer, who also performs the duties of high-sheriff, and the *sysselment* or governors of districts. The commandant and the *landfoged* both reside at Thorshavn (Ed. Enc.)

* Dan. *lund*, and *foged*, bailiff or judge.

† Dan. *sysselmand*—*syssel*, a district, and *mand*, man.

^h Dan. *Thorshavn*.—Eng. *Thorshaven*. (Tuckey.)—P.

ⁱ "Gymnasium."—It contains a Latin school, and a wooden church covered with slate. (Tuckey.)—P.

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF

THE DANISH MONARCHY.

Administrative Divisions of the Danish Possessions in Europe.

I. DENMARK PROPER.

1. DANISH ISLANDS.

Provinces and Dutchies.	Islands.	TOWNS.	Population.
Zealand ^a	Zealand ^a	COPENHAGEN ^b	104,000
		Røskilde	2,000
		Frederiksborg	1,200
		Elseneur	7,000
		Steege	1,000
Bornholm	Bornholm	Rønne	2,500
		Thorshavn	1,500
Funen	Funen	ODENSEE	7,000
		Scenborg ^c	2,000
		Rudkiøbing	1,200
Laaland	Laaland	MARIBEE	2,000
		Falster	Nykiøbing ^e

2. NORTH JUTLAND.

Aalborg	AALBORG	AALBORG	6,500
		Thisted ^d	1,000
Viborg	VIBORG	VIBORG	5,000
Ribe ^f	RIBE ^f	RIBE ^f	2,000
		Fredericia	4,000
Aarhus ^g	AARHUUS ^g	AARHUUS ^g	6,000
		Randers	4,500

3. SOUTH JUTLAND.

Sleswick	Sleswick	SLESWICK	8,000
		Flensborg	16,000
		Husum	4,000
		Tondern	2,500
		Apenrade	3,000
		Hadersleben	3,500
		Sonderborg	2,500
		Burg	1,500
		Alsen	
		Femern	

II. GERMAN PROVINCES.

Holstein	Holstein	GLUCKSTADT ¹	5,000
		Kiel	7,000
		Rendsburg	6,000
		Heyde	2,500
		Preetz	3,000
		Altona	24,000
Lauenburg	Lauenburg	RATZEBURG	2,000
		Lauenburg	2,500

Population of the States of Denmark, according to the census made at the end of 1827.

EUROPE.

Danish provinces, comprising the dutchy of Sleswick	1,521,270	} 1,937,150
Dutchy of Holstein	374,740	
Do. of Lauenburg	35,640	
Feroe Isles ^m	5,500	

^a "Sælland."—Selande or Sælland (Enc. Meth.)—Selande or Zelande (Vosgien).—The above are French.—Zealand, generally in English authors.—Lat. *Selandia* (Vosgien); *Zealandia* (Hubner).—Du. *Zeeland* (Hubner).—Germ. *Seeland*.—Dan. *Sjælland*, or *Siælland*.—P.

^b The names in small CAPITALS are those of the chief towns of provinces; the names in italics, those of the chief towns of bailiwicks.

^c Møen, p. 1071. (See note ^b.) ^d Strømnee, p. 1075—6.

^e Svendborg (M. B. (p. 1071.) Tuckey. Pinkerton).—Svenborg (Morse).—Sevenborg (Ed. Enc.).—Suevenborg, Sevenborg (Vosgien).—Schwinburg (Hubner).—P.

^f Langeland, p. 1071. (See note ^b.)

AMERICA.

Iceland	49,820	} 55,560
Greenland	5,740	
Antilles	46,290	} 46,290
Island of St. Thomas		
St. John		
St. Croix		

AFRICA.

Coasts of Guinea—Christiansborg, Frederiksborg, and some forts	25,000	25,000
--	--------	--------

ASIA.

Hindustan—Tranquebar and Serampore ⁿ	61,000	61,000
---	--------	--------

Total of the Danish possessions . . . 2,125,000

Views of the Danish Population in Europe.

Surface in square leagues 2,865 Inhabitants per square league 677

	Legitimate.	Illegitimate.	Total.
Births in 1827	34,315	2639	36,954
Deaths in 1827			26,160

Excess of births over deaths 10,794

Proportion of illegitimate to legitimate children	1 to 14
of deaths to births	2 to 3
of births to the population	1 to 52
of deaths to the population	1 to 74

European Population according to their Language.

Speaking Danish	1,320,000 individuals.
German	550,000
Anglo-jutic ^o	18,000
Frieslandic ^p	49,000

Number of Domestic Animals.

Horses 500,000. Horned cattle 1,100,000. Sheep 1,500,000

Average Exports of Domestic Animals.

Stallions 3,000. Mares 12,000. Cows 4,000. Swine 18,000.

Military and Naval Force.

Army	38,800 men. ^q	
Navy	Ships of the line	4
	Frigates	7
	Vessels of inferior size	18

Finances.

Revenue in francs 40,000,000. Public debt 270,000,000.

^g See note ^o p. 1071.

^h Tysted (Morse).—Situating on the north side of the Lym-Fiord, near its western extremity.—P.

ⁱ See note ^{ee} p. 1071.

^k See note ^{aa} p. 1071.

^l "Glückstadt."—See note ^v p. 1072.

^m See note ^k p. 1075.

ⁿ "Tranquebar and Frederiksnagor."

^o "Anglo-jotic."

^p "Frisian or Frisic (*Frison*)."—See notes ⁿ and ^p p. 1064.

^q According to M. Thaarup, Danish counsellor of state, the army in 1825, was 60,000 strong.

BOOK CL.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued—Belgium, or the Netherlands.^a

THE country inhabited by the different tribes of the *Belgæ*, from whom Belgium takes its name, was of much greater extent than the modern territory which goes by that name. From the general description given of it by Cæsar, and a comparison of the particular districts, (so far as it can be ascertained,) inhabited by the tribes forming the nation of the *Belgæ*, its bounds seem to have extended from the mouth of the Seine in the English channel to, or nearly to, the banks of the Rhine, the Seine (*Sequana*) and the Marne (*Matrona*) forming the southern boundary, and thus to have embraced not only the Netherlands or Belgium properly so called, but the whole province of Picardy, and such parts of Normandy, the Isle of France, Champagne and Lorraine, as lie within the above line, besides part of the Prussian States, lying to the westward of the Rhine. In this country lay the immense forest of the Ardvenna (*Silva Ardvenna*, Cæsar, l. 5.)^b embracing, it appears, great part of the country lying between the Meuse and the Rhine, and the remains of which are still extant in the Forest of the Ardennes. The *Belgæ* distinguished themselves by their bravery and their determined opposition to Roman encroachment and usurpation. Cæsar styles them "the bravest of all the Gauls," and he assigns, as reasons for this, their distance from the civilization and politeness of Roman Gaul, their thus little intercourse with their more civilized neighbours, and their frequent wars with the Germans on the other side of the Rhine.^c It is obvious from his own account, that he had but little to boast of in his wars with these high-spirited tribes, but ultimately they were borne down under the overwhelming pressure of the gigantic power of Rome, and compelled to acknowledge her authority. Yet it would appear, that, all along, some of the tribes upon the coast, as well as their maritime neighbours on the north side of the Rhine, yielded but a nominal subjection to the supremacy of Rome, and maintained, till the fall of that empire, a considerable share of inde-

pendence. When Rome, in the fourth and fifth centuries, fell by its own weight, and through the incessant attacks of the northern nations, the Belgian provinces became the prey of these intruders, principally of the Saxons and Franks. Without attempting, where in point of fact history gives but little information, to trace the early history of Belgium, suffice it to say, that it formed part of the great empire of Charlemagne, but during the feeble reign of his successors both in France and Germany, it fell under the power of independent chieftains, with territories more or less extensive. During the same period, many of the cities acquired not only immense wealth in the pursuit of commerce, but privileges amounting almost to independence of their local sovereigns. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, Belgium fell under the power of the powerful house of Burgundy, from which it passed by marriage to the house of Austria about the commencement of the sixteenth century, and at the division of the Austrian family into two branches, the Spanish (the elder branch) and German, it became part of the immense possessions of the Spanish branch. From various causes, it failed to acquire its liberty when the seven more northerly provinces threw off the Spanish yoke, and remained part of the Spanish monarchy till the war of the succession in the beginning of the eighteenth century, when, at the peace of Utrecht, Belgium became part of the possessions of the German branch of the house of Austria. With that family it continued till conquered by the French in 1794 and 1795, and with them it remained as a part of the French empire, till the downfall of Napoleon's power in 1814. In opposition to the wishes of the people, who utterly disliked an alliance or union with the Dutch, Belgium, by the fiat of the allied powers, became part of the new kingdom of the Netherlands under the Orange family.^d

Let us now cast a glance on the political organization of what *was* the monarchy of the United Netherlands.^e According to a constitutional law promulgated on the

^a This and the following Book are greatly modified by the translator, in order to adapt them to the present state of Holland and Belgium. The title of the Book, corresponding to this in order, in the original, is: Description of the Kingdom of the Netherlands.—Section First.—Dutch Provinces;—that of the Book, corresponding to the next, is: Description of the Kingdom of the Netherlands.—Section Second.—Belgic Provinces, and the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg.—The term Netherlands, here given as synonymous with Belgium, properly includes all the Low Countries, and is so used in the expression, Kingdom of the Netherlands. Indeed, Low Countries (Fr. *Pays-Bas*) is only a translation of Netherlands, the Teutonic form of the word (Du. *Nederlanden*; Germ. *Niederlande*.) When the people of the Netherlands revolted against Spain, the seven Northern Provinces, having united under a confederacy, and also having embraced the Protestant religion, were called the United Netherlands (United Provinces, or United States,) and also the Protestant Netherlands, while the ten

Southern Provinces, remaining under the power of Spain, and adhering to the Catholic religion, were called the Spanish Netherlands (afterwards, having passed under the House of Austria, and partly into the possession of France, the Austrian and French Netherlands,) and also the Catholic Netherlands. The term Netherlands has, however, though improperly, been confined to the Belgic Provinces, and is so employed by Pinkerton, while the term Holland, properly the name of a single province, has in like manner been extended to the whole of the Dutch Provinces.—P.

^b *Sylva Ardvenna*, Cæsar. Bell. Gall. lib. v. § 3.—P.

^c Cæsar. de Bel. Gal. lib. I. c. i.

^d The above paragraph is added by the translator.—P.

^e "—on the political organization of the Netherlandish monarchy (*monarchie netherlandaise*)"—kingdom of the Netherlands. (See note ².)—The original was published in 1829.—P.

24th of August 1815, it was governed by a king, who, sharing the legislative power with the States General divided into two chambers, alone had the right of making peace or war, of concluding alliances, and of ratifying treaties. There was, however, an obligation upon him to advise with the States,^a whenever the interest or the safety of the country demanded it. The sovereign disposed of civil and military employments, conferred the order of nobility, and governed at his pleasure the colonies. He proposed laws to the Chambers, but they, on the other hand, had also the power of submitting propositions to him which he might adopt or reject. The crown was declared hereditary in the male line, following the right of primogeniture; but females might be called to the throne, after the complete extinction of the male line. The nation was divided into three classes, viz., the nobility or equestrian order, the order of the citizens or mercantile order, and that of the inhabitants of the country or landed and agricultural interest.^b The order of the nobility was represented in the States General by the Upper Chamber, composed of from forty to sixty members, whose prerogatives, conferred by the king, were not hereditary, but for life merely. The Lower Chamber comprehended 110 deputies, nominated by the provinces, one half by the Belgian, and the other half by the Dutch provinces. These two Chambers, forming the national representation, were assembled every year. In each province, questions of a more immediate or local interest were submitted to the deliberation of deputies from the three orders, who formed the Provincial States, and whose members enjoyed equal rights, equal independence, and equal freedom. These States assembled as often as the king called them together, but at least once a-year.

There are perceivable, in the ensemble and in the details of this organization, advantages not possessed by either the English constitution or French charter.^c But the parliamentary debates of the Low Countries revealed to Europe the vicious tendency of many laws then in force, and certain alterations were imperiously called for, such as an alleviation in the burden of taxes, and the introduction of various institutions indispensable to the happiness of the nation, viz. the entire freedom of the press, the establishment of juries, and the irremovability of judges. The punishments attendant upon delinquencies of the press, were of a severity not proportioned to the present state of things. One law allowed judges to inflict, for the repression of certain offences, arbitrary punishments, and those of the most degrading nature, such as branding and whipping. It cannot be said that the government of the United Netherlands^d was altogether opposed to the necessities of the country; several abuses were redressed, and the new methods of instruction were not, as in France, through the instigation and clamours of a stationary but powerful faction,^e stigmatized as both immoral and dangerous. Hence the number of scholars has been, in Belgium,

nearly twice the number of that in France, in proportion to the population of the two countries.^f

It has been already remarked, that the people of Belgium were not consulted, when the Belgian provinces were, along with the seven Dutch provinces, formed into one kingdom. The object of the great European powers, who took upon them to model the smaller states as they thought proper, in carrying through this union, was to form, in a quarter which had always been open to French attack, and presented no proper barrier of resistance, a state sufficiently powerful, especially when supported by Great Britain and Prussia, to repel aggression on the part of its southern and powerful neighbour, and prevent Belgium from becoming what had been so often the case, a mere arena of contention between France and Austria. There were many things, however, that tended to make this union disliked by the Belgians. There existed strong feelings of aversion to the Dutch, arising from different causes, among others, the difference of their religion, the Dutch being of the Reformed religion, while the Belgians were bigoted Roman catholics. Besides, having been for twenty years united to the French empire as an integral part of it, and finding a ready market there for their internal productions, their interests, and their habits and predilections were all French. This was particularly the case in the southern provinces, and in the grand dutchy of Luxemburg. In such a state of things, much wisdom and deep and continued attention to the interests and feelings of the different parties, was on the part of the rulers necessary, to reconcile conflicting opinions and prejudices on one side and another. To give consistency, and insure duration to a body formed of such heterogeneous materials, it became necessary that a paternal government should guarantee to all, by means of the advantages of a representative system, liberty civil and religious, showing impartiality in the conferring the rewards of the state, and taking care not to shock the prejudices of the Roman catholics in Belgium, who were naturally jealous of a protestant sovereign, and of the predilections which he might be supposed to have towards his Dutch and Protestant subjects.

There is too much ground to believe that the Belgians had just cause of complaint against the government of the King of the Netherlands. The severe measures which were adopted to check, as was said, the licentiousness of the Brussels press, with the manifest partiality of the government towards its Dutch subjects, combining with other causes of complaint, and with the dislike that had all along been felt towards the union with Holland, produced a spirit of almost universal dissatisfaction throughout all the Belgian provinces; and the revolution at Paris in the close of July 1830 was the signal for another at Brussels in the month of August following, which has ended in the separation of Belgium from Holland. It appears that the allied powers have consented to this, but difficulties have arisen in the final

^a "—to communicate his measures to the States."—The person of the king was inviolable, but his ministers were responsible.—P.

^b "The nobility or equestrian order," the order of the towns, and the order of the country"—the last corresponding to the order of peasants in the Swedish diets.—P.

^c In all the nations on the continent of Gothic origin, the nobility is called the class or order of Knights (Germ. *Ritterstand*, Du. Dan. *Ridderstand*, Swed. *Riddarstånd*).—P.

^e This has a reference to the state of things in France previous to the revolution in 1830.—*Trans.*

^d "Pays-Bas"—Netherlands or Low Countries.—See note ^a p 1078.—P.

^e "A powerful stationary party"—party opposed to the progress of improvement.—The royalists and liberals, in France, in relation to this circumstance, are called the stationary and moving parties (*parti stationnaire—parti du mouvement*).—P.

^f This statement, in the original, refers to the whole kingdom of the Netherlands in 1829.—"The number of scholars, in proportion to the population, is nearly double that in France."—P.

settlement of the Belgian affairs and the choice of a sovereign, in consequence of the opposition expressed in Belgium to any member of the Nassau family occupying the throne, and the offence that may be given to the great powers of Europe in the object of their choice. A short time will decide a matter, it appears, intimately connected with the peace of the world.^a Let us now proceed with our description of the country.^b

In Belgium the asperities of the ground are merely small mountains, so small indeed that they may well be considered simply hills: they belong to a group of the Alpine range which predominates in France, and which we have called the Franco-Celtic.^c In like manner, those which extend into the grand duchy of Luxemburg and province of Liege, are merely a prolongation of the chain to which we have formerly given the name of the *Cevenno-Vosgian*.^d The branch of the Ardennes, which belongs to the same chain, extends into Hainault, and the provinces of Namur and Limburg.

The Low Countries are, by the smallness of their rise above the level of the ocean the rendezvous of several rivers which flow majestically across the sandy plains of this flat country. The *Scheld* (*L'Escaut*),^e on quitting the French territory, traverses part of Hainault, forms on the east the boundary of West Flanders, divides East Flanders into two parts, and forms the line of demarcation between East Flanders and the province of Antwerp. It then divides itself into two principal branches, which, in falling into the sea, form the islands that compose the province of Zealand. The *Meuse*, by the Belgians called *Maas*,^f takes its rise in Lorraine,^h

^a The allied powers have agreed by protocol to acknowledge the independence of Belgium, as a kingdom, and have guaranteed its political existence as such, and the integrity of its territory. The boundaries between Belgium and Holland are to be such as they were between the Seven United Provinces and the Austrian Netherlands, previous to the French revolution. The Belgian Congress have elected Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg for their sovereign, who now (Nov. 1831) occupies the throne as king of Belgium. The Dutch have recently invaded the country, and been driven back by the troops of France. The line of boundaries with Holland remains yet unsettled, and also the position of Luxemburg, the province having sent deputies to the Belgian Congress, and being claimed by the Belgians as a part of their territory, while the fortress of Luxemburg is held by the Dutch troops, and the duchy is claimed by the German Diet as a part of their confederacy, vested under their sanction in the king of the Netherlands, and reversible to the duke of Nassau, one of their confederates, consequently inalienable without their consent. (See note c p. 1062.)—Since writing the above, a treaty for the settlement of Belgium has been formed by the Allied Conference at London, which was immediately accepted by Belgium, and soon ratified by Great Britain and France. The other powers delayed their ratification, but the most recent accounts have stated its ratification by Austria and Prussia; its ratification by Russia, and acceptance by Holland, remaining still undecided. (May 1832.)—P.

^b The two last paragraphs are added by the translator.—P.

^c Description of France, p. 878.

^d Ibid.

^e "In Belgium, the greatest inequalities of the surface ought rather to be considered as hills than as mountains: they belong to that group of the Alpine system, which extends through the interior of France, and to which we have given the name of the *Franco-Celtic*. Consequently, those which extend into the grand duchy of Luxemburg and the province of Liege, are merely a prolongation of the chain which we have styled the *Cevenno-Vosgian*."—It should be recollected that *system*, *group*, *chain*, and *branch*, form the series of divisions, according to which mountains are arranged in this geography. The *Franco-Celtic* is a group of the Alpine system; the *Cevenno-Vosgian*, a chain of the Franco-Celtic group; and the Ardennes, a branch of the Cevenno-Vosgian chain.—P.

^f "The *Escaut*, called the *Schelde* in the dialect of Brabant (*Brabancon*)"—Scheldt, in most English authors; Scheld (Pinkerton); Germ. *Du. Schelde*; Fr. *Escaut*, *Escault*; Lat. *Scaldis*.—P.

^g Du. Germ. *Maas*—*Maase* (Kilian, 1642); Fr. *Meuse*; Eng. *Maes*, *Maese* or *Meuse*; Lat. *Mosa*.—P.

^h This statement is added by the translator.—The Meuse rises in the

and seven leagues from the frontiers of France, at the city of Namur, is joined by the *Sambre*; it then, after watering the provinces of Namur, Liege and Limburg separates North Brabant from Holland, and, uniting itself to the *Waal*ⁱ or the Rhine, takes its course to the German Ocean. After this junction, a popular error gives the usurped name of the *Maas* or *Meuse* to the united stream, proceeding upon the mistaken notion that the *Waal* or Rhine, the greater river, throws itself into the lesser river, the *Meuse*; whilst it is the *Waal*, the principal arm of the Rhine, which conveys the united waters to the ocean. Other arms less considerable preserve the name of the Rhine, and disappear amidst the sands near Leyden and in the gulf of Zuyderzee.^k

In Belgium there is no lake of any importance: the marsh called the *Peel*, in the provinces of Limburg and North Brabant, covers a great extent of ground.

A geological examination of the different formations in Belgium,^m exhibits in the most elevated part of it, namely, in the mountains of the grand duchy of Luxemburg, deposits of argilliteⁿ which extend towards the north, surrounded by granitic rocks,^o and on which there repose, towards the east, reaching as far as the Moselle, the older limestones^p containing organic remains; to the west, on the contrary, in descending towards Brussels, the argillite forms a great basin, filled with limestones containing anthracite,^q the combustible of the older formations, next with sandstone, and lastly, with all the rocks of the coal formation.^r What is most remarkable about these deposits, thus imbedded in the midst of the schists^s from whence the slate^t is taken, is, that the rocks

department of the Upper Marne in Champagne, and then flows through the departments of the Vosges and the Meuse in Lorraine, and that of the Ardennes also in Champagne, before it enters Belgium.—P.

ⁱ "Wahal."—Du. *Waal*—*Wael* (Kilian); Lat. *Vahalis*.—P.

^k Usually called, the *Zuyder Zee* (Southern Sea).—P.

^l See p. 1093 of this vol.

^m These remarks in the original refer to the whole kingdom of the Netherlands. They, however, apply chiefly to Belgium, Holland consisting almost entirely of alluvium, or at most of tertiary deposits.—P.

ⁿ "Schistes ardoisiers"—literally, roof-slate schists (clay slate, argillaceous schistus, or argillite).—P.

^o Argillite sometimes occurs in beds in gneiss and even in granite, it is then considered primitive, and furnishes some of the finest roof slates. The most extensive deposits of argillite, however, are transition, surrounding and overlaying the gneiss and granite, and associated with graywacke. Transition argillite also furnishes roof slates.—P.

^p "Calcaires anciens"—transition limestones.—In the country lying between the Ardennes on the west, and the Moselle on the east, and pervaded by the chain of the Eifel, noted for its extinct volcanoes, the fundamental rock is chiefly clay slate, associated with graywacke, and saccharoid magnesian limestone, containing trilobites, consequently transition, and covered in a few places with horizontal layers of new red sandstone. (Daubeny on Volcanoes.)—In the account of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine in this geography (Book cxx.) the limestone in the same district is called transition (*intermediaire*).—P.

^q Anthracite is more frequently imbedded in clay slate or graywacke, but some of the black transition limestones contain imbedded masses of anthracite, of which there are examples in the north of France. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^r The following is the translation of the above sentence, copied literally as it stands in the English edition. The reader may consider it as a fair sample of the manner in which the translator has treated matters of science. "A geological examination of the different earths (*terrains*) in Belgium shows us, in the most elevated part of it, viz., in the mountains of the grand duchy of Luxemburg, quarries of slate-stone which stretch towards the north, surrounded by granitic rocks, and above which there lie towards the east, as far as the banks of the Moselle, ancient limestone strata with organic remains; towards the west, on the contrary, descending towards Brussels, the schisti form a great basin filled with limestone and containing anthracites, the combustible of ancient earths, then sandstone, and lastly all kinds of rocks of carbonized earth."

^s Argillite.

^t "Roof-slate (*ardoise*)."

which compose them, in place of presenting themselves in inclined beds, rise vertically to the surface of the soil, and hence the immense coal-mines in the environs of Namur and Mons must be worked by means of shafts.^a What convulsions must have been necessary in order to give to these strata, originally horizontal, the disposition which they now present, whether we seek the cause of this disturbance in frightful sinkings of the ground, or in elevations from beneath proceeding from the terrible action of subterranean fires! Above the deposits thus reposing on the argillite, other more recent deposits, covered by the chalk formation, and this again by the clay and sand belonging to the tertiary formations, extend over the greater part of the Low Countries, from the frontiers of France to the mouth of the Ems, while the older formations occupy, beyond a line which may be traced from Tournay to Maestricht, all the country extending as far as the Moselle.

This country^b is furrowed by a great number of valleys and dales. "This irregularity of surface," says a Belgian savant,^c "the existence of a multitude of small streams, and the mixture of naked rocks with meadows, arable lands and small forests, give it a very picturesque appearance; but, as is the case in almost every country where the primitive formations predominate, the soil is unfruitful, with the exception, however, of the parts situated to the north of the Sambre and the Meuse, over which loose deposits of secondary formation have spread themselves; consequently, agricultural and mineral riches are there found united, which has led to the remark, that the miner and the mineralogist, accustomed to inhabit barren mountains, were astonished to find themselves, in Hainault, in the midst of plains covered with a brilliant vegetation, and where cultivation is carried to the highest pitch of perfection." The same observer has remarked, that, on the right bank of the Meuse, the disposition of the valleys presents two distinct modifications. Some of these valleys are straight, wide, and of little depth, bordered with gently sloping declivities, and extending from north-east to south-west; but they are intersected by irregular valleys of greater depth, running in every direction, and serving as beds to rivers:^d a disposition arising from the geological constitution of the country. The other valleys have no relation to the nature of the soil: they have not made their way through the hard rocks, and are stopped by arenaceous deposits. They appear to demonstrate that the excavation of valleys cannot be attributed to the erosive action of water,

^a "Pits (*puits*)"—not levels.—P.

^b That occupied by the older formations (primitive, transition, and older secondary).—P.

^c M. J. J. d'Omalus d'Halloy, *Mémoires pour servir à la description géologique des Pays-Bas, de la France.*

^d —serving as outlets (*écoulement*) to rivers."

^e There is to me an obscurity and a degree of contradiction in these remarks on the two classes of valleys, which I have not been able to remove. Is it not intended to state that the long, regular valleys, extending from north-east to south-west, are those which intervene between the ridges formed by the outgoings of the different formations, and that the irregular and deeper valleys, are those which cross these ridges? Such is the arrangement of the valleys in England between the tertiary basin of London, and the slate mountains of Wales; the different secondary formations from the chalk downwards, particularly those between the chalk and the new red sandstone, forming by their outgoings, long parallel ridges, from north-east to south-west, between which intervene valleys or troughs, of equal length and parallelism. These ridges are crossed by irregular secondary valleys, evidently of posterior formation, and apparently, from the rolled pebbles with which they are strowed, and which abound at their outlets, of

but to the disruptions that have taken place in the hardest rocks, of which the waters have taken advantage to make themselves a passage.^e

The quartzose rocks, and those which contain amphibole and form strata in the midst of the slate formation,^f are quarried to a great extent for the purpose of paving roads: in the formation which contains anthracite is found that great variety of marbles, constituting an important part of the mineral riches of the Low Countries, and especially that kind which derives from the numerous remains of marine organized bodies imbedded in it, the name of small granite (*petit granite*.) The same formation also contains in abundance rich ores of iron and lead, and gives birth to the celebrated thermal waters of Chaudfontaine^g near Liege. In the midst of the schistose rocks^h on the right bank of the Meuse, a country either barren or covered with forests, there are quarried those whetstonesⁱ which are sent to every part of Europe, and those schists charged with alum^k which are sold under the name of carpenters' pencils;^l lastly, from the same slate formation proceed the mineral waters of Spa, which have acquired in Europe so great celebrity.

In regard to climate, the provinces of Belgium differ from each other chiefly in their being subject to a greater or lesser degree of humidity. In the dutchy of Luxemburg, the climate is healthy and temperate, but rather moist than cold. The oak, the ash and the beech predominate in the extensive forests of that province; horned cattle find abundant pasturage; the vine is there cultivated to some extent, but produces an indifferent wine; fruit-trees are rare; wheat succeeds with difficulty, but the inhabitants derive great advantage from the cultivation of rye and oats, and particularly the potato. In the province of Liege the atmosphere is often lazy; its valleys, fertile and well cultivated, especially that watered by the *Ourthe* and the *Embeve*, yield, in addition to the productions of Luxemburg, wheat of excellent quality, and its territory is equally rich with the other in forests, in game, in swine, and in horned cattle. The air in the province of Namur is sharp and healthy; the soil, extremely various, readily admits of cultivation; the sheep have a finer wool, and their flesh is much more succulent, than in the two other provinces. In Hainault an air equally healthy is breathed, they enjoy a climate equally temperate, the same fertility is observable, and the forests, although more scattered, produce timber excellent for

aqueous formation, and frequently serving as passages for rivers, which commencing in one of the parallel valleys, and running for some distance in the line of its course, turn abruptly, without being obstructed in their direct progress by any solid impediment, and cross one of the ridges by a secondary valley into the next trough, and so on to the lowest. The corresponding formations in Belgium are arranged in the same way, the longitudinal ridges and valleys are the same, and the course of the rivers is similar; hence, I infer that the two classes of valleys are such as I have mentioned.—P.

^f Argillite.

^g Chaud-fontaine (For. Qu. Rev.)—Chaufontaine—in a valley, two leagues from Liege. (Vosgien).—P.

^h Argillite.

ⁱ "Hones (*pierres à rasoir*)"—novaculite. Generally found in argillite; the striped variety occurs in the vicinity of Namur.—P.

^k Aluminous Slate—a variety of argillite; employed in the manufacture of alum.

^l "Carpenters' crayons"—black chalk, drawing or marking slate; a variety of argillite. It occurs usually in the vicinity of alum slate, and is very nearly allied to it; but it contains more carbon, and less iron pyrites. (Ed. Enc.)—It is from the decomposition of the pyrites that the alum in these slates is formed.—P.

carpentry-work.^a West and East Flanders lie under the influence of a humid climate which frequently gives rise to dangerous fevers; the summer is hot but rainy, and the winter cold; the north-west winds often render the winter formidable in West Flanders, by the inundations which they occasion. Both these provinces rear horses, too heavy, indeed, for riding, but well adapted for the draught. The other domestic animals are remarkable for their fine condition, and for this they are indebted to the excellence of the pasturage. The vegetables which succeed best in Flanders are tobacco, hemp, madder, and, above all, flax, the principal riches of the country. Destitute of forests, but possessing abundance of peat, they make great use of this as fuel. The provinces of South and North Brabant, and Antwerp, are healthy, although moist; the soil is particularly fertile, except in the northern part of North Brabant, where heaths and forests of pine still cover some sandy wastes, and where peat accumulates at the bottom of extensive marshes. Yet, doubtless, here, as has been done in the territory of Antwerp, assiduous labour might transform useless plains into fruitful meadows. Limburg, no less marshy, is occupied to great advantage in the rearing of cattle and bees. The province of North Brabant, noticed here from its immediate proximity to South Brabant, belongs to the kingdom of Holland.

In general, it may be remarked,^b with regard to the agriculture of the Netherlands, that it has long been distinguished both for its productiveness and variety; and that the excellence of the Flemish system of manuring, their disuse of fallows, and skill in the rearing of cattle, have been noticed and recommended by the most experienced British agriculturists. The farms in East and West Flanders are in extent commonly about ten, and seldom exceed twenty hectares,^c while, in what are called the Walloon Provinces,^d they are usually from two to three hundred hectares. The industry of the Flemings, without the use of the wheel plough or strong English harrow, has within two hundred years converted a tract of land, originally a barren and sandy heath, into a rich and beautiful garden; and the produce of wheat here is often not less than 32 bushels to two of seed,—of oats 60 bushels to three,—whilst scarcely in any part of Great Britain does wheat yield more than from eight to 10 times. Considerably more grain is produced than the population requires. The total value of the capital employed in agriculture, in both the Belgian and Dutch provinces,^e has, from apparently accurate tables, been estimated at £433,153,333 sterling, and the gross annual produce of agricultural industry at £50,095,166 sterling, and deducting two-thirds of the gross produce, to defray the price of seed and manure, of labour, of repairs of buildings, and farming utensils, loss arising from the mortality of cattle, and the cost of the food of men and beasts, the net yearly produce is £16,698,389 sterling.

^a “—produce excellent timber (*bois de charpente*.)”

^b The Editors [English] beg to notice that, for most of what follows regarding the agriculture, manufactures, &c. of the Belgian States,[†] they are indebted to a very able article in the “Foreign Quarterly Review,” No. X, Vol. v.

^c * Included in this, and the five following paragraphs.—P.

^e A hectare is equal to two and a-half English acres. Eng. Ed. [2 acres 1 rood 35.4 rods.—P.]

^d The Walloon dialect is spoken in Liege, Namur, Hainault and South Brabant. (Malte-Brun, t. viii. p. 819.)—P.

Mines of iron, lead, copper, and coal, are worked in the provinces of Liege, Namur, Hainault, and Luxembourg, and in these provinces, there were in 1822, 93 great furnaces, 206 forges, 68 martinet houses (for hammering), 19 founderies, 17 laminaires or rolling houses, and 12 tin factories. Excellent bar and sheet iron, axletrees and nails, machinery and implements of all kinds, are there manufactured. Articles of steel, copper, and bronze, are made in Hainault and Namur: the cutlery of Namur is excellent, and the hardware of Liege of the best quality. The woollen manufacture is carried on briskly at different places, and the Netherlands cloths are much sought for, both from their quality and price, and are exported both to the north of Europe and America. The manufacture of linen, of sail-cloth, of ticking, and of thread both for sewing and lace, is carried on to some extent in a great variety of towns, both in Brabant and Flanders. In East Flanders there are 31,697 looms employed in weaving flax, 6124 for cotton, and 639 for mixed stuffs. The lace trade has not much increased of late years, but the laces of Brussels and Mechlin retain all the delicacy and richness for which they have so long been famed. The cotton trade, both in the spinning and weaving departments, is carried on to a considerable extent. The spinning establishments are principally in East Flanders and Brabant; and stuffs of all kinds are made in abundance at Ghent, Brussels, Antwerp, Courtray, Bruges, Ypres, Lokeren, and St. Nicholas. At Ghent, in particular, this trade flourishes, as may be judged by the fact of its containing 68 steam engines for spinning and weaving, while 25 years ago there was not one in all Flanders, the first having been erected in 1805. Ghent imports annually 40,000 bales of cotton wool, and the new canal, intended to communicate with the Scheldt at Terningen,^f will give additional facilities for procuring the raw material. There are considerable breweries at Louvain, at Brussels, and at Mechlin. The breweries at Louvain brew about 4000 tuns monthly.^g There are sugar refineries at Ghent and its neighbourhood; but no distilleries in Belgium of any importance. By a recent calculation,^h the annual amount of the manufacturing industry of the Netherlands, embracing both Dutch and Belgian provinces, is 675 million francs, or £28,125,000 sterling, and the profit to the manufacturer on this is said to be 184 million francs, including the interest upon his capital and stock.

The foreign trade of Belgium is carried on almost entirely from Antwerp, and, it would appear, is greatly on the increase. In the year 1822 the number of ships that entered this port was only 580, while in 1829, they amounted to 1028, and its imports in a recent year (1827) exceeded, in all great articles of consumption, excepting tea and tobacco, the two great sea-ports of Amsterdam and Rotterdam.

In this growing country new roads are making, and

^e The estimates were made before the Revolution in 1830, which has separated these provinces.

^f Terneuzen (For. Quart. Rev. No. X. vol. v.)—Ter Neuze (Hubner.)—Terneuse (Vosgien.)—Situating on the West Scheldt, 12 miles S. E. of Flushing.—P.

^g There are between 30 and 40 breweries in Louvain which make about 4000 tuns each monthly. (For. Qu. Rev. *loc. cit.*)—P.

^h See Table at end of Book CLI, page 1111.

some of those lately made are not inferior to any in Europe. In addition to the numerous old canals, which tend so much to facilitate commerce and promote intercourse among the people, two canals are on the point of completion, viz. one from Ghent to Ternengen,^a which will connect that city with the mouth of the Scheld; and another from Charleroi^b to Brussels, and round its whole circuit, so that coals may be brought by water to every part of the city. A third, of far greater magnitude, is in execution, to connect the Meuse and the Moselle, by a course of fifty leagues, from Liege to Wasserbillig, with two subordinate branches.^c This is expected to be finished in 1835.

In place of entering into any details here on the important subjects of education, literature, &c. the reader is referred to the Tables which are placed at the close of Book CLII, and which refer, it will be seen, to both divisions of the late kingdom of the Netherlands. These tables convey all the information which it would be warrantable to introduce into a work necessarily so general in its nature as the present.

It has been already observed, that the great bulk of the Belgians are of the Roman Catholic persuasion. Under the recently dissolved kingdom of the Netherlands this conferred no peculiar privileges: no religion was considered as being that of the state; all enjoying the same rights, and equal liberty. The newly established state of Belgium has recognised the same principle. It is deserving of notice here, that, under the United Kingdom, the charges for religion, which supplied the spiritual wants of the whole community, excepting the Jews, did not on the whole exceed £252,056 sterling, for a population of six millions. The revenues of the church of England are four millions sterling!

It may be remarked that the Belgic provinces assimilate in some respects both to Holland and France. Their soil, higher than that of the Dutch provinces, but less elevated than that of the neighbouring French departments, is not so humid as the former, and better cultivated than the latter. The towns in Belgium are better built than in France, and equally neat, equally clean with those in Holland.^d The inhabitants present several points of resemblance with the two nations between which they are situated. The Belgian is as honest, and as much a friend to independence as the

Hollander; but by his gaiety, his politeness, his generosity, and his love of luxury and show, he closely resembles the Frenchman.

Let us commence our description of the cities and towns of Belgium with *Antwerp* (Flem. *Antwerpen*, Fr. *Anvers*)^e on the eastern bank of the Scheld, which deserves our attention, both from the recollections of two memorable epochs, and from its own actual importance. After having been, as is believed, the city of the *Ambivareti*,^f a people of whom Cæsar speaks, and after having survived the ravages of the Normans in the 9th century, it went on, increasing in greatness, till the 16th century, at which time it was regarded as one of the richest and most flourishing cities in Europe, possessing a population of more than 200,000 souls.^g The Dutch, after they had thrown off the Spanish yoke, ruined the commerce, and destroyed the prosperity of Antwerp, by sinking vessels loaded with stones at the mouth of the Scheld, thus interrupting the navigation of the river, excepting to vessels of small burden.^h Become, after the union of Belgium with France, the capital of the department of the Two Nethes,ⁱ under the fostering care of Napoleon, who saw its importance in different respects, immense labours raised Antwerp, almost immediately, to the rank of one of the principal maritime cities of the French empire. Its cathedral is the wonder of the Low Countries, and one of the finest Gothic buildings in Europe; it is 500 feet in length, 230 in breadth, and 360 in height; its arches are supported by 125 pillars, forming 230 arcades.^l Several paintings of Rubens and other great masters decorate the interior; marble pillars of different colours ornament the choir, the chapels, and the portal; its spire rises 451 feet above the ground, and it contains one of the finest sets of bells in Belgium.^m Let us ascend to the highest gallery of this pyramidal tower, and throw a glance over the magnificent spectacle which presents itself to view. We are then placed in the centre of a panorama with a radius of fifteen leagues; we see around us in every direction the 212 streets of the city, and its twenty-two public squares; we see the town-house, famous for its fine architecture, and the houses which surround it, whose height is so great that they much surpass the highest in Paris, and whose triangular pediments, with noble flights of steps,ⁿ indicate their antiquity; the exchange, one of the finest in Europe, and the church of St. James, where is to be

^a See note ^f p. 1082.

^b Charleroy.

^c One to the Meuse above Dinant; the other to Mersch on the small river Else, which is to be made navigable to the town of Luxemburg. (For. Qu. Rev.)—P.

^d "The towns are as well built as in France, and as neat and as contiguous as in Holland."

^e Du. Germ. *Antwerpen*.—Germ. *Antorff* (Hubner).—Eng. *Antwerp*.—Fr. *Anvers*.—Span. *Amberes*.—P.

^f "*Ambivareti*"—the French orthography for *Ambivareti*, a people in Brabant. (Cæsar. Bell. Gall. iv. § 6).—The *Ambivareti* were a people in the Vivarais, dependent on the *Ædui*. (Cæsar. Bell. Gall. vii. § 69).—P.

^g This statement of the population is added by the translator.—In 1568 the trade is supposed to have been at its greatest height, and the number of inhabitants was computed at 200,000. (Pinkerton).—According to Guicciardini, the population of Antwerp, when its commerce was most flourishing, was 100,000; but Busching makes the number of inhabitants 200,000, about the middle of the 16th century. (Ed. Enc.)—The present population is 65,000.—P.

^h This sentence is added by the translator.—The Dutch fort of Lillo commanded the approach to the harbour; as to the supposed impediments, they are found to have been fabulous. (Pinkerton).—The Dutch had the complete command of the Scheldt by means of fort

Lillo; it was also agreed by Philip IV., by an article in the treaty of Munster (1648,) that no large merchant vessel should sail to this city, but that the cargo should first be unloaded in the Dutch ports, and then carried in small vessels to Antwerp. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁱ "*Deux-Nèthes*."

^k So called from two rivers of that name (*Nethes*) which join the Scheld near Antwerp. Tr. [The Great and the Little Nethe (Du. *Nette*) water that part of Brabant to the east of Antwerp; they unite near Lier to form the Nethe (proper,) which itself unites with the Dyle to form the Rupel, which finally enters the Scheldt at Rupelmonde, 8 miles S. of Antwerp. The Dyle receives the Demer from the east, and the Senne from the west, before it meets the Nethe.—P.]

^l It has 230 vaulted arcades, supported by 125 columns. (Délites des Pays-Bas, t. i. p. 264. Liege, 1769).—P.

^m The tower of the cathedral is 466 feet in height, including the cross, which is fifteen; its dial-plate is 30 feet in diameter, and 90 in circumference. It has 33 large bells, and two chimées (*carillons*). (Délites des Pays-Bas, t. i. p. 264.)—P.

ⁿ "*Etagés en forme de gradins*"—rising, story above story, in the form of steps.—These houses are built in the Flemish style, with the gable to the street, and with the stories successively diminishing, till the upper part of the front, here called *fronton* (pediment,) assumes a triangular form.—P.

seen the tomb of Rubens; and, in the fine square of *Meer*,^a the former imperial palace, built by order of Napoleon. The six gates of the city, its superb quays and docks, the magnificent suburb of Bergerhout, the port capable of containing more than a thousand vessels, the extensive arsenal, and the citadel, one of the strongest in Belgium, and the Scheld, whose breadth at some distance from the port is 1600 feet, all render magnificent the appearance of this city, the birth-place of Teniers, of Rubens,^b of Van Dyck, of Jordaens, and of other celebrated men. Looking towards the north-east, there is seen, nine leagues from Antwerp, the town of *Turnhout*, where are manufactured laces and different fabrics of linen, hemp and wool; and five leagues to the south, *Malines* or *Mechlin*,^c a large and well-built city, whose ancient cathedral is a very beautiful edifice.

These boundless plains, whose rich and fertile extent the eye measures without obstacle, do not present one single rising ground; there is nothing but a succession of meadows, arable land, and woods. Towards the west East Flanders is seen stretching out, with its twenty towns, all of them rivalling each other in importance. Four leagues from Antwerp, we arrive by a magnificent road at the elegant town of *St. Nicholas*,^d rich from its manufactures; three leagues beyond that, *Lokeren* is watered by the Durme, which, rendered navigable to the mouths of the Scheld, favours the important trade carried on by this town in grain and in merchandize of every description. Still farther on, three leagues from Lokeren, shine the steeples of *Gand* or *Ghent*,^e the ancient capital of Flanders, which, in the time of Charles V., surpassed Paris in extent of ground. Its form is triangular; the Scheld, the Lys, and the two small rivers Lieve and Moere, form more than twenty-six islands,^f united by more than 300 bridges. Traces of Spanish domination are still to be recognised in traversing this city; many of its houses resemble those of Madrid in their architecture, which forms a singular contrast with the number of its canals, in which Ghent resembles Amsterdam. Magnificent quays, spacious public squares, and agreeable walks, in a walled inclosure of four leagues in circumference, place Ghent in the rank of large and beautiful cities; but the population being only about 70,000 souls, and therefore small in proportion to the extent, the aspect of the city is after all monotonous and melancholy. The citadel built by Charles V. is one of the largest in Europe; it is, however, of no great strength, and only gives the city a secondary rank among the fortified towns of the Low Countries. The cathedral, a monument of the munificence of the same Emperor, is overloaded with

^a The street called the Mere is so wide that six carriages can pass abreast. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b This is added by the translator.—Rubens was born at Cologne 1577. He was son of a counsellor at Antwerp, who had retired to Cologne, during the troubles in the Low Countries. He however returned at an early age to Antwerp, where he was educated and spent the greater part of his life, and where he died 1640.—P.

^c "*Malines* or *Mechelen*."—Du. *Mechelen*; Germ. *Mecheln*; Eng. *Mechlin*; Fr. *Malines*.—P.

^d Du. *St. Niklaas*.—P.

^e "*Gand* or *Gent*."—Du. *Gent*—*Ghendt* (Kilian); Eng. *Ghent*; Fr. *Gand*.—P.

^f It is advantageously situated at the conflux of the rivers Scheldt, Lys, Moere and Lieve, which intersect it in various directions, and divide the town into 26 small islands. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g Ph. Lansberghe or Lansbergius (Gorton)—Lansberghe or Landsberghe (Dict. Hist. Caen)—Lansberg (Beauvais).—P.

ornaments, but the nave is magnificent. The neighbouring tower, called the belfry, has a set of bells celebrated for their number and variety. Philanthropy, together with the arts and sciences, possesses rich and valuable establishments in this birth-place of the hellenist Daniel Heinsius, of the sculptor Delvaux, and of the astronomer Philip Laensberg,^g—in this rich and industrious city, which for thirty years was the capital of the French department of the Scheld. Charles V. was born in this city 24th February 1500.^h His being a native of Ghent did not, however, prevent the cruel usage it met with from himself in person in 1540. The crime of the citizens was the assertion of unquestionable rights secured to them by their sovereigns, the ancestors of the emperor, and their inconsiderately taking up arms in support of these rights. Sensible of their folly in attempting to resist a power so overwhelming, they sent ambassadors imploring his mercy. His answer was a terrible one. "Though he chose to enter the city on the twenty-fourth of February, his birth-day, he was touched with nothing of that tenderness or indulgence, which was natural towards the place of his nativity. Twenty-six of the principal citizens were put to death; a greater number were sent into banishment; the city was declared to have forfeited all its privileges and immunities; the revenues belonging to it were confiscated; its ancient form of government was abolished; the nomination of its magistrates was vested for the future in the Emperor and his successors; a new system of laws and political administration was prescribed; and in order to bridle the seditious spirit of the citizens, orders were given to erect a strong citadel, for defraying the expense of which a fine of 150,000 florins was imposed on the inhabitants, together with an annual tax of 6000 florins for the support of the garrison."ⁱ Ghent never recovered this blow. An old traveller^k says, "If Ghent has had the honour of giving birth to so great a prince, it was used so roughly afterwards by him, that we may say it had been better for that city he had never been born."

Alost (Flem. *Aalst*), on the banks of the *Dender*, five leagues to the south-east of Ghent, contains a town-house remarkable for its antiquity. It had formerly the title of an imperial city. *Oudenarde* (Flem. *Oudenaarden*)^l is celebrated for the battle in 1708, in which the French were compelled to yield to the numerical force of the confederated army of Austrians, Dutch and English, under the command of Prince Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough.^m It was dismantled by the French in 1745.

Satisfied with the magnificent spectacle beheld from the

^h This and the remaining sentences in the paragraph are added by the translator.—P.

ⁱ Robertson's History of Charles V., B. VI. anno 1540.

^k Misson, *Voy. d' Italie*, &c. [Max. Misson, born in France, of protestant parents, about the middle of the 17th century; a refugee in England after the revocation of the edict of Nantes, he accompanied a young nobleman, as his tutor, on a tour through Holland, Germany and Italy (1687), and on his return, published his observations with the title: *Nouveau Voyage d' Italie*; died at London, 1721. (Beauvais).—P.]

^l Fr. "*Audenarde*" (M. B.), *Oudenarde* (Vosgien); Du. *Audenaarde* or *Oudenaarde* (Hubner).—P.

^m The battle of Oudenarde was fought 11th July (N. S.) 1708. According to Tindal (continuation of Rapin), the French were superior in number to the allies; and their own accounts admitted the loss of 10,000 killed and taken prisoners, besides cannon, &c.—Translator's Note.

top of the cathedral of Antwerp, let us now traverse the province that we have just run over with our eyes; let us follow one of the fine roads that lead from Ghent, its central point, and direct our course towards Bruges, the capital of West Flanders. Whoever has travelled this country, must have remarked the freshness and beauty of the higher class of females, whose likenesses we cannot avoid thinking we have already seen in the pictures of the great Flemish masters, and the plump and cheerful countenances of the jolly village dames which the pencil of Teniers has so faithfully represented in his village festivals and tavern scenes. The cities, towns and hamlets stand so thick together in this populous country, that, astonished at the sight, one can only exclaim with Philip II. of Spain, "It is one great city."

Bruges or *Bruggen*,^a which, while Belgium remained united with the French empire, was the capital of the department of the Lys, is one of the most ancient Flemish cities. It was a fortified town in 867, and it is even possible that some parts of its walls are of as old a date as the above year. The streets are wide, but the houses with triangular gables give them a very disagreeable Gothic aspect. The principal church, dedicated to Our Lady,^b is surmounted with a very tall spire, which is seen without difficulty in coming out of the river Thames.^c This city has given birth to several great men, amongst others, to Louis Berghen,^d who invented the art of cutting diamonds. It possesses, besides an academy of painting and sculpture, several libraries and rich collections. Its harbour^e may contain more than 100 ships; but after having been, from the thirteenth to the fifteenth century, one of the first commercial cities in Europe, its prosperity has ever since been on the decline. Still, however, it maintains frequent communications with Ghent, by means of a fine canal which bears its name, and by another canal, vessels of from 200 to 300 tons, come up from Ostend. [Bruges stands in the midst of a fertile and highly cultivated country, and living is abundantly cheap; but the population, although still considerable (upwards of 30,000),^f is scanty when compared with the size of the town, and the deserted look it has, reminds the traveller that it has lost the high rank it enjoyed before the evil days of Philip II. of Spain. In the great church of Our Lady, there stands the monument of the last Duke of Burgundy, Charles the Rash,^g who was killed in the battle of Nan-

cy 1476.^h His remains were transferred from Nancy to Bruges by his great grandson, the Emperor Charles V.]

Ostend,^k with less than a third of the population of Bruges, since it contains only 10,000 inhabitants, is also threatened with the destruction of its trade; already its harbour, encumbered with sand and gravel, cannot receive large vessels, except at high water.^l We ought not to pass by here the famous siege of Ostend in the war for Dutch independence.^m Indifferently fortified, it yet resisted the attacks of the Spaniards for more than three years, (from 5th July 1601, to 20th September 1604.)ⁿ Above 300,000 cannon shot were fired by the besiegers, whose loss in killed amounted to 73,000 men, while that of the besieged is said not to have been greatly inferior.^o When at last it surrendered, it was "reduced to a mere mass of ruin. The victors marched in over its crumbled walls and shattered batteries. Scarcely a vestige of the place remained beyond these terrible evidences of destruction. Its ditches filled up with the rubbish of ramparts, bastions, and redoubts, left no distinct line of separation between the operations of its attack and its defence. It resembled rather a vast sepulchre than a ruined town, a mountain of earth and rubbish, without a single house in which the wretched remnant of the inhabitants could hide their heads—a monument of desolation on which victory might have sat and wept."^p

Nine leagues to the south of Ostend, on the banks of the Yperlee, stands *Ypres*,^q formerly the rival of Bruges in industry and commerce, but its population was then more considerable than at present. It has still manufactures of woollen stuffs and lace, but its real importance lies in the fortifications erected since the peace in 1815. If, however, we wish to see an industrious city, let us turn our steps to *Courtray*,^r divided by the Lys into two nearly equal parts; its trade is supported by its manufactures of fine cloths, napery, and lace, which equal those made at Valenciennes.^s Two considerable fairs are held there annually. *Cortryck*, its Flemish name, appears to come from *Cortoriacum*, a city of the Gauls, whose site it undoubtedly occupies. Its environs are famous in history for a great number of battles. In 1302, a French army was defeated by the Flemings in the battle called *the battle of the Spurs*, because the victors found upon the field more than 4000 gilded spurs. In 1382, Charles VI. of France avenged this defeat in

in August and September 1830, the government of Belgium has begun to clear out the harbour of Ostend, which had been neglected by the Dutch government.—*Trans.*

^m This account of the siege is added by the translator.—P.

ⁿ Taken by Spinola, Sept. 14, 1604. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^o The Spaniards lost more than 80,000 men, and the besieged, whose garrison was several times renewed, more than 50,000. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^p History of the Netherlands by T. C. Grattan. Lond. 1830.

^q Fr. Eng. *Ypres*, *Ipres*; Lat. *Ipra*, *Ipræ*; Du. *Yperen*—*Yper* or *Ijper* (Kilian); Germ. *Yperu*.—P.

^r Fr. "*Courtray*"—*Courtrai* (Vosgien); Eng. *Courtray*; Du. *Kortryk* (Hubner)—*Cortrijck* (Kilian).—P.

^s "—fine linens, table linen and lace, the last in imitation of that made at Valenciennes."—The flax which grows in the neighbourhood has the character of being the strongest and the finest in Europe, and the goods which are manufactured from it, are particularly celebrated. The manufacture of linen cloth and table linens is carried on to a great extent. There are in the town, 22 bleachfields, 17 for linens and 5 for thread. The lace which was made here, in imitation of that of Valenciennes, had a great demand both in France and England. (Ed. Enc.)—The most important manufacture in Valenciennes, is that of lace, called *valenciennes*. (Vosgien).—P.

^a "*Bruges* or *Brugge*."—Eng. Fr. *Bruges*; Du. *Brugge*.—P.

^b "*Notre Dame*."—The church of Notre Dame is a very beautiful structure, and its lofty steeples serve as a sea-mark to the ships that visit the port of Ostend. (Ed. Enc.)

^c "Which is seen soon after leaving the mouth of the Thames."—The steeple of Notre-Dame is very lofty, and is observed by mariners as they approach the harbour of Ostend. (Dél. des Pays-Bas, t. ii. p. 377.)—P.

^d Louis Berghen [Robert de Berghen. Ed. Enc.] discovered the method of cutting and polishing diamonds by means of their own powder, in 1456. (Rees's Cyc.)—P.

^e "*Basin*."—Its port is at the extremity of the canal which leads to Ostend, and is capable of containing 100 merchant vessels, and from the sluices which are constructed on the Reye canal between Bruges and the sea, at Lecke and Plassendal, vessels of 400 tons can easily approach the very centre of the city. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f 36,000. (Stat. Tab.)—P. ^g Charles the Bold.

^h Killed at the siege of Nancy, Jan. 5, 1477. (Moreri. Beauvais.)—P.

ⁱ The sentences inclosed in brackets are added by the translator.—P.

^k "*Ostende*," Fr.—Du. Germ. *Ostende*.—Du. *Oost-Ende* (East-End), from its position in relation to the village of *West-Ende* (West-End.) (Hubner).—Eng. *Ostend*.—P.

^l It was lately stated in the newspapers, that since the revolution

a victory obtained at Rosebecke, where the Flemings sustained a loss of 40,000 men, in which battle their leader James Artavelde, the far-famed brewer of Ghent, was killed.^a In 1791, an army of young and newly raised Frenchmen twice defeated at Courtray the old troops of the Austrians, supported by the English and Hanoverians.

On the right bank of the Scheld, Hainault contains several places memorable in the annals of war. Near Tournay, *Fontenoy* recalls to memory the victory obtained in 1745, by the French under the celebrated Marechal Saxe over the allied army commanded by the Duke of Cumberland. *Fleurus* is celebrated in the Spanish annals for the victory gained by the troops of Spain over Count Mansfeldt in 1622; for that of Marechal Luxemburg in 1690 over the imperial army; for the battle of 26th June 1794, where Jourdan defeated the Austrians under the Prince of Saxe-Cobourg, which led to the entire conquest of Belgium by the French; and for that of 15th June 1815 (three days before the battle of Waterloo), where Napoleon defeated the Prussians, and compelled them to retreat. In the environs of Mons, *St. Denis* and *Steenkerke* witnessed, in 1678 and 1692, the defeat by Luxemburg of the allied forces under the command of William Prince of Orange (king William III.); and at *Jemappe*, Dumouriez was covered with glory on the 6th November 1792. In this battle the present king of the French, Louis Philip, greatly distinguished himself. The Austrians met with a total defeat.^b

Tournay,^c two leagues from the frontiers of France, is divided by the Scheld into the old and the new town. In the latter, a superb quay planted with trees, forms the finest and most frequented promenade in the city; the houses are well built, and the streets clean and straight. The other quarter, much inferior in elegance, is the city which served as a residence to several kings of France of the first race, and which was erected into a bishopric in the fifth century. The cathedral, whose four dark spires are seen from a considerable distance, is admired for its beauty; the interior is overloaded with sculpture and the richest ornaments. It is believed to have been founded by Childeric I., whose tomb was accidentally discovered in 1655, in taking down some old houses which surrounded the church. An excavation seven feet in depth, brought to light a leathern bag

containing more than one hundred pieces of gold and as many of silver, the iron part of an axe and also that of a javelin, a sword-blade, five clasps, a case containing a steel pen or style, the hinges of two writing tablets,^d a small head of an ox in enamel,^e and two rings, one of which bore a seal with the words, *Childerici regis*. These different ornaments in gold were accompanied with several figures of bees in gold and silver, which appeared to have belonged to a royal mantle; the whole was mingled with bones, among which were distinguishable two human skulls and the skeleton of a horse, affording a proof that the Franks were accustomed to be interred with their arms, their clothes, their battle horse, their most precious jewels, and perhaps with some spoils of their enemies, for one of the two skulls was most probably that of a slave or of a vanquished warrior. Tournay, which might accommodate more than 60,000 souls, contains but little more than half that number:^f it is, however, an industrious and commercial town, and its carpeting, its cloths,^g its camlets, and its porcelain wares, are known over all Europe.

Quitting the fine road to Brussels at *Ath*,^h a small city, known from its college, and whose fortifications have never been able to resist the attacks of enemies,ⁱ we take on the right hand the road which leads to *Mons*.^k This city, which derives its principal wealth from its coal mines, is the capital of the province of Hainault. It is large, and strongly fortified, and there are few places that have suffered more from the inevitable calamities of war. In 1572, Louis of Nassau employed a singular stratagem to make himself master of it. He disguised some of his soldiers as wine-sellers, who conducted into the city several carts loaded with casks having a double covering, the outer containing wine, and the inner concealing arms. After having paid the duties, the pretended wine-sellers slew the guard and custom-house officers, and opened the gates to their commander. At the coal-mines at *Hornues*, near Mons, M. de Gorges employs 2000 workmen, for whom he has built a handsome town, consisting of 260 neat houses, with a garden to each. The streets are laid out with uniformity, and well paved; and in the centre of the village is a large square, planted with trees, in which is the ball-room for Sunday amusements, the town-hall, and the school of mutual instruction, where 400 children are gratuitously educated. The workmen have the

^a This statement respecting Artavelde is added by the translator.—James Artavelde, the far-famed brewer of Ghent, was killed in a tumult at Ghent, A. D. 1345. It was his son Philip Artavelde, who was killed in the battle of Rosebecke.—P.

^b "*Fontenoy*, near Tournay, recalls the victory at which Louis XV. was present; "*Fleurus*" is celebrated in the annals of Spain by the victory which its troops gained over Mansfeldt in 1622, and in the long series of French victories, by that in which Marshal Luxemburg defeated the imperial army in 1690, by that in which Jourdan defeated the English and Austrians, and which delivered Belgium into the power of the French, and lastly, by that two days preceding the celebrated defeat in 1815. § At *St. Denis* and *Steenkerke*, || in the environs of Mons, Luxemburg defeated the allied forces commanded by William of Orange, in 1678 and 1692, ¶ and at *Jemappes*** in the same vicinity, Dumouriez covered himself with glory on the 6th of November, 1792."

* Louis XV. is said by his firmness to have turned the victory in favor of the French. (Russell's Mod. Eur.)—P. † Fleury (Hubner.)

‡ Not Count Mansfeldt, but Ernest, natural son of Peter Ernest, Count Mansfeldt.—P.

§ This is doubtless intended for the battle of June 16th, usually called the battle of Ligny. The campaign commenced on the 15th, during which day the French drove the Prussians from Thuin to Fleurus, where the latter took a position, but were compelled to retreat again in the evening. On the 16th, the

French, with their centre east of Fleurus, attacked and defeated the Prussians at St. Amand and Ligny.—P.

|| Steenkerken (Hubner.)—Steenkerck, Steinkerck, Steinkerque. (Enc. Meth.)—Steenkirk (Eng.)—P.

¶ William III. then prince of Orange, attacked the quarters of the duke of Luxemburg at St. Denis near Mons, after the treaty of Nimeguen was signed (1678,) but gained no decided advantage. (Russell's Mod. Eur.)—William III. attempted to surprise the French army, under Luxemburg, at Steenkirk in 1692, but in consequence of his mistakes, the battle was totally lost. (Russell.)—P.

** Jemappes, Jemappe, Gemappe, Jemmapes.—P.

^c Tournai.—Du. *Doornik* (Hubner)—*Dornick* (Kilian).—P.

^d "—a case containing a style for writing, the hinges of two tablets"—

^e In gold enamelled. (Dél. des Pays-Bas.)—P.

^f Population, 33,000. (Stat. Tab.)—P.

^g "Linens (*toiles*.)"

^h Du. *Aath*, *Aeth*.—P.

ⁱ It was taken by the French in 1697 and 1701, by the allies in 1692, and again by the French in 1745. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^k Fr. Eng. *Mons*; Lat. *Mons* or *Montes Hannonia*; Du. *Bergen in Henegouwen* (Hubner)—*Berghen in Henegouwe* (Kilian); Germ. *Berg-en im Henegau*.—The Latin, Dutch and German names signify, the hill or hills in Hainault.—Mons is situated partly on a hill and partly in a plain on the Trouille.—P.

gratuitous use of store-houses for all purposes, and of the luxury of baths, and appear happy and comfortable. The benefits which a great capitalist has it in his power to confer, were never more strikingly exemplified than in this village of Hornues.^a

Five leagues beyond the Sambre, which we cross near the town^b of *Merbesle*, we see on a hill the small but strongly fortified town of *Philippeville*, originally the village of *Corbigni*,^c but fortified in 1555 by order of Mary, queen of Hungary, the sister of Charles V., and to which she gave the name of her nephew Philip II.; two leagues to the south-west lies the town of *Mariembourg*,^d a fortress of still less importance, built by the same queen. *Dinant*, on the right bank of the Meuse, is defended by a good citadel, and contains several churches, one of which appears to be of great antiquity; we dare not, however, admit the truth of the tradition, that it occupies the site of a temple of Diana, which gave its name to the town.

A road alike beautiful and picturesque borders the left bank of the Meuse, and leads to *Namur*,^e built at the junction of the Sambre with that river. It is believed that this place, renowned in all the wars of the Low Countries, and become stronger than ever since the erection of the kingdom of the Netherlands, has succeeded to the *Oppidum Atuaticorum*, mentioned in Cæsar's Commentaries.^f The situation of Namur, at the confluence of two great rivers, favours its trade and industry. Its fine cutlery, and the manufacture of common pottery and leather, occupy a great number of hands; the sale of its marbles forms one of the most important branches of its trade. Nothing can be more enchanting than the environs of this city. At first, you see the river confined betwixt steep mountains, crowned with thick forests; farther on, its bed widens, its descent becomes more rapid, the ground lowers, and its waves press rapidly onwards; soon you see meadows extend along its banks; it then proceeds slowly, taking large windings, as if to enjoy longer the freshness of the beautiful verdure; its surface covered with barges, and its bed bordered by a road crowded with travellers and fields fertilized by labour, present a moving picture, which renders the variety in the landscape more interesting; but we must quit this animating scene, rise from hill to hill towards the west, and descend again into the beautiful plains of South Brabant.

The first town we pass through is *Nivelles*,^g once a place of much importance. At the commencement of the thirteenth century it was surrounded by walls. It has three suburbs, five churches, and an hospital. Forty

^a For. Quart. Rev. No. X. (Vol. V.) art. "Netherlands." [The above account of the village of Hornues is added by the translator.—P.]
^b "Bourg."
^c The *bourg* of Corbigni. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^d Du. Germ. *Marienburg*.—P.

^e Du. *Namen* (Hubner)—*Name* (Kilian).—P.

^f Cæsar de Bel. Gal. lib. ii. cap. 29—34. Tr. [In the description of the town of the *Atuatici* [*Aduatici*] in the passage here quoted, no mention is made of its position on the Meuse (*Masa*) or Sambre (*Sabis*). It is merely stated that it was surrounded on all sides by steep rocks and precipices, except a single gentle acclivity, not more than 200 feet in width, fortified by a double wall.—D'Anville places the *Oppidum Aduaticorum* at Falais on the Mehaigne, a small river that enters the Meuse a little above Huy (16 miles E. of Namur).—P.]

^g Nivelles (Enc. Meth.)—Du. *Nivel*, *Nijvel* (Kilian).—P.

^h "—to enjoy the diversions of society (*des distractions de la vie mondaine*.)"—There is no sign of exclamation in the original.—This was an abbey of secular canonesses, of noble family, who had the privilege of resigning their places and marrying. They wore the religious habit in the morning, and the secular habit in the evening. (Enc. Meth. Moreri.)—P

years ago it was celebrated for an abbey of canonesses, who, in the evening, quitted the religious habit to enjoy the distractions of a worldly life!^h Their abbess took the title of Princess of Nivelles. The clock tower bears on its summit the figure of a man in iron that strikes the hours with a hammer, called in the country *John of Nivelles*. It is not, however, to this bell-man that we are to attribute the well-known proverb: "*He resembles the dog of John of Nivelles, who flies when he is called.*" This proverb arose from the following circumstance:—According to the accounts of several historians, John II. of Montmorency,ⁱ father of John, lord of Nivelles, and of Louis, baron of Fossez,^k married as his second wife Margaret of Orgemont; the two young men, who probably were not very well pleased with their stepmother, withdrew to the court of the count of Flanders, and became the origin of the two branches of the house of Montmorency. Their father summoned them in vain to return, and on their refusal, treated them as *dogs*, and disinherited them. The summons had been given to the elder brother, John of Nivelles, which gave rise to the popular saying above quoted.

Quitting the small plateau of Nivelles, let us advance into those plains where the armies of France and England, under Napoleon and Wellington, met to decide the destiny of Europe.^l *Quatre Bras*, *La Belle Alliance*, *Mont St. Jean* and *Waterloo* are before us, places which recal to remembrance the bloody struggle, which the soldiers on both sides maintained with heroic courage, in spite of the faults of the two chiefs, and in which victory, faithless to him who thought he had gained it, turned to the side of him who did not expect it. *Brussels* or *Bruzelles*,^m the metropolis of all the Belgian provinces,ⁿ and also the capital of the province of South Brabant, is only four leagues from this field of battle, which is now conspicuous from a hill raised by the art of man, and surmounted with the Belgic lion, a gigantic figure, in cast iron. The origin of this city dates from the eighth century. St. Gerius,^o bishop of Arras and Cambrai, founded a chapel in a small island formed by the Senne, and this island became the city of Brussels,^p chosen, from its agreeable situation, by Otho II. as his residence, and which afterwards became that of the dukes of Lorraine, the dukes of Brabant, and the Austrian governors. Joseph II. transformed its ancient fortifications^q into a fine promenade; it was a city surrounded merely by a wall, when, from the rank of the capital of the Austrian Netherlands, it descended in 1794 to that of the chief place of the French department of the Dyle. It is built on uneven ground, and several of its streets

ⁱ Baron of Montmorency. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^k Fossez (Moreri. Enc. Meth.)—Fossez, a *bourg* in Artois, 3 leagues S. W. of Arras. (Vosgien).—P.

^l "—where all the armies of Europe met to overthrow a famous conqueror."

^m "*Bruzelles* or *Brussel*."—Eng. *Brussels*; Fr. *Bruzelles*; Du. *Brussel*—*Brussel* (Kilian); Germ. *Brussel*.—P.

ⁿ At present, the capital of the new kingdom of Belgium.—P.

^o "St. Geri."—St. Gery, in the beginning of the 7th century, built a chapel in a small island, formed by two branches of the Senne, and preached the gospel to the neighbouring peasants; numerous huts were consequently erected along the banks of the river; in a short time, they increased to a considerable village, to which was given the name of *Brussel* (*hermitage bridge*.) and as early as the year 900, it had both a market and a castle. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^p Du. *brug* (*brugge*. Kilian), a bridge, and *celle*, a cell.—P.

^q "*Brussella*."—See note ^o.

^r Its walls were erected in 1379. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

are very steep. The lower part of the city, the least healthy and the least regular, contains many houses in the Gothic style; but the quarter adjoining to the Park, a magnificent promenade, ornamented with marble statues, is composed of wide streets, regularly laid out, and of houses elegantly built; some of them, however, are painted green, yellow, or grey, according to a custom prevalent in both Holland and Belgium. There are reckoned in the whole city 290 streets, 13,000 houses, 27 bridges, and 8 public squares. The finest square is the Place Royale,^a the quadrangular outline of which is formed by the fine portal of the church of St. James of Condenberg,^b by many magnificent edifices, and by four porticoes. The great square^c offers an aspect altogether different; the buildings that surround it are of various kinds of architecture, Spanish, Flemish, and Gothic; the principal is the Hotel de Ville,^d a building flanked by five hexagonal turrets, and surmounted by a steeple 366 feet in height, crowned with a statue of St. Michael,^e in gilt copper, 17 feet high, and turning upon a pivot by the slightest wind. The building of this tower took place in 1445.^f The interior of the edifice is still in the same state of decoration as when Charles V., in 1555, excited to it by the embarrassments caused by a clergy who reproached him with his pretended toleration, abdicated the sovereignty of half the world in favor of the fanatical Philip II. It is in front of this Hotel de Ville, as in front of that in Paris, that municipal ceremonies and executions of criminals take place, a monstrous conjunction, which it is painful to take notice of as existing in the nineteenth century. The great square of Sablon^g is ornamented with a beautiful fountain in white marble, representing a Minerva seated. The square of St. Michael is not of great extent, but it is planted with trees, and surrounded with buildings of elegant architecture. Among the buildings that surround the square of the mint,^h most of which are deserving of notice, the great theatre-royal is especially distinguishable. On the small rising groundⁱ called *Molenberg*, at a short distance from the great square, the ancient church of St. Gudula^k displays its imposing Gothic front; the ascent to it is by a long flight of 36 steps; the sculpture of its pulpit, in wood, highly merits attention. In the church of St. Nicholas there are valuable pictures and numerous relics. The city is supplied with water by several fountains, almost all of them adorned with sculpture, and these fountains are fed by the waters of a small lake, situated about a third of a league from the walls, towards the east. That of *Steenpoort*,^l and that of the great new street, are among the most beautiful, but they do not enjoy the

popular reputation of the *Mannekenpisse*, a child in bronze, whose name expresses the indocent way in which it throws out a stream of water. This statue, which is not very ancient, has replaced one whose origin goes back, it is said, to the twelfth century. It is called by the people *the oldest burghess of Brussels*, and on festival days they dress it in blue. Many other edifices, which we have not yet named, adorn this city; such are the palace of the States-General, the new court-house,^m and the king's palace, the last of which has been erected within these few years.

The capital of Belgium, within a circumference of two leagues and a half, is as it were an assemblage of several small cities, differing in their language, their occupations, and their manners. The quarter of the Park is inhabited by the ministers of state, the nobility, and the rich bankers, and it is also preferred by the English. In the neighbourhood of its handsome buildings resides a small colony of French, whilst towards the southern extremity of the city, a Spanish colony, escaped from the revolutionary horrors of the Peninsula, has fixed its abode. Towards the south-east, a population active and keen, but not numerous, is composed of Walloons, who are easily distinguishable by their physiognomy and language. The lower town is almost exclusively peopled by Flemings, who are attached to their own idiom and to their ancient customs. The quarter situated between the lower town and that of the Park is the centre of trade and amusements, the abode of jewellers, of mercers, and of all who support themselves by the luxury of the rich, and the point in which are assembled the finest warehouses. The Jews do not, as at Amsterdam, inhabit a separate quarter; the poorest concentrate in the meanest streets, and the more wealthy are scattered throughout the rest of the city.ⁿ The additions that are making to different parts of the city, prove that industry and trade are in a flourishing state. In effect, manufactures of all kinds are to be found in Brussels, and charitable establishments for the aged, for orphans, for strangers,^o and for the sick and the blind, are well endowed and carefully superintended. The academies of sciences and belles lettres, two royal societies of literature, one of botany, an athenæum, academies of painting and drawing, a museum, a cabinet of natural philosophy,^p a fine public library established in the old palace of the governors-general,^q a botanical garden which occupies the site of the gardens of the former court,^r and several other establishments which we pass without notice, might lead us to form a peculiarly favourable opinion of the philanthropic virtues and intellectual faculties of the inhabitants of Brussels, did

^a Royal Square.

^b "St. Jacques de Condenberg."—St. Jacques de Caubergue (*Délices des Pays-Bas*. Ed. Enc.)—It should read in English, St. James of Coudenberg, from the name of one of the seven Patrician families in Brussels.—P.

^c The great market-place. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d Townhouse.—Du. *Stadhuis*.—P.

^e St. Michael and the dragon. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f The Hotel de Ville was begun in 1380, and finished in 1442. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g "Place du Sablon"—Du. *Sandsplaats*, Sand Square.—P.

^h "Place de la Monnaie"—Du. *Muntsplaats*.—P.

ⁱ "Monticule"—small hill.—The church of Ste. Gudule is situated in a high part of the city, and approached by a flight of steps. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k "Sainte-Gudule."—Ste. Gudule (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^l Du. *Steenpoort*, Stone Gate.—P.

^m "Palace of Justice."

ⁿ See the work entitled: *Quatre Mois dans les Pays-Bas*. Paris, 1829

^o "—for the insane (*aliénés*)."—There is an hospital at Brussels where strangers are maintained free of expense three days. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^p "Cabinet de physique"—collection of philosophical apparatus.—P.

^q The Ducal Palace, begun in 1300, by John II. duke of Brabant, and finished by the successors of Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, in 1521. Originally the residence of the dukes of Brabant, then of the dukes of Burgundy, and finally of the governors-general of the Austrian Netherlands—converted, under the empire, into a central school for the department of the Dyle, to which were attached a public library, a botanical garden, and a collection of paintings. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^r That of the governors-general of the Austrian Netherlands.—P

not our excursions both in Holland and Belgium prove to us, that the greater part of the cities in the Low Countries enjoy nearly the same advantages, in both these points of view. Among the distinguished men, to whom Brussels has given birth, the two Champagnes, painters of eminence, and Bochius,^a known by his Latin verses, ought to be placed in the first rank. Lipsius, a celebrated critic of the 16th century, was born near Brussels, and died in the neighbouring city of Louvain in 1600.^b

The inhabitants of this city, more active than those of Amsterdam, love to enjoy their fine walks. They have a *Tivoli*, which only resembles in name that at Paris. It is not so large, but is much more pleasant, and greatly more varied in the amusements to be found in it. On the banks of the canal which communicates by the Rupel^c with the Scheld, the *green walk*^d is a charming promenade composed of three avenues nearly half a league in length, of which the one in the centre is reserved for carriages and equestrians. Frequented every day, it assumes on Sunday the brilliant appearance of that of *Longchamps* at Paris. This beautiful promenade extends to the bridge of Laeken, not far from the village of that name,^e where the wealthy citizens of Brussels have their country houses, and where the king of the Netherlands possessed a park and magnificent palace,^f the place of his residence during the summer season.

We cross the Senne and the canal of Brussels at *Vilvorde*,^g a town of 3000 souls, where Joseph II. erected a bridewell (*maison de detention*)^h remarkable for the beauty of its work-shops. Four leagues to the east, we perceive on another canal, the city of *Louvain* or *Leuven*,ⁱ which possessed in the fourteenth century 4000 manufactories of cloths, whose 18,000 workmen, forced to expatriate themselves in consequence of a revolt against the Duke of Brabant, carried their industry to

England. At present it is only celebrated for the brewing of excellent beer, of which it annually exports more than 15,000 casks.^k Its canal, which admits vessels of a considerable tonnage, and the river Dyle, give activity to this branch of trade.^l Two fine institutions still confer importance on this city: the one is a hotel for invalids^m which can receive 2,500 persons; the other is the university, which was founded in 1426, suppressed by the French in 1797, and re-established since 1815.ⁿ The walled enclosure of Louvain, too large for a population of about 16,000 souls, contains fields and gardens, and streets tolerably regular, but the houses are ill built, and there are few fine edifices. It is the same with *Tirlemont*,^o which the Brabanters call *Theenen*^p Watered by the Geete,^q its ramparts are more than a league and a half in circumference, and its population is scarcely the half of that of Louvain.

We enter the province of Limburg, by the road which passing through Tirlemont, conducts to Aix-la-Chapelle. *St. Trond*,^r the first town we arrive at, carries on a trade in lace and iron-work.^s Leaving the town of *Looz*^t on the left hand, whose magnificent castle is seen in passing along, we reach the banks of the Jaar, where *Tongres* (Flem. *Tongeren*)^u is resorted to on account of its ferruginous mineral waters. This city was, in the time of Cæsar, a fortress of the *Tungri*,^x called *Atuatuca*; it was destroyed by Attila in 451, and in 881 by the Normans; at present, it contains scarcely 4000 inhabitants.

A valley stretching out before us, brings to view in the distance *Maestricht*,^y and the mountain of St. Pierre commanding it, and lying between the Jaar^z and the left bank of the Meuse.^{aa} This calcareous mountain, from which, for more than fifteen centuries, there has been taken a soft and chalky stone,^{bb} is traversed by so great a number of galleries, that there has been formed an inextricable labyrinth of about six leagues in circumference. In this

^a John Boch (Lat. *Bochius*.) called the Belgic Virgil—died 1609.—P.

^b This account of Lipsius is added by the translator.—Justus Lipsius, the celebrated critic, was born at Isch, a village between Brussels and Louvain 1547, and died at Louvain 1606.—P.

^c See note ¹ p. 1083. ^d "Green Alley (*allée verte*)."—P.

^e The village of Laecken. (Dél. des Pays-Bas.)—P.

^f The palace of Laecken. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g Du. *Vilvorden* (Hubner)—*Vilvorde* (Kilian.)—P.

^h Penitentiary, or House of Correction.—P.

ⁱ Fr. Eng. *Louvain*; Du. *Leuven*, *Loven*, or *Loven*; Germ. *Löwen*.—P.

^k "150,000 tuns (*tonneaux*)."—Compare statement of For. Qu. Rev. in note ^g p. 1082.—P.

^l It is situated on the Dyle and the canal of Louvain, the last of which extends to Mechlin. Vessels of 150 tons can come up to the town. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^m "Hôtel des invalides."

ⁿ Re-established by a royal edict of Sept. 25, 1816, which also instituted the two new universities of Ghent and Liege. (Morse.)—P.

^o Fr. *Tirlemont* or *Tillemont*. (Vosgien.)—P.

^p Du. *Thienen*, or *Tienen*—properly, *Tienhoven*. (Hubner.)—P.

^q "Gaette."—Ghète (Vosgien.)—Ghete (Ed. Enc.)—Du. *Geete*—*Gheete* (Kilian.)—A southern branch of the Demer.—P.

^r St. Tron or St. Truyen. (Vosgien.)—P.

^s "—in its lace, and in the products of its forges."

^t Loss, Lotz, Lootz or Borchloen (Enc. Meth.)—Loots or Borchloen. (Hubner.)—Formerly capital of a county of the same name, in the bishopric of Liege, including Hasselt, Tongres and Maaseyk.—P.

^u Fr. *Tongres*, *Tongre*.—Du. *Tongeren*.—P.

^x It does not appear that there is such a people as the *Tungri* mentioned by Cæsar. His words are, speaking of *Atuatuca*, Lib. vi. c. 30. "Id castelli nomen est. Hoc fere est in mediis *Eburonum* finibus." The *Eburones* seem to have possessed the country about Liege. Tongres is about four leagues distant from that city.—Transl. Note. [It does not appear that there is such a town as *Atuatuca* mentioned by Cæsar. The name of the town or fortress, in the passage above

quoted, is *Atuatuca*.—The *Eburones*, a people of German origin, occupied a part of the dutchies of Cleves, Juliers, and Gelders, and the country of Tongres [in the bishopric of Liege.] Their principal city was *Atuatuca*. Cæsar nearly exterminated them, in revenge for the defeat of one of his legions, stationed among them, by Ambiorix, one of their chiefs; at least, no mention is made of them by subsequent authors. The *Tungri*, also a German people, succeeded them, and gave their name to *Atuatuca*, whence the modern name of the town. (Enc. Meth. D'Any.)—Tongres is 6 [Fr.] leagues (Vosgien,) 9 miles (Morse,) N. W. of Liege.—P.]

^y *Maëstricht*.—Maestricht or Maestricht (Vosgien.)—Maestricht (Eng. authors.)—Du. *Maastricht* or *Mastricht* (Hubner)—*Maestrich* (Kilian.)—P.

^z Jeker (Enc. Meth. Ed. Enc.)—Jaar (Fr.;) Jecker (Flem.) (Dél. des Pays-Bas.)—P.

^{aa} Maestricht lies on the left bank of the Meuse, at its confluence with the Jaar, and on the north of the latter. The Jaar enters the Meuse obliquely from the south-west, and in the angle between the two rivers, rises the mountain of St. Pierre (Du. *Sant-Pietersberg*—St. Peter's Mount,) on the northern declivity of which, adjoining the south side of the town, stands the strong fort of St. Pierre, the citadel of the place. The Meuse is crossed by a bridge, and at its extremity is the small town of Wyck, a sort of suburb to Maestricht.—P.

^{bb} This soft limestone is considered by geologists as analogous to the chalk formation, inasmuch as it contains not only flints, but some of the same fossil shells, that occur in the chalk of Paris. (Ed. Enc. art. Org. Remains.)—It is probably a transition from the upper chalk to the lowest tertiary formation, few of its fossils being identical with those in the chalk, and the most remarkable being of a peculiar and more recent character. (Lyell's Geology, p. 139—140.)—The upper part of this limestone is hardest—the lower and softer part is the principal repository of the remarkable bones, which characterize it, and also of the shells and flints analogous to those in the chalk of the Paris basin. The analogy of this limestone to chalk is farther shown by its gradually changing into true chalk a few leagues south of Maestricht. (Ure's Geology, p. 215.)—P.

mass different fossil bones have been discovered of great interest to science; among others, two heads of gigantic lizards of a species which no longer exists on the surface of the globe, and which savans have agreed to designate under the name of *Mosasaurus*.^{a b} One of these heads is to be seen in the museum of Haarlem, and the other in the museum of Natural History at Paris; the length of the last is three feet nine inches, which leads to the presumption that this monstrous lizard was twenty-four feet in length. The mountain of St. Pierre, was, during the middle ages, called the Mountain of the Huns (*Mons Hunnorum*), apparently from some tradition connected with Attila's visit of destruction to this country in the fifth century, referred to above, in speaking of Tongres. It derives its modern name from the village of St. Pierre, adjacent to, and now considered a suburb of the city of Maestricht, or more properly from the church of St. Pierre, which is of greater antiquity than the village. An old tower on the summit of the mountain, has preserved the name of the "Tower of Caesar," and a little farther off, it is believed there existed a Roman camp. Let us add to these traditional names, that the Brabant name of Maestricht or Maestricht,^c is simply the translation of the Latin words, *Trajectum ad Mosam*,^d passage of the Meuse. Ought we not then to conclude, that the Romans possessed nothing here but an intrenched camp? There is no reason to suppose that Maestricht existed prior to the fourth century. The ramparts, the ditches and the bastions which defend it, as well as Fort St. Pierre,^e render Maestricht one of the strongest places in the Low Countries. It is well built; the beauty of its town-house, of its public market, and of the church of St. Gervais, are especially deserving of notice. It possesses manufactories of fire-arms, pins and cloths, and the Meuse gives activity to its commerce. After Maestricht, the other towns in the province possess very little interest. Without quitting the banks of the river, we can see *Maaseyk*,^f containing a population of only 3000 souls, and the native place of John Van Eyck,^g better known by the name of John of Bruges, who, in the beginning

of the fifteenth century, invented painting in oil. A little farther off is seen, on the left hand, the small but commercial town of *Wert*,^h the birth-place of the famous *John de Wert*,ⁱ who, from a shoemaker's boy, became a soldier, then rose to be a general, and lastly, became viceroy of Bohemia, and by the capture of several places in Picardy, during the reign of Louis XIII., carried terror to the very heart of Paris, where his name served as the burden of the song to the ballad-singers of Pont-Neuf, as in the following reign was the case with that of Marlborough. We cross the Meuse at *Venloo*,^k a city of 6000 souls, whose principal branch of industry is the manufacture of pins. In ascending the river on the right bank, there is seen, at the mouth of the Roer,^l *Ruremonde* or *Roermond*,^m the birth-place of the celebrated geographer Mercator.ⁿ

In continuing our journey in the same direction, we arrive near *Limburg*,^o the former capital of the dutchy of that name, a small city of 2000 souls, now comprehended in the province of Liege. *Verviers*, in the vicinity of Limburg, has been enriched by the sale of its woollen cloths which are much esteemed, and by means of which it has, in a few years, risen to a population of 16,000 souls.^p It lies in the midst of a rich and fertile valley, presenting an animating picture of the united results of increasing wealth and industry.^q We pass through this pretty town before arriving at *Spa*, a town known for its elegant works in varnished wood and its mineral waters, the last of which, every year to the end of May, are frequented by more than 1000 strangers, brought there as much by pleasure as by the care of their health. All the trade of the country centres at *Liege*, called *Luik* in the dialect of Brabant.^r Liege lies on the banks of the Meuse.^s Gloomy and dirty, it is yet the mart for the merchandise of the Low Countries, France, and Germany. The working of coal-mines, forges, cannon founderies, the manufacture of fire-arms, and various other kinds of industry, occupy the inhabitants. Ten suburbs,^t seventeen bridges, twelve public squares, an arsenal, an exchange, a chamber of commerce, a university founded in 1817,^u and also several schools and learn-

^a Faujas de St. Fond, Histoire de la montagne de St. Pierre de Maestricht.—Bory de St. Vincent, Mémoire sur le plateau de St. Pierre : Ann. Gén. des Sciences Physiques, tom. i.

^b Dr. Buckland first conferred on the Maestricht lizard the generic name of *Mosasaurus* (Meuse lizard.) Its lower jaw is 4 feet long, and consequently its whole length is about 26 feet. It resembles the crocodile in the proportionate length of its head, and the monitor in the general structure of its lower jaw, but differs from both in the shortness of its tail, and its palate teeth, in which last circumstance it resembles the common lizard and iguana. It has the greatest resemblance to the monitor in its general structure, but on the whole has a peculiar generic character. Its figure was compact and robust, and it was undoubtedly a marine animal, formed for swimming. (Ure's Geology, p. 216—219.)—P.

^c "The Brabant name, *Maestricht*"—better: Maestricht, the name of the town in the dialect of Brabant (*Brabancon*).—P.

^d Dictionnaire abrégé géographique et historique du Brabant hollandais.

^e On the south side of the town, on the declivity of a hill towards Liege, there is a strong fort, called St. Pierre, built in 1703, and capable of holding 14,000 men. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f Maseyk or Maaseyk (Morse).—Maeseck or Maeseyk (Enc. Meth.)—Du. *Mansik* (Hubner)—*Maeseyk* or *Maseyk* (Kilian).—P.

^g "Jean Van-Eyk."—Van Eyck is said to have invented oil painting about the year 1410. On the contrary, however, it is asserted that the art was known in Germany as early as the 11th or 12th century, and in England two centuries before the birth of Van Eyck. (Van Eyck was born 1370.) He at least first brought it into successful practice, and is said to have been the first who made use of drying oils. (Ed. Enc. Beauvais).—P.

^h Weert (Vosgien).—Du. *Weerd*—*Weert* or *Wiert* (Kilian).—P.

ⁱ "Jean de Wert"—John Van Wert.—P.

^k Du. *Venlo*.—P.

^l Du. *Rorr*; Germ. *Ruhr*.—P.

^m Fr. *Ruremonde*; Du. *Roermond*.—The Dutch name signifies the mouth of the Roer.—P.

ⁿ Gerard Mercator.

^o Limburg is situated on a hill near the Vese [Weze or Veze (Ed. Enc.) Vesder (Pinkerton)—a branch of the Ourthe,] 6 leagues S. E. of Liege. (Vosgien).—P.

^p This statement of the population is taken from the For. Quart. Rev. No. x. art. i.—P.

^q This account of the population and situation of Verviers is added by the translator.—P.

^r Eng. *Liege*; Fr. *Liège* or *Liège*; Du. *Luik* (Hubner)—*Luyc* or *Luyk* (Kilian); Germ. *Lüttich*; Lat. *Leodium* or *Leodicum*.—P.

^s Liege was formerly divided into the upper or old town, and the lower or new town. The former is built on the declivity of a hill, and stretches south to the left bank of the Meuse. The latter comprehends the quarter called the Isle, situated on an island in the Meuse, and the quarter beyond the Meuse, situated on a peninsula on the right bank of the river.—Liege was formerly the capital of the bishopric of the same name, one of the principalities of the German Empire. The episcopal palace was at the foot of the mountain of St. Walburg, on which the citadel was erected.—P.

^t Liege has ten great suburbs, and two small ones. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^u The university of Liege was created, along with that of Ghent, by the same edict (1816) which re-established that of Louvain. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ed societies, attest the wealth and importance of Liege. Its fortifications had ceased to be kept in repair by the French government; but a vast citadel has been erected, within these few years, on the site of the old one, and Liege now ranks in the second class of fortified towns. Its public edifices possess little deserving notice, if we except its massy cathedral, and its new theatre constructed upon the model of the Odeon at Paris. Liege has given birth to several celebrated men, whose memory must be dear to her, if we may judge from the price which she appeared to put upon the possession of the heart of our inimitable Gretry.^a

At the time we are writing, there seems a strong probability that the province we are next to speak of, the farthest south of the kingdom of the Netherlands, will be separated from the Belgian States, on the ground, it appears, of its not having formed part of Belgium, but a constituent part of the Germanic empire. Whatever there may be in this, and whatever may be the destination of Luxemburg, the province in question, it is necessary to describe it here, Germany having been already described, and our continental labours closing with the following book.^b

The grand dutchy of Luxemburg, with a surface of about 230 square leagues, is peopled by 292,000 inhabitants, which makes the population equal to 1269 individuals for every square league. If we except the capital,^c this territory contains no city of importance. At the foot of the mountains which separate the Ourthe from the Lesse, we perceive the small town of *St. Hubert*, where are preserved the remains of the patron of huntsmen, whose chapel is frequently visited by such of the peasantry as wish to place their persons and their flocks under his protection.^d The position of *Bouillon*,^e in a deep and narrow defile through which the Semoy

^a Gretry, the musician, was a native of Liege (born 1741.) After his death, his heart was claimed by the city of Liege, through his relatives, to whom it was adjudged by a judicial decision. (Beauvais.)—P.

^b The above paragraph is added by the translator. ^o It is simply stated in the original (published 1820:) that the possession of the grand dutchy of Luxemburg, its southernmost province, gives the kingdom of the Netherlands a place in the Germanic Confederation. For an account of the relations of Luxemburg to the kingdom of the Netherlands, on the one hand, and the Germanic Confederation, (not the Germanic Empire—that has ceased to exist since 1806,) on the other, the reader may consult a note to the account of the dutchy of Nassau, near the close of Book CXXI.—Since the revolution in Belgium, Luxemburg has formed part of the new state, and sent deputies to its congress. Leopold, the new king, in his address on assuming the sovereignty, encouraged his people to expect such an adjustment in regard to Luxemburg, as would free it from its relations to the family of Nassau and the Germanic body, and thus allow it to remain a constituent part of Belgium. More recent accounts have stated that a

takes a winding course, gives it a melancholy but yet romantic aspect. The old castle, which commands this former capital of a dutchy,^f would prove no defence against a powerful enemy, because it is itself commanded by the surrounding mountains. In the midst of forests, upon one of the hills where the Semoy has its origin, we see the small town of *Arlon*, which carries on a trade in iron and grain; it occupies the site of an ancient city, mentioned under the name of *Orolaunum* in the Itinerary of Antonine. Frequently, when its soil is turned up, different objects of antiquity are found. In 1793 and 1794, the French, at this place, twice put the Austrians to flight.

Advancing towards the east, we observe on the banks of the small river Alzette,^g the important fortress of *Luxemburg*,^h which, for twenty years, was the capital of the French department of the Forests.ⁱ The river waters the lower town, dividing it into two quarters, which may be considered as properly the suburbs of the fortress. The latter, forming the upper town, stands on the summit of a rock in which is cut a winding road that leads to it, so steep that carriages cannot ascend it without difficulty. Ditches of great width, and not less than eighty feet in depth, would be enough for the defence of the place, and yet, besides these, a double row of exterior works defends the approach to it. It is then no exaggeration to say that Luxemburg is one of the strongest places in Europe; in a military point of view, it has been viewed as more than merely a part of the kingdom of the Netherlands, the nomination of the governor^k being subject to the approbation of the Germanic Confederation. The strength of Luxemburg alone constitutes its importance; it would be a matter of difficulty to mention, among its edifices, one single building^l worthy of the rank which this city occupies.

motion has been made in the diet at Frankfort, to consider the propriety of immediately occupying the grand dutchy of Luxemburg with the troops of the Confederation.—P.

^c "Without excepting its capital."—The original does not even consider its capital a place of importance. See the last paragraph in this Book.—P.

^d "—to secure their persons and flocks from the hydrophobia (*rage*)." —It is a famous place of pilgrimage for men and animals suspected of having been bitten by rabid animals, the relics of St. Hubert being supposed to possess a miraculous efficacy in effecting their cure. (Enc. Meth. Vosgien.)—P.

^e Formerly, *Buillon* (Enc. Meth.)—Du. *Bullon*, *Bulion* (Kilian.)—P.

^f The dutchy of Bouillon, formerly a sovereignty.—P.

^g Alz (Enc. Meth.)—Else (Vosgien.)—Alsit (Morse.)—P.

^h Germ. *Lutzelburg*.—Du. *Lutsenburg*.—*Luxemburg* is also common to the English, German and Dutch languages.—Fr. *Luxembourg*.—P.

ⁱ "Département des Forêts."

^k "Governor or commandant of the fortress."

^l "Bâtiment civil"—building not military.—P.

BOOK CLI.

EUROPE.

Description of Europe continued—Holland, or the Seven United Provinces.^a

THE early history of Holland is the same with that of Belgium,^b down to the war of Independence and Existence, as it may also be called, with Spain. In Holland, a spirit of inquiry had kept alive the ancient love of independence and liberty, in preserving from the attempts of Charles V. himself, a system of national representation which placed the principal strength of government in the Assembly of the States; and when the tyranny of his son thought it had found in the doctrines of a blind fanaticism, a solid support against the ideas of civil and religious liberty that were becoming predominant in the age, his yoke only became the more insupportable to a people possessing courage enough to be free, and sufficiently enlightened to comprehend the advantages of religious toleration. The Hollanders, by seventy years of resistance,^c conquered their independence, and founded a republic equally formidable and industrious. The treaty of Munster in 1648 drew from the reluctant Spaniards an entire recognition of the Independence of the Seven United Provinces, while the Belgic provinces, divided among themselves, and not possessed of that love of freedom, which led their more northern neighbours to overcome every obstacle, remained submissive to Spain and to the Roman Catholic church. Conquered by the French in 1795,^d it was allowed to retain a nominal independence, till Napoleon, in 1810, made it an integral part of his empire. The losses of Napoleon in the campaigns of 1812 and 1813, led to the emancipation of Holland at the close of the last mentioned year; and this was followed by the ill-assorted union of Belgium and Holland in the Nassau family, under the name of the kingdom of the Netherlands,—a union which very recent events in Belgium have broken up and dissolved.

The government of the Seven United Provinces, previous to their conquest by the French in 1795, is now a matter of past history, a tale that is told. Yet it may be right to refer to it, and a very few words will suffice. It was a confederation of seven independent republics, which were united by the bonds of similarity of manners and pursuits, and especially by the remembrance of the long-protracted and bloody struggle, which they had maintained together for liberty and life against the whole power of the Spanish monarchy, and in which, as already noticed, they at last succeeded. The States-General and Senate^e were composed of deputies from the Seven provinces, whose business it was to take charge of all matters, involving the interests of the whole, such as war, peace, the laying on of taxes, &c., but in all matters of importance no steps could be taken by these bodies, without a reference to the States of the Provinces, and these again required to consult their constituents in the cities and country.^f The Stadtholder's office was merely executive, and even that was much limited, though his rank and influence were often productive of inroads upon the constitution of the States, and induced jealousies that proved the means more than once of abolishing the office.^g

Of the government established in 1814, after the expulsion of the French and union of the Dutch provinces with Belgium, we have already spoken in our account of the Belgian provinces, and to that we beg to refer the reader. It is presumed, that so far as Holland is concerned, the same form of government will subsist, without being at all affected by the defection and separation of Belgium.

The most ancient accounts of Holland represent it as one extended swamp, alternately covered and relinquished by the advancing and retiring waters of the ocean: and yet it appears from the Roman natural his-

^a See note ^a p. 1078.—P.

^b See Book CL.

^c The revolt in the Low Countries commenced in 1566, when the people rose in many towns in Flanders, and forced the prisons of the Inquisition. William, prince of Orange, commenced military operations in 1568. The Seven United Provinces formed their treaty of Union at Utrecht, Jan. 23, 1579. A truce of twelve years was concluded, by the mediation of France and England, at the Hague, in 1609, Spain acknowledging the United Provinces as a free republic. Hostilities were not afterwards renewed, and a definitive treaty was signed in 1647, and ratified at the peace of Westphalia [treaty of Munster] in 1648, when the seven provinces were acknowledged by all Europe as an independent state, under the title of the United Provinces (United States, in old authors).—P.

^d The French took possession of Amsterdam, Jan. 18th, 1795.—P.

^e Council of State.—P.

^f The deputies to the States-General were chosen by the States of the provinces, but each province, whatever might be the number of its deputies, had only one vote in the States-General. The acts of the

States-General were merely resolutions, and did not acquire the force of law till they were sanctioned by every province, and by every city and community in that province. The Council of State consisted of twelve members, also chosen by the provinces. These deputies, however, voted personally, and not provincially, like the deputies to the States-General. Their office was to direct the armed forces and finances, and to prepare business to be laid before the States-General.—P.

^g The office of Stadtholder has always been held by members of the Orange family, but it was not declared hereditary in that family, till that object was effected in 1672 by the influence of William III. (of Orange and of England.) On his death, however, the office was abolished, nor was it revived till 1747, when it was again declared hereditary in the Orange family, in the person of William IV. When the kingdom of the Netherlands was constituted in 1814, the sovereignty was vested in the same family in the person of William VI. of Orange, the present king of Holland.—P.

torian,^a that miserable, and to all appearance uninhabitable, as a country like this was, it was not destitute of inhabitants, who, subsisting on the produce of the sea, endeavoured to find habitations on every bit of land not taken possession of by the waves. It has been a question among inquirers into matters of this kind,—at what time the inhabitants began the erection of dikes to preserve themselves from the inundations of the sea; and there is strong ground to believe that, so early as the first or second century of the Christian era, this great work was commenced, and since that time there has been a contention between the inhabitants and the ocean, which has ended, however, in the country being brought to its present state of high improvement and cultivation, and comparative safety from the attacks of its powerful assailer. A great part of Holland, it is calculated, is between twenty and forty feet below high water mark on the surrounding coast; but the inhabitants seem to have no fear of their safety. At different times, however, the ocean has burst the barriers raised to control its waters, and, on such occasions, the effects have been disastrous in the extreme. As we proceed, we shall have occasion to notice some of the most remarkable of these inundations.

In Holland, it may be said, there are no mountains: we see nothing but plains, interrupted occasionally by rising grounds, not even deserving the name of hills, and much smaller than those that are to be found in Belgium.

We must refer to our account of Belgium for an account of the principal rivers of Holland, there being few that deserve the name but those already noticed there, viz: the *Rhine*, the *Waal*, the *Meuse*, and the *Scheld*. To these may be added, the *Yssel*,^b which proceeding, by an artificial cut,^c from the Rhine above Arnheim, takes a north-east direction to Döesberg,^d where it is joined by the *Old Yssel*, the proper channel of the stream, flowing from Westphalia. It then passes by Zutphen and Deventer, and after receiving a number of smaller tributary streams, falls into the east side of the Zuyderzee, below Campen. The *Wecht* or *Vecht*^e is a river of less importance than the Yssel, which takes its rise in Westphalia, and, after uniting with several other streams, falls into the Zuyderzee not far from the mouth of the Yssel. The *Hunse* is a small river which, passing by the fine city of Groningen, takes its course to the German Ocean.^f

There are many lakes in Holland,^g especially in

^a Plin. Hist. Nat. Lib. xvi. § 1.

^b Issel (Pinkerton).—Du. *Yssel*—*Isel* (Kilian).—P.

^c Canal of Drusus—Lat. *Fossa Drusi* (D'Anv.) *Fossa Drusiana* (Enc. Meth.)—The Rhine divides itself into two branches, between Huissen and Arnhem, one of which passes by the Canal of Drusus to Doesburg, where it unites with the Old Yssel, and finally falls into the Zuider-Zee. (Busching, Aardryksbeschryving, vertaald door J. de Jongh, Deel iv. Stuk i. p. 14.)—The Canal of Drusus was dug by Cl. N. Drusus, the brother of Tiberius.—P.

^d The proper name is Doesburg. The diæresis has no place in this word, the *oe*, in Dutch, being a diphthong, pronounced like *oo* Eng.—P.

^e Du. *Vecht*.—P.

^f All the above paragraphs are added by the translator.—P.

^g "The Dutch provinces."

^h Du. *Haarlemmer Meer* or *Meir*—properly, Haarlem Lake.—P.

ⁱ "Gulf of the Y"—called also the river Y, and more generally, the Y (Du. *het Y*, *Ye*, or *Ie*).—It is properly an arm of the Zuyderzee.—P.

^k The two last sentences are added by the translator.—P.

^l "Nearly 20,000 arpents."

^m —into a fertile *polder*.—*Polder* is a Dutch word, signifying a tract of land drained and embanked, with a special administration for securing the embankments (*waterstaat*).—P.

ⁿ Du. *Naarder Meer* (Naarden Lake)—situated near the town of

Friesland; but the only one deserving particular mention is that which is called the *Sea of Haarlem*,^h in the province of Holland. It communicates by the gulf of Yⁱ with the Zuyderzee, is five leagues in length, by two and a half in breadth, and is everywhere navigable. Its navigation, however, is impeded by the violent squalls and storms it is subject to. In one of these did the unfortunate Frederic, Elector Palatine and king of Bohemia, when an exile in Holland, lose his eldest son and save his own life with difficulty, by the upsetting the boat in which they were crossing the lake during a dark night.^k A neck of land about two leagues broad, separates it from the North Sea. This lake was formed three centuries and a half ago by an inundation of the ocean. The Jews of Amsterdam have offered to drain it, under the condition that the property of the land should be made over to them, but other interests have stood in the way of the execution of this project, which would transform an extent of water of more than twenty thousand acres^l into fertile meadow ground.^m Among the lakes which have undergone this useful metamorphosis, chiefly in North Holland, the most important is the *Sea of Naarden*.ⁿ The *Bies-Bosch*,^o on the frontiers of North Brabant,^p is a lake of about twelve square leagues in extent, which originated in a calamity more disastrous than that which formed the Sea of Haarlem. It was produced on the nineteenth of November, 1421, by the rupture of several dikes, in consequence of which seventy-two villages and a population of about 100,000 souls were submerged. Into this lake, several arms of the Meuse throw themselves, but on issuing from it, they form only one broad stream under the name of *Hollands-Diep*.^q Among the numerous marshes of this country, the *Bourteng*, in the provinces of Groningen and Drenthe,^r covers a considerable extent of land.

Of all the gulfs which border the coast, and serve as estuaries to the principal rivers, the two most important are the *Dollart*,^s between the province of Groningen and the kingdom of Hanover,^t and the *Zuyderzee*, between Holland and Friesland.^u The first, which receives the waters of the Ems, is three leagues in breadth, and from seven to eight in length. It is the result of a dreadful inundation of the sea, which, in 1277, swallowed up several villages. The second, into which the Reest, the Yssel, and several other rivers, throw themselves, was formed in 1225 by an irruption of the sea, which covered thirty leagues of country;^x its name sig-

Naarden (Naerden) in South Holland, E. by S. of Amsterdam.—In 1628, an attempt was made to drain and embank the *Nuarter Meer*; but owing to the sponginess of the ground, by means of which the influx of the water was too powerful to be resisted, the project was abandoned (*doch wegens de voosheid van den grond, die de doorzypering van water te sterk maakte, is dit ontveerp blyven steken*.) The lake has been noted for its fish and its duck decoys (*eede-koojen*.) (Busching, vertaald door De Jongh, 1773.) The most important of the drained lakes in North Holland, are the *Zype*, (defended from the sea by an immense dyke, called the *Hondsvooud* (Hound's wood); the *Beemster* the *Purmer*, the *Wormer*, and the *Schermer*. These lakes have been drained by means of wind-mills.—P.

^o Du. *Biesbosch*—literally, a thicket of bulrushes.—P.

^p To the south-east of Dort, in South Holland, and on the northern frontiers of North Brabant.—P.

^q Eng. Holland's Deep. *Diep*, as a substantive, in Dutch, signifies a channel, or gulf.—P.

^r The Bourtang lies on the eastern frontier of these provinces, and partly in Westphalia.—P.

^s Dollart or Dollert (Enc. Meth.)—Du. *Dollaardt* (Hubner).—P.

^t East Friesland.—P.

^u Between the Dutch provinces of Holland and Friesland.—P.

^x The south part of the Zuyder-Zee was originally a lake, of com-

nifies the *Southern Sea*,^a because it is to the south of the Ocean.

The original state of Holland, as almost one extended swamp, has already been noticed. In connexion with the building of dikes to preserve it from the inroads and attacks of the Ocean, the importance of draining the land by means of canals and ditches, would naturally occur to the inhabitants, and to such an extent has this been carried, that the whole country is covered with them. They are indeed innumerable, and most useful for travelling and facilitating internal trade; and being lined with rows of trees, tend to adorn the face of this flat and naturally uninteresting country. So flat is it, that to those approaching by sea, the spires and trees appear to rise out of the water.^b

The Dutch islands form two distinct groups.^c The southern group comprehends the largest, washed by the different arms of the Scheld, the Meuse and the Rhine; these are *Walcheren*, *North and South Beveland*,^d *Tholen*,^e *Schouwen*, *Over-Flakkee*,^f *Voorne*,^g and *Beyerland*.^h The northern is composed of the islands of *Wieringen*, *Texel*,ⁱ *Vlieland*,^k *Ter-Schelling*,^l and *Ameland*, all lying at the entrance of the Zuyderzee and on the coasts of Friesland.^m

For the Geology of Holland, the reader is referred to the remarks on the geology of Belgium,ⁿ which, from the similarity of the two countries, are intended to embrace both.^o

The Dutch provinces, conquests of Man over the Ocean, derive their fogs and humidity from the mists of the sea, and the exhalations of the marshes. During the winter, however, which lasts four months of the year, and which covers the ground with hoar-frost and ice, the east wind, which blows frequently in that season, dissipates the miasmata of an insalubrious atmosphere. The industry of the cultivator multiplies cattle and pasturage. Although this country does not present the

paratively small extent, called the *Flevo*, which received the Old Yssel, and discharged itself into the ocean by the river *Flevo*. When the canal of Drusus, now the New Yssel, had become one of the principal outlets of the Rhine, the lake was enlarged, and by its encroachments, and by incursions of the sea, the extensive tract of country which separated it from the ocean, and by which West Friesland in North Holland, and the present province of Friesland, were contiguous, being separated only by the river *Flevo*, was submerged. The exact period when this occurred is not known; indeed it is probable that it took place gradually, and at different periods. The breach, that formed the inlet to the Texel (*Mars-Diep*), is said by an old chronicle to have taken place in 1170; others say as late as 1400. (Ed. Enc.)—Busching states that West Friesland and the province of Friesland were connected till the 13th century, but does not specify the period when they were disjoined. The river *Flevo* is supposed to have followed the course of the present channel called the *Vlie Stroom*. The entrance to the sea is now chiefly occupied by shallows, the only important channels being the *Texel Stroom*, and the *Vlie Stroom*.—P.

^a Du. *Zuiderzee* or *Zuider-Zee*—*Suyder-See* (Kilian;) from *zuider*, southern, and *zee*, sea.—P.

^b This paragraph is added by the translator.—P.

^c M. Ad. Balbi, *Abrégé de Géographie*.

^d Du. *Noord- and Zuid- Beveland*.—P.

^e Du. *Thoolen* (Busching;) *Tolen* (Hubner).—P.

^f Overflakkee (Ed. Enc.)—Overflacque or Zuidvoorn [South Voorn] (Morse).—Du. *Overflakkee* (Hubner); *Overvlakkee*, *Over-Flakkee*, or *Over-Flacquee* (Busching).—It lies on the south side of the island of Voorn.—P.

^g Du. *Voorn*—*Vorn* or *Vorne* (Kilian).—The island of Voorn is divided by creeks into Voorn (proper), Beyerland, Stryen and Patten. Voorn proper, with the islands of Overflakkee and Goree (Du. *Goeree*) on the south, forms the district called Voornland, divided into East Voorn (Du. *Oostvoorn*) or Voorn proper, South Voorn or Overflakkee, and West Voorn or Goree.—P.

^h Beierland (Busching).—P.

ⁱ Tessel or Teksel (Hubner).—P.

^k Vlieland (Busching)—so called from the ancient river *Flevo*, now the channel called the *Vliestroom*, or the *Vlie* (*het Vlie*).—P.

agreeable variety of an irregular surface, yet the fine season adorns it with its charms; vast meadows, dazzling with the richest verdure, are during eight months of the year covered with cattle, whose plumpness announces an abundant and healthy nourishment, and the great number of these domestic animals attests no less the wealth of their owners, than in other quarters the cultivated fields indicate the intelligence and patient attention of a laborious population. Wheat, flax, and madder, in the north, and in the south, tobacco, and different kinds of fruit-trees, cover the best lands.^p It is among the Hollanders that horticulture has made the greatest progress, and where the culture of a thousand ornamental plants, and especially hyacinths and tulips, has been carried to such a length, that the price of a single flower often exceeds what would support twenty families for a year.

The population of Holland, viewed in a religious aspect, is divided into a great number of religions, communions and sects. No religion is there considered as being that of the state; all enjoy the same rights and equal liberty. The Reformed communion^q is, however, the most numerous; the Christians of the confession of Augsburg^r occupy the next rank; Mennonites, various other sects, and Jews, much less numerous than the two first mentioned, are scattered over all the provinces.^s

In regard to the language, with the exception of the Jews, the origin of the different dialects that are spoken may be traced to the *German*.^t The different dialects spoken in Friesland and the islands of the Zuyderzee, in the province of Holland, in Gueldres, in Zeeland, and in Dutch Brabant, are all of this description. The Jews, who came originally from Portugal, have preserved the idiom which was familiar to them when they established themselves in the Low Countries.^u

The most ancient inhabitants of the country were the *Frisii*, ancestors of the Frieslanders, who occupied from

¹ Du. *Schelling*, *Ter Schelling*, or *Der Schelling*.—The hyphen should not be used in this word.—P.

² The four first of the northern group belong to the province of Holland; the last, to that of Friesland.—P.

³ Book CL.

^o This sentence is added by the translator.—The geological remarks in the original refer to the whole kingdom of the Netherlands, but they chiefly apply to Belgium. All the older formations there noticed, the valleys there described, and the particular minerals enumerated, belong to Belgium. The Dutch Provinces consist almost entirely of the alluvium occupying the deltas of the rivers, and contain besides only loose tertiary deposits.—P.

^p There is very little land under tillage in the province of Holland, and what is under tillage is almost exclusively confined to South Holland. The best wheat is produced in the neighbourhood of Grave-sande, near the mouth of the Meuse. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^q Calvinists.

^r Lutherans.

^s These remarks on religion apply in the original to the whole kingdom of the Netherlands. It is there stated that the Roman Catholics hold the first rank in point of numbers, but are chiefly confined to the Belgic provinces, in which they predominate, and that on the contrary, the reformed communion is the predominant sect in the Dutch provinces. The others are ranked in the order in which they occur in the text.—P.

^t Not the German, but the Germanic or Teutonic stock.—P.

^u These remarks on language also apply in the original to the whole kingdom of the Netherlands. They are so mutilated and falsified in the translation, that I have thought it proper to give a closer version.—“Ethnographically considered, the population exhibits still more numerous diversities. The languages spoken belong to three great classes. The most important of these, is the *Germanic*: the people of Friesland and of the islands in the Zuyder-Zee, those who speak the Dutch language (*Hollandais*), those who retain the Netherlandish dialects of Gelders, Zeeland, and the other northern provinces, the Flemings of the northern Belgic provinces, and the inhabitants of the adjoining districts in Germany, all belong to this division. The

south to north the country comprehended between the Rhine and the Ocean. Their Latin name (*Frisii*) probably comes from an old word in the Germanic language, *frissen*,^a which signifies to grub up, to dig or drain marshes.^b They were one of the most powerful nations of Western Germany. Brave, and jealous of their liberty, they were long the devoted auxiliaries of the Romans; their independence was never disputed; we see them, after the death of Drusus, choosing chiefs or dukes from amongst themselves. The *Batavi* were, it is believed, a colony of the *Catti*, a German people; forced by a series of intestine dissensions to quit their own country, they planted themselves in the sandy and marshy country, circumscribed by the Rhine and the Meuse; their neighbours called them, for this reason, *Wattaver*,^c an appellation which the Romans changed into *Batavi*.^d When Cæsar undertook the conquest of Gaul, they were already powerful, and masters of part of the country to the south of the lower Meuse. Their cavalry was formidable; their horses were trained to swim across rivers without breaking their ranks. At the battle of Pharsalia, they decided the victory in favour of Cæsar. Their bravery and loyalty gave them the privileged title of friends and brothers of the Romans, and the honour of forming the prætorian guard. In all important expeditions, in every dangerous enterprise, the Batavians were selected. They composed the forlorn hope of the Roman army, sustained the first shock of the enemy's attack, and made the first attack with a boldness and impetuosity peculiar to themselves.^e Tacitus says, that no tribute was imposed upon them; they remained faithful to the empire till its fall. Their territory was comprehended in the province of *Germania Secunda*.

From these generalities, which it would be unprofitable

Græco-Latin comprehends those who retain the Walloon and the French Flemish, two dialects of the French, and who inhabit the two provinces of Flanders, and those of Liege, Namur, South Brabant and Hainault. The Jews belong to the *Shemite* class: having come originally from Portugal, they retain the language which was familiar to them when they established themselves in the Low Countries."

^a "*Frissen*."—Busching derives the name from *frissen*, to dig, to turn up the ground.—P.

^b The name of the *Frisii* has been derived from the Frisic word *frie* (Germ. *frey*), free, and it is stated by Alting that they have always been styled free Frisians (*frie Friescen*.) Others have derived it from *fris* (Germ. *frisch*), fresh, new, because they occupied the lands newly recovered from the sea, such lands being still called *Friesselanden*, in distinction from the old lands (*Oldelanden*.) Others, finally, have derived it from *fris*, cold, (from the root of freeze,) from the cold and damp climate which they inhabited. (J. H. Steffens, *Gesch. der alten Bewohner Teutschlandes*, p. 271. 1752.)—P.

^c In Dutch and Low German, *watt* still signifies sand bank; *ave* or *are*, low land, meadow. [In Dutch, *watte*, or *waude*, signifies a ford; *watten*, plu. flats or shoals. The word is spelt variously in Kilian's *Low Dutch Dictionary*, 1642, viz. *wat*, *wad*, *wade*, *watte*, *waede*, all rendered ford (*vadum*.) (This Dictionary includes words, not only in the Dutch proper (Hollandish,) but in the Flemish, the dialect of Brabant, and those of other provinces in the Low Countries, and also in those of Lower Germany.) *Wat* still signifies a shallow (*untiefe*) in German. Dan. *vad* or *vod*, a ford. (Baden.) Swed. *vad*, a ford. The word is from the root of the English, *wade*, Latin, *vadum*.—In German, *au*, or *awe*, signifies meadow or pasture. The same word, in Kilian, is written *awce*, and *ouwe*. The word is not at present retained in the Dutch. The corresponding word, now used in that language, is *wei*, or *weide*, (Germ. *weide*.)—P.]

^d Germ. *Platt Deutsch*, or *Niederdeutsch*, including all the vulgar dialects of the North of Germany, such as the Low Saxon, Westphalian, &c.—P.

^e The name *Batavi* (Germ. *Batt-Aer*) signifies the *Batti* (synonymous with *Catti*) of the meadows (*auen*)—so called because they inhabited the meadows on the Lower Rhine, particularly on the island included between the Rhine and the Waal (the ancient *Insula Batavorum*.) still called *Betuwe*. (Steffens.)—P.

^f These two last sentences are added by the translator.—P.

to extend farther, let us pass on to the important cities and towns of the different Dutch provinces. When these provinces rose up against the tyranny of Philip II., and bound themselves by the treaty of Utrecht in 1579, they were seven in number: the lordships of Groningen, Friesland, Over-Yssel, and Utrecht, the dutchy of Gueldres, and the counties of Holland and Zeeland, and to these may be added, the territory of Drenthe. Dutch Brabant and East Flanders, having been in their possession when peace was made with Spain, were given up to them. Thus matters continued till the invasion and conquest of Holland by the French republic in 1795. In 1798, having been called upon by the republican government of France to adopt some new organization, they took the name of the *Batavian republic*. Their political division changed; they were divided into eight departments.^f This division lasted only eighteen months, when that which recalled the good old days of Dutch independence was again resorted to, and continued till the time when Napoleon imposed a sovereign in the person of his brother, upon the descendants of those republicans who had cemented their independence by the blood of the Spanish phalanxes. Their country was then divided into eleven departments.^h United, the 9th of July 1810, to the French empire, Holland formed seven departments;ⁱ but since its erection, after the downfall of Napoleon, into an independent state, the original division has again prevailed.^k

Groningen,^l the capital of the province of that name,^m is the most important city in the north of the kingdom. Watered by the small river Hunse, and situated at the junction of three great canals, which give it a communication with several commercial cities; possessing also a port which, although five leagues from the mouth of the Ems, receives the largest merchant vessels, it is not

^f Known by the names of Delft, Dommel, Amstel, Ems, Scheld and Meuse, Rhine, Texel, and Old Yssel, from the names of the principal rivers which traversed them. [Those of Delft and Texel, the former from the city, the latter from the island of the same name, not from rivers.—P.]

^g "When these provinces, after having risen against the tyranny of Philip II., united themselves by the treaty of Utrecht in 1579, they were seven in number, namely, the lordships of Groningen, Friesland, Overijssel and Utrecht, the dutchy of Gelders, and the counties of Holland and Zeeland. The country of Drenthe was their ally * Dutch Brabant and East Flanders were their dependencies.† In 1798, the republican government of France, whose armies had invaded the territory of the Seven United Provinces, induced them to modify their organization, when they took the name of the Batavian Republic. Their political division was changed; they were divided into eight departments."^h

ⁱ The Country (*Landschap*) of Drenthe was under the protection of the Commonwealth, but had no seat in the States-General. The Seven United Provinces were alone considered as sovereign states. (Busching.)—P.

[†] The Dutch possessed, previous to the French revolution, that part of Flanders lying along the left bank of the West Scheldt, called Dutch Flanders, and including Axel, Sluys and Hulst; North Brabant, then called Dutch Brabant, including Bois-le-Duc, Breda, Bergen-op-Zoom, Fort Lillo, and Grave; Venloo and Stevenswaerd, on the Meuse, in Upper Gelderland; and a part of the old province of Limburg, on the Meuse, including Maestricht, Dalem and Valkenburg. These districts are now claimed by Holland.—P.

^h Amstelland, Brabant, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelders, Maasland, Friesland, East Friesland, Overijssel, Drenthe, and Groningen.

ⁱ Eastern Ems, Western Ems, Friesland. Mouths of the Yssel, Upper Yssel, Zuyderzee, and Mouths of the Meuse.

^k "But when, in connection with Belgium, it was erected into the kingdom of the Netherlands, the original division again prevailed."

^l Du. *Groningen*—*Groeningen* (Kilian).—Fr. *Groningue*.—P.

^m The province of Groningen (Du. *Groningerland*) consisted of the City of Groningen and its territory, and the Ommelanden (literally, surrounding country;) forming two districts, separately represented in the provincial states. Hence the province was styled officially, the City of Groningen and the Ommelanden (Du. *Stad Groningen en Ommelanden*.)—P.

astonishing that this flourishing city has a good university, besides several schools, fine collections and scientific societies. It has given birth to several distinguished savans, among others, to Rudolph Agricola, the first introducer of the Greek language into Germany,^a to Albert Schultens, the orientalist, and to Munting, who founded there the botanical garden, at present so much admired.^b Its finest edifices are the Gothic church of St. Martin, the spire of which is 330 feet high, and the town-house, built in 1793, upon a spot^c which passes for one of the finest in Holland. One of its bridges, called *Botering-Hoog*, is regarded as a chef-d'œuvre. These buildings, and many others which might be mentioned, together with the cleanliness and regularity of its streets, rank Groningen among the finest cities in the Low Countries. It was formerly a member of the Hanseatic league. It is pretended, upon some very uncertain evidence, that it was built around the Roman fortress called by Tacitus *Corbulonis monumentum*;^d yet the first time it is mentioned in history is in the ninth century, and it was not till the fourteenth that they raised the fortifications which have been kept up ever since with much care.

Leeuwarden,^e in the province of Friesland, communicates with Groningen, and also with *Dockum*,^f *Sneek*,^g and other towns, by means of canals, and thus carries on an active trade. This pretty town^h is surrounded by a ditch and an earthen rampart; one of its twelve churches contains the tombs of the princes of Orange, and their

^a Remark of the translator.—The same remark is found in Lempriere and Platt.—Rodolphus Agricola was born at Bafflum [Bafflen] near Groningen, in 1412; he studied Greek under Theodore Gaza at Ferrara.—P.

^b Henry Munting, professor of botany at Groningen, formed a large collection of plants, of which he published a catalogue. Abraham Munting, his son and successor, also published several works on botany. (Beauvais).—The genus *Muntingia* was named from them.—P.

^c “Fronting a square (*sur une place*).”

^d *Corbulonis Monumentum*, a fortress in Germany near the country of the *Cauchi* [*Chauci*, Tac.] Tacitus relates that Corbulo, after having defeated the *Frisii*, compelled them to give hostages, and to settle in the territory he allotted to them. He gave them magistrates and laws, and erected a fortress among them. The latter is supposed to have occupied the site of Groningen. (Enc. Meth. Geog. Anc.)—His name was given to a place (*Monumentum*) in Germany, which some suppose to be modern Groningen. *Tacit. Ann.* xi. c. 18. (Lempriere's Class. Diet. edit. Anthon.)—The following is the passage referred to in Tacitus (*Annal.* xi. c. 19.) “Et natio Frisiorum post rebellionem datis obsidibus cedit apud agros, a Corbulone descriptos. Idem senatum, magistratus, leges imposuit; ac, ne jussa exuerent, presidium immunivit.”—The “*Monumentum*” is not mentioned in *Ann.* xi. c. 18.—P.

^e Du. *Leeuwarden*—*Leeuwaarden*, or *Leeuwerde* (Kilian).—Frisic, *Lieuwerden* (Busching)—*Lieuwerd* (Hubner)—Fr. *Leuwerde* (Enc. Meth.)—Leuarden (Tuckey).—Leuwarden (Vosgien).—Leuwarden, Leuwarden (Guthrie).—The name is said to be derived from *leucue*, lion, or *lieve*, dear, or the small river *Le* or *Lea*, or finally, from one *Lew*, the original proprietor, and *werd* or *waard*, an artificial mound for retreat in case of floods. (Busching.)—P.

^f Du. *Dokkum*, properly *Dokkenheim*, or *Dokko'sheim* (Busching)—*Doekom* or *Doekem* (Kilian)—situated on the river Ee, N. E. of Leeuwarden.—P.

^g Du. *Sneek*—*Sneek* (Enc. Meth.)—Frisic, *Suits*.—S. W. of Leeuwarden, on the west side of the *Sneeker Meer* (Sneek Lake), from which a canal passes through the town.—P.

^h “Capital”—of the province.—P.

ⁱ This is stated in *D'lices des Pays-Bas*, vol. v. p. 318.—P.

^k Du. *Harlingen*.—Fris. *Harlinga*; originally, *Harliga*, from a noble Frisian family of that name.—Harlingen was at first a hamlet (*buurt*) and afterwards a market town (*plek*.) gradually formed around the castles of the two noble families of Harliga and Harnis. The western side of the town was at different intervals submerged by the waves, and in the mean time a suburb, called *Almenum*, extended on the east, and was finally incorporated. Although it had earlier acquired the privileges of a city (*stad*), it was not surrounded with walls till the

palace is one of its principal edifices. Upon the site of a hamlet swallowed up by the sea in 1134,ⁱ stands *Harlingen*,^k important on account of its fortifications, and also a place of very considerable trade; near the harbour may be seen a monument erected in honour of Gaspard Robles, who, by repairing at his own expense the dikes of the province,^j merited the gratitude of his fellow-citizens.^m

Assen, the capital of the province of Drenthe,ⁿ is a handsome small town, which, by a canal, communicates with *Meppel*, a town of 4000 souls, and with the *Zuyderzee*. There have been discovered in its environs, several tombs of the ancient Germans. *Koeverden*,^o built in the form of a pentagon, is surrounded by fortifications which are by some regarded as the chef-d'œuvre of Cohorn;^p it is besides environed by a marsh,^q which renders it difficult of access.

The province of Overijssel^r contains several towns of importance: in *Zwool*,^s the capital, the church of St. Michael is remarkable for its fine organ and the sculpture upon its pulpit; *Campen*,^t upon the left bank of the *Yssel*, at a short distance from its entrance into the *Zuyderzee*, is surrounded by walls and ditches. Its trade, which has been long on the decline, is menaced with total destruction by the sand-banks which obstruct its harbour.^u *Deventer*, which boasts of its hard ware, beer and gingerbread, possesses some fine buildings; it was the native place of the philosopher Gronovius.^x

fifteenth century. (Busching).—Harlingen is situated on the sea, west of Leeuwarden, and opposite the *Vlietstroom*.—P.

^j “—by improving the dikes of the province.”—Nearly one half of the town on the west side having been formerly carried away by the sea, it became of great importance to strengthen its defences on that side, which consist not only of dikes, but of wall, pile and coffer work. The Spanish governor, Caspar Robles, having done much to promote the work, a stone column, called the Stone Man (*de Steene Man*), with an inscription in honour of him, was erected on the dike to the south of Harlingen, but afterwards removed. (Busching.)—P.

^m Franeker, formerly the seat of a university (now college or athe-næum), on the canal between Leeuwarden and Harlingen, may also be mentioned among the towns of Friesland. Under the old Dutch government, there were eleven cities in the province, having a voice in the States, including besides those already mentioned, *Bolswert* (Du. *Bolswerd*, or *Bolswaard*—Fris. *Bolward*), *Staveren* (*Starven*), *Slooten* (*Sloteu*), *Workum* (originally *Wolderkum*), *Ylst* (Fris. *Ylts*), and *Hindeloopen* (*Hindloopen*, *Hinloopen*, or *Hinloopen*). The people in the province are mostly of Frisian origin, and still retain their peculiar language, to which they show a strong attachment. It possesses many literary remains of different periods, and not a little zeal is at present exhibited in its cultivation.—P.

ⁿ Drent (Kilian. Pinkerton).—P.

^o Du. *Koeverden*—*Covorden* (Kilian).—In different English and French authors, *Coeverden*.—“*Koeverden*.” M. B.—This is a mistake, the diphthong *æ* not occurring in the Dutch language. See note ^d p. 1093.

^p “It is regarded as the chef-d'œuvre of Cohorn.”—The same expression is used in the Enc. Meth.—Bergen op Zoom was regarded by Cohorn as his masterpiece. (Ed. Enc.)—*Koeverden* is one of the strongest fortresses in Holland.—P.

^q The name of this celebrated engineer is generally written Cohorn—Coehorn (Enc. Meth.)—Du. *Koehoorn*. (Busching.)—P.

^r “By marshes.”—It is surrounded by a great marsh. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^s Du. *Zwool*, *Zwolle*—*Swool* (Hubner)—*Swoolle* (Kilian).—*Zwool* (Tuckey).—*Z* is very often used now in Dutch, where *s* was formerly used. *Oo*, in Dutch, is merely low *o*.—P.

^t *Kampen* (Hubner).—P.

^u Its harbour is now much choked up with sand. (Morse).—P.

^x Doubtless, James Gronovius, the celebrated critic and philologist, son of John Frederick Gronovius, a native of Hamburg, also a learned critic. James Gronovius is chiefly known by his *Thesaurus Antiquitatum Græcorum*, in 13 vols. fol. He became professor of Greek at Leyden, where he died. John Fr. and Lawrence Theod. Gronovius, the first his son, and the second his grandson, were distinguished as naturalists.—P.

Gueldres or *Guelderland*,^a which has preserved the name of a city ceded to Prussia, more than a century ago,^b was formerly inhabited by the *Sicambri*, a people of ancient Germany. The first city we come to, following the course of the Yssel, is *Zutphen*,^c defended by some fortifications. English readers will connect with *Zutphen*, the renowned and gallant Sir Philip Sydney, who was killed at the siege of this town, then in the hands of the Spaniards, in 1586.^d Upon the right bank of one of the arms of the Rhine,^e stands *Arnhem*,^f not less strong, and the seat of government of the province. It was fortified by the celebrated *Coehorn*. Its ramparts are planted with beautiful elms, and form an agreeable promenade. It possesses a good harbour, its streets are straight, and the principal church contains the tombs of the ancient dukes and counts of *Gueldres*.^g Some leagues to the south of this capital, lies the much more considerable city of *Nimeguen*;^h it bore in ancient times the name of *Noviomagus*, which, during the middle ages, was changed to that of *Numaga*.ⁱ [*Nimeguen* is built on a steep rising ground, reaching down to the edge of the *Waal*, and the steepness is so great, that some of the streets are scarcely passable for wheel carriages. Most of the streets are narrow and dark; but some of them are of a tolerable breadth and well formed. The principal church is a handsome structure, and the town-house, a very old building, is also worthy of notice. From the top of an ancient tower, called the *Belvidere*, there is a most extensive view.^k "All *Holland*," says a traveller, describing it, "seemed to lie like a map

before me, presenting a flat of such extent, that the eye is almost wearied with wandering over the boundless space, and which is so intersected in every direction with rivers, canals, and swamps, that the whole country looks as if but yet half recovered from the mighty universal flood. From *Arnhem* in the north, to *Gueldres* in the south, and from *Utrecht* in the west, to the forests of *Guelderland*, and even of *Westphalia* in the east, the whole country here lies open to the view; and at a fearful depth below, is traced the broad majestic *Rhine* (*Waal*) sweeping onward in its full and steady course through this wide favouring land, to where the horizon, sinking into earth and water, terminates the scene."^l *Nimeguen* is celebrated for two treaties of peace; the first concluded in 1678, between *Spain*, *France*, and *Holland*, and the second, the following year, between the *Germanic Empire* and *Sweden*.^m

One of the arms of the *Rhine*ⁿ flows through *Utrecht*,^o a city of much more importance than any we have yet mentioned. The name of *Trajectum*, by which it is designated in the *Itinerary of Antonine*, announces it to have been one of the fifty fortresses which *Drusus* caused to be erected amongst the *Batavi*, in order to secure the navigation of the principal rivers. This rising city was several times destroyed by the *Barbarians* during the reign of *Valentinian*; *Ulpus Trajan* rebuilt it, which procured for it the name of *Trajectum Ulpium*.^p [*Utrecht* stands, what does not often occur in *Holland*, on a rising ground, and lying on the banks of the *Rhine*, and in the midst of a country, every part of it cultivated

^a "La *Gueldre*."—Du. *Gelderland*, *Gelder*—in the provincial dialect, *Gelre*—*Gelderlandt*, *Ghelderlund* (*Kilian*).—Germ. *Gelderland* or *Geldern* (the country.) *Gelder* (the town).—Fr. *Gueldre*, *Gueldres*, or *Guelderland*.—In English authors, generally written *Gelderland*, or *Gelders*; sometimes *Guelderland*. The *u*, in the French orthography, is merely used to give the hard sound of the *g*, in the Dutch and German. The *h*, in the old Dutch orthography, answered the same purpose.—*Gelderland* was originally a dutchy. North *Gelderland*, united with the county of *Zutphen*, formed one of the provinces of the Dutch confederacy, the states of which bore the title of *States of the Dutchy or Principality of Gelre* and the *County of Zutphen*. South *Gelderland* remained to *Spain* after the treaty of *Munster*, and passed to the house of *Austria* on the accession of the emperor *Charles VI.*, who ceded to *Frederick William I.* of *Prussia*, in 1713, the city of *Gelders*, and its territory. Previous to the French revolution, South *Gelderland* was divided between *Prussia*, who possessed the quarter of *Gelders*, *Austria*, who possessed that of *Roermond*, and the *Dutch*, who possessed that of *Venloo*.—P.

^b A. D. 1713.

^c Du. *Zutphen* (*Busching*)—*Zutfen* (*Hubner*)—*Sutfen* (*Kilian*).—P.

^d This sentence is added by the translator.—P.

^e The north arm, just after it sends off the *Yssel*.—P.

^f "Arnhem."—Du. *Arnhem* or *Aarnhem* (*Hubner*)—*Arnhem*, properly *Arnheim*, vulgarly *Arem* (*Busching*).—P.

^g See note ^a.

^h "Nimègue." Fr.—Eng. *Nimeguen*.—Du. *Nymegen*, *Nimwegen*, or *Nimmegen*; contracted from *Nicuw-Megen* (*Nieuweghen*, *Kilian*), the translation of its Latin name (See note ⁱ;) which is said in old German to signify new town (*magen* or *megen*, Lat. *magum*, a town or city.) (*Busching*).—P.

ⁱ Ancient name, *Noviomagus Batavorum* (*D'Anv.*)—in modern Latin, *Noviomagus* or *Neomagus* (*Busching*).—P.

^k The finest view in *Nimeguen* is from a projecting angle of the city wall, at the extremity of a walk planted with trees, called the *Kulcebosch*. The Duke of *Parma*, governor under *Philip II.*, gave to this spot the name of *Belvidere*, and a lofty building, used as a place of amusement (*speelhuys*), has been erected there. (*Busching*).—P.

^l The sentences inclosed in brackets are added by the translator.—P.

^m A separate treaty of peace and commerce was concluded between *France* and *Holland*, at *Nimeguen*, Aug. 10, 1678; a joint treaty of truce, between *France*, *Spain* and *Holland*, in the camp at *Mons*, Aug. 19, 1678; and a separate treaty of peace, between *France* and *Spain*, at *Nimeguen*, Sept. 17, 1678. A treaty of peace, between *France* and the Emperor *Leopold*, was concluded at *Nimeguen*, Feb. 5, 1679; VOL. III.—NO. 55

another, between the Emperor and the King of *Sweden*, in which *France* was included, of the same date; and a treaty for the execution of peace (definitive,) between the Emperor and *France*, July 17, 1679. (*Fr. Leonard. Recueil des Traitez*, t. iii. iv. v. 1693.)—P.

ⁿ The old *Rhine*, entering the sea near *Leyden*.—*Utrecht* stands at the point of union of four navigable waters, viz. the *Holland Veicht* (*Hollandsche Veicht*), the *Crooked* and *Old Rhine* (*Kromme and Oude Rhyn*), and the *Rhine Canal* (*Vuartsche Rhyn* or *Rhynsche Vaart*.) The *Crooked Rhine* is that part of the old arm of the *Rhine*, extending from the origin of the *Leck* to *Utrecht*, whence it is continued towards *Leyden* in the *Old Rhine* (*Oude Rhyn*.) The *Veicht* separates from it near *Utrecht*, and flows N. W. into the *Zuyderzee*, and the *Rhine Canal* extends from the *Leck* opposite *Vyanen* to the *Old Rhine* at *Utrecht*. (*Busching*).—P.

^o *Utrecht* (*Hubner*).—*Utrecht*, *Utricht* (*Kilian*).—Pronounced by the *Hollanders*, *Uitert*; by the inhabitants, *Oitert*. (*Busching*).—P.

^p The original name of *Utrecht* is said to have been *Antonia*, which some have supposed was one of the fifty fortresses erected by *Drusus* along the left bank of the *Rhine*. (See note ^c p. 1093.) It is called *Trajectum* (ferry) in the *Itinerary of Antonine*. It was also called *Trajectum ad Rhenum* (ferry over the *Rhine*) to distinguish it from *Trajectum ad Mosam* (ferry over the *Meuse*), now *Maestricht*; *Trajectum Inferius* (lower ferry); and in the middle ages, *Trajectum Vetus* (old ferry.) It is called *Utricesium* and *Utricesima*, in *Ammianus Marcellinus*, which has been supposed by *Hadrian Junius*, to signify the station of the 35th legion (*V. TRIC. LEG. STAT.*) The modern Latin name, *Ultrajectum*, has been derived, by contraction, from *Ulpium Trajectum*, or *Ultrajectum*, a name supposed to have been given it from *Ulpianus Trajanus* (the emperor *Trajan*), who commanded the legions in *Lower Germany* during the reign of *Domitian*. Others derive it, by translation, from *Trajectum Vetus*, which in the *Frisian* language is rendered *Old-Trecht*, softened into *Outrecht*, from the first of which the Latin *Ultrajectum*, and from the second the modern name, *Utrecht*, is derived. Others derive it from the *Wiltes* or *Vultes* (*Du. Wilten* or *Vulten*, whence *Vultrajectum*), a *Slavonian* people, who destroyed the fortress of *Antonia*, and erected another called *Wiltenurg*, in 186. But *Altling* denies the existence of such a people. (*Busching*).—There is apparently an error in the text, in stating that the ancient city was destroyed by the *Barbarians* in the reign of *Valentinian*, and rebuilt by *Ulpus Trajan*. The *Almanni*, a nation of ancient *Germany*, thrice invaded *Gaul* (365, 366, and 368,) during the reign of *Valentinian I.* *Ulpus Trajan* was undoubtedly the emperor *Trajan*, who commanded the legions in *Lower Germany*, A. D. 91, consequently, nearly 300 years before the reign of *Valentinian*.—P.

like a garden, the situation is pleasing, and the appearance of the city agreeable. As usual, a number of canals run through it, and the public mall or promenade^a through numerous avenues of fine trees is highly ornamental. Its cathedral was destroyed by a violent storm in the latter part of the seventeenth century, and is now in ruins.^b The tower of the cathedral is very lofty,^c and from the top, it is said that fifty or sixty walled cities and towns may be seen.^d There repose in this cathedral the ashes of several emperors.^e The edifices in Utrecht possess a character of antiquity, which inspires respect: in examining them, the remembrance of the act of union of 1579,^f which proclaimed the independence of the republic of the Seven United Provinces,^g and that of the peace which was signed here in 1713,^h present themselves to the mind. We are reminded that in this city, the cradle of pope Adrian VI., the preceptor of Charles V., was formed that mighty maritime power, which long struggled against England, which was humbled by Louis XIV., but which made that great king to tremble. Its university, its scientific collections, and its societies of arts, of sciences, and for benevolent and useful purposes,ⁱ are worthy of the rank which Utrecht occupies in the annals of Holland. Burman,^k the editor of the classics, was a native of Utrecht. The learned Grævius,^l who resided and died here, was a native of Saxony. It has given name to a kind of velvet which is still manufactured here. [The road from Utrecht to Amsterdam is considered as passing through the most beautiful and picturesque part of Holland. The whole line is over a flat but fertile country, along the banks of the great canal,^m which is ornamented on both sides with nearly one continued range of country seats, belonging to the wealthy merchants. The extremely rich appearance of this part of the country,

^a Du. *Mulieboon*.—P.

^b The nave of the cathedral (St. Martin's) was destroyed by a storm Aug. 1, 1674; the choir and the transepts, together with the tower, from which they are separated by the open place, formerly occupied by the nave, are the only parts remaining. (Busching.)—P.

^c More than 380 feet high. (Busching.)—P.

^d The sentences enclosed in brackets are added by the translator.—P.

^e On the pavement of the church are the following inscriptions: *Exta Conradi II. Imper.* 1039, and *Exta Henrici V. Imper.* 1125. (Busching.)—P.

^f Called by the Dutch, the treaty of union (*Vereenigings Verbond*), or the Union of Utrecht (*Unie van Utrecht*).—P.

^g See note ^c p. 1092.

^h The peace of Utrecht was concluded, by separate treaties, on the evening of April 11, 1713, in the council chamber (*Raadkamer*) of the town-house (*Stadhuys*) of that city, between France on the one side, and England, Holland, Savoy, Portugal, and Prussia, on the other, thus including all the belligerents, except the Emperor, with whom a separate treaty was concluded at Rastadt, March 6, 1714, and ratified by the treaty of Baden, Sept. 7, of the same year. By these treaties, the war of the Spanish succession was concluded, and the crown of Spain confirmed to Philip V., he renouncing, for himself and his successors, all claims to the throne of France, and on the contrary, all others who had then claims to that throne, renouncing all pretensions to that of Spain. (Leonard, *Recueil*. t. viii. Rousset, *Recueil*. t. i.)—P.

ⁱ "Its societies of arts, sciences, and the public good" (Du. *tot nut van 't algemeen*, for the promotion of the public good.)—There is a society of the same name at Amsterdam.—P.

^k Peter Burman, born 1668—noted as an editor of the Latin classics.—Peter Burman, his nephew, born at Amsterdam 1714, was also distinguished as an editor of the Latin poets.—P.

^l J. G. Grævius (Grife), a native of Naumburg in Saxony—died at Utrecht, where he was professor of history, in 1703. He is chiefly known by his *Thesaurus Antiquitatum Romanarum* (12 vol.) et *Italicarum* (6 vol.) an immense compilation in folio, continued by Burman to 45 volumes.—P.

^m This canal leads from the Vecht below Utrecht to the Amstel, and is generally called the Vecht, the river of that name being called the Old Vecht (*Oude Vecht*). (Busching.)—P.

ⁿ The sentences enclosed in brackets are added by the translator.—P.

the noble breadth of the canal, ornamented with trees, and the quick succession of villas passing before the eye, render the scene very interesting, possessing indeed nothing of the sublime, but much quiet rural beauty.]ⁿ *Amersfoort*^o is the second city of the province of Utrecht; it is large and well fortified; it prides itself in having given birth to the celebrated Olden Barnevelt,^p the victim of the ambition and despotism of Maurice of Nassau.

From the southern extremity of the Zuyderzee to the island of *Schiermonnik-Oog*,^q the smallest and most northerly of the islands which border the entrance of this great gulf, the passage is forty leagues, and the navigation very dangerous, because it is necessary to pass between a great number of sand-banks. The island just named, as well as that of *Ameland*, which contains 3000 inhabitants, and that of *Ter-Schelling*, much larger,^r but with nearly the same population, are dependent upon the province of Friesland.^s To the south-west of these, *Vlieland*, surrounded by sand-banks; the important island of *Texel*; and that of *Wieringen*, covered with meadows and cultivated fields, and possessing a population of 1200 souls, belong to North Holland.^t The Texel is celebrated for several naval engagements which were fought near its coasts, and especially for one in 1653, in which the celebrated Van Tromp^u lost his life. [To the south of the Texel, opposite the village of *Camperdown*,^x in North Holland, was fought on the 11th October 1797, an engagement between the British fleet under the command of Admiral (afterwards Viscount) Duncan, and the Dutch commanded by De Winter, each fleet sixteen sail of the line in number,^y besides frigates. The Dutch were defeated with the loss of ten ships of the line and two frigates captured,^z with their admiral and vice-admiral.]^{aa}

^o Amersfoort (M. B. Busching—the proper Dutch name.)—Amersfort (Kilian.)—Amersfoort (Hubner.)—Amersford (Vogsein.)—Situated on the river Eem, N. E. of Utrecht.—P.

^p *Johan van Oldenbarnevelt*. (Busching.)—John Olden Barneveldt. (Gorton.)—In different authors he is referred to by the name of Barneveldt simply.—P.

^q *Schiermonnikoog* (Busching.)—*Schiermonickoog* (Guthrie.)—This island lies off the mouth of the Hunse or gulf of Groningen (*Groninger-diep*).—*Oog*, a Frisian word, signifying island (Dan. *øe*.) is a termination common to several islands off the coast of East Friesland.—Rottum and Bossels or Bosch, E. of *Schiermonnikoog*, and in the province of Groningen, belong to Holland.—P.

^r *Ter Schelling* is three leagues long, and two broad—*Ameland*, three leagues long, and one broad. (Tuckey.)—P.

^s *Ter Schelling* formerly belonged to the province of Holland. (Busching.)—P.

^t Formerly to the province of Holland, of which North Holland was only a subdivision, including that part of it north of the Y. At present, the old province of Holland constitutes the two provinces of North and South Holland, for the relative extent of which, see Stat. Tab. of the Dutch Provinces.—P.

^u "Admiral Tromp."—Du. *Marten Haperszen Tromp* (Busching.)—Martin Herbertson Tromp (Gorton.)—Generally written Tromp simply, in English historians.—P.

^x The Dutch fleet were drawn up about 9 miles off the coast, between Camperdown and Egmont. (Miller's Hist. Geo. III.)—Egmont *op Zee* (on the sea) lies on the coast west of Alkmaar. The village of Camperdown (Du. *Komp*. Busching—Camp. Tuckey) lies on the coast farther north.—The downs or sand hills, along that part of the coast, are the highest and broadest in North Holland. (Busching.)—That called Camperdown [Du. *Kampcr-duin*, Camp-down.] south of the village of Camp, is one of the most remarkable for its elevation. (Tuckey.)—P.

^y English fleet, 16 sail of the line, besides frigates. (Miller.)—Dutch fleet, 15 sail of the line. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^z The Dutch lost nine ships of the line and two frigates. (Miller. Ed. Enc.)—P.

^{aa} The sentences enclosed in brackets are added by the translator.—P.

The island of Texel produces a considerable quantity of tobacco; its meadows are covered with cattle and sheep, principally the latter, whose milk is employed in making excellent cheese of a greenish colour,^a for which it is indebted, it is said, to the dung of the animals. The population amounts to 4,400: on its southern coast it has a commodious roadstead, where ships assemble to wait for a north-east wind, which is necessary to take them through the dangerous current of *Mars-Diep*, and carry them to Amsterdam.^b

The northern extremity of North Holland, which stretches to a point opposite the island of Texel, is a dry and sandy country, which bears the marks of a recent recovery from the sea, and which the Hollanders call their Siberia. The waves, at the entrance into the Zuyderzee, wash the neat town of Helder, where the British forces under the late Duke of York disembarked in 1799, and where, after a fruitless attempt to raise the Dutch, they were compelled to re-embark, after a campaign of a few weeks duration;^c near to it is *Williams Ord*,^d a maritime establishment, founded by Napoleon, and now under the protection of the reigning sovereign, whose name it bears. He even possesses there a small palace, whose park, planted with stunted trees, resembles an oasis in the midst of an arid steppe. On the coast of the Zuyderzee, *Medenblik*,^e a small city^f of 2000 souls, with a harbour, is during severe tempests threatened with complete submersion; it is looked upon as the oldest city in North Holland, and as having been the residence of the ancient kings of Friesland.^g *Horn*,^h at the bottom of a bay, was the birth-place of William Schouten,ⁱ who discovered, in 1616, the American cape, to which he gave the name of his native city. It is a well built town, and possesses a good harbour; its environs are embellished with gar-

^a Called Texel cheese (*Texelsche Kaas*).—P.

^b This roadstead (called the Merchantmen's Road (Du. *Koopvaarders-Reede*), and in the south part of it, the Muscovy Road) lies on the eastern or south-eastern side of the island, near the village of Schil, and is protected by a fort (*schanz*), south of the village. It is frequented by outward bound vessels from the Zuyderzee, who there wait for an east or north-east wind, necessary to take them out to sea through the channel of *Marsdiep*, between the south point of Texel, and the Helder or north point of North Holland. The main channel from this road towards Amsterdam, called the *Texel-Stroom*, runs first north-east and then south-east and south, between the great sand banks at the entrance of the Zuyderzee; consequently a north-east wind would prevent the approach of vessels to Amsterdam. The original has here confounded the inward with the outward passage.—P.

^c "The waves wash the neat town of the Helder."—It is properly called the Helder (Du. *De Helder*.) It is situated on the south side of Marsdiep, and has strong fortifications which protect the road off the mouth of this channel called the *Landsdiep*. (Tuckey. Busching.)—The first column of the Anglo-Russian expedition, as it is called, landed under Sir Ralph Abercrombie to the south-west of the Helder point, Aug. 27. Oct. 17, an armistice was concluded, by which it was stipulated that the Anglo-Russian army should evacuate the territories of the Batavian Republic, Nov. 30.—P.

^d "*Willems-Ord*."—Du. *Willems-oord* (William's Place).—P.

^e Du. *Medenblik*.—Fr. *Medemblik*, *Medemblick*.—Called by seamen, *Memelik* (Busching.)—The name is said to be derived from the Frisic *medem*, meadows, and *leck*, lake. (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^f It was formerly one of the towns or cities, of which there were seven in North Holland, that had a voice in the Provincial States. These towns were called by the Dutch, *Stemmende* or *Stem hebbende Steden* (voting or voice having towns or cities).—P.

^g That part of North Holland, in which Medenblik is situated, including all its northern extremity, is still called West Friesland. The old Frisian kings are said to have held their residence in the castle (*slot*) of Medenblik, situated at the east end of the town. (Busching.)—P.

^h Du. *Hoorn*—Horne (Kilian).—P.

ⁱ Du. *Willem Cornelisz Schouten* (Wm. Cornelison).—He discovered Cape Horn [Du. *Kaap Hoorn*.—Cape Horne (Burney)] Jan. 29, 1616.—P.

dens and country houses. In 1557 the waters of the Zuyderzee burst their dikes, and threatened to swallow it up. [*Enckhuysen*^k is another sea-port in the Zuyderzee, surrounded towards the land by gardens;^l it was the birth-place of the excellent Witsius, professor of theology at Utrecht and afterwards at Leyden.^m *Alkmaar*ⁿ lies away from the sea,^o and is so environed by gardens, orchards, canals, avenues, and meadows, that it may be pronounced one of the most highly-cultivated spots to be found anywhere. Thus far did the united British and Russian army, under the Duke of York, advance in the ill-advised invasion of Holland in 1799, already referred to.^p]^q At the point where the *Zaan* enters the long gulf of Y,^r *Zaandam* or *Saardam*,^s a considerable town, divided into two parts,^t is celebrated for the residence of Peter the Great, of Russia, in the quality of a simple carpenter. The wooden hut which he inhabited is visited by travellers as a curiosity. What appears, to travellers at least, a great curiosity, is the vast number of windmills (said to be from two to three thousand) about the place, used for various purposes, but chiefly for the sawing of timber. *Zaandam* has considerable timber yards; and carries on a great trade in wood for building, and in paper.^u There is not in Europe a city of 10,000 inhabitants, whose population is equally opulent.

Before proceeding to Amsterdam, it would be unjustifiable, in a work like this, to pass without notice the town or village of Broek or Brock^x in North Holland, the admiration of all visitors, where Dutch cleanliness and nicety seem to be carried to the very acme of perfection, indeed probably without a parallel all the world over. No carriages of any description are allowed to pass through the streets, one only excepted, which is considered as polluted, and is but thinly inhabited. The streets,

^k Du. *Enckhuizen* (Busching)—*Enckhuysen*, *Enckhuisen* (Kilian).—P.

^l It stands on the easternmost point of N. Holland in the Zuyderzee, from which it is protected by a strong dike, and on the land side surrounded by an earthen wall, strengthened with bastions (*bolwerken*). (Busching.)—P.

^m Herman Witsius, professor of theology successively at Franeker, Utrecht and Leyden—chiefly known by his Comparison of the Hebrew and Egyptian Rituals, and his Economy of the Covenants.—P.

ⁿ Du. *Alkmaar*—*Alcmaer*, *Alekmaer* (Kilian).—Alkmaer (Pinker-ton).—Alcmar (Morse).—*Aa* and *ae* express the same sound, that of long *a*; the former is now chiefly used; the latter is the old orthography.—The town is said to have been originally called *Almeer* (Lat. *Almeria*), from *al*, all, and *meer*, lake, because it was surrounded with lakes and marshes. (Busching.)—P.

^o It is situated nearly in the centre of North Holland, rather nearer, however, to the western coast, behind the downs of Egmont.—P.

^p The Anglo-Russian army after repeated actions drove the enemy to their position between Beverwyk and Wyk-op-Zee, at the southern extremity of N. Holland, Oct. 6; but on the night of the 7th, it retreated to Alkmaar. (Miller's Geo. III.)—P.

^q This account of Enckhuysen and Alkmaar [] is added by the translator.—P.

^r "Gulf of the Y." (See note ⁱ p. 1093.)—It stands on the north shore of the Y, nearly opposite Amsterdam, and is a considerable town with extensive ship-building establishments belonging to Amsterdam. (Tuckey.)—P.

^s Du. *Zaandam*, properly *Zaanredam* or *Zaannerdam* (so named from the *dam* or sluice by which the *Zaan* communicates with the Y;) commonly called *Saardam*. (Busching.)—*Sardam* (Vosgien).—P.

^t Called East and West *Zaandam*, from their position on the opposite banks of the *Zaan*. The name of *Saardam* or *Sardam* was particularly applied to the former. These two parts were considered as two separate villages (*dorpen*), *Zaandam* not ranking among the cities represented in the States.—P.

^u "The hut which he inhabited is the only curiosity in the place; all travellers inscribe their names in it. *Zaandam* has extensive ship yards (*chantiers*) and carries on a great trade in timber and paper."

^x The village of Broek in Waterland, the capital (*hoofdorp*) of the bailiwick of Waterland—situated about 20 miles N. of Amsterdam.—P.

with the above exception, are clean beyond all comparison; not a dog or cat is to be seen in them at liberty; and there is a regulation by which no person is allowed to smoke within doors or without, without a guard over the ball of the pipe to prevent the ashes from falling out! Notice to this effect is posted up at the entrances into the village. The pavement of the street is inlay or mosaic work, formed of pebbles of every shape and colour, shells, pieces of glazed brick, &c. &c. The houses are painted, every part of them, within and without, with the most costly colours, and their whole appearance bespeaks the most minute attention to neatness; the windows are without a speck, every thing has an air of freshness, and a stranger looks in vain for a grain of dirt, or even a particle of dust. The houses are roofed with tiles so glossy, that in the sunshine they glitter like spar. Small gardens extend from one end of a street to the other, all ornamented in the way most suitable to the owner's taste, and not a blade of grass or withered leaf is allowed to rest on the ground. The town is built partly round the banks of a small circular lake,^a and from this lake are carried through most of the streets small streams in a channel lined with brick on both sides. The numerous bridges required over these small canals afford opportunity for exhibiting the taste of the inhabitants in fanciful devices, and in the intermixture of bright colours. The houses have each two entrances, the one of which, generally painted black, is never opened but in the case of death occurring in the family. The internal cleanliness of the houses corresponds in every part with the external, and the people are equally cleanly in their persons, dress, and habits. Let not strangers laugh at all this particularity. It may be in this instance carried to a fanciful excess, but how conducive would an assimilation to the spirit of the people of Broek be to the health and comfort of mankind?^b

From the northern bank of the gulf Y,^c the passage is only half a league to the entrance of the port of *Amsterdam*.^d A vast extent of meadow-ground, strewed with villages and scattered houses, surrounds the capital of

^a Near the village, on the south-west, lies the *Broeker Meer* (Broek Lake,) which was diked and drained in 1628. It contains 304 *morgen* [640 acres nearly.] (Busching.)—P.

^b The above paragraph is added by the translator.—P.

^c "Gulf of the Y." (See note ¹ p. 1093.)

^d Originally, *Amstelredam*; then *Amsteldam* and *Amsterdam*: the last has prevailed.—Properly, according to the present form of the Dutch language, *Amstelredam* (the *dam* of the Amstel;) so called from its having been built round the *dam* or sluice at the mouth of that river.—Lat. *Amstelodanum*. (Busching.)—P.

^e Tour in the Netherlands, &c. by C. Tennant, Esq. [Trans.]

^f "Converted into *boulevards*" (public walks or promenades).—*Boulevard* is a French corruption of bulwark [Germ. *bollwerk*, Du. *bolwerk*, a bastion,] and originally signified a fortification or rampart (see Boyer, *et id genus*), but its meaning is now entirely changed. It at present signifies [in the plural] a line of streets, or a single circular street, surrounding a city, and occupying the site of the demolished walls, such as the Boulevards at Paris and Nismes, or a public walk or promenade, generally planted with trees, along the top of the walls, as is the case in most of the old walled, but now unfortified towns in France. The meaning of the original is therefore the reverse of that given in the translation; the ramparts which were originally meant for defence, being now converted into pleasure walks for the inhabitants.—In earlier times, Amsterdam was a strong fortress; but in consequence of the changes which have taken place in the mode of conducting sieges, it can now be defended only by inundating the surrounding country. It is said, however, that in the last years of the reign of the ex-king Louis, a plan was formed for the regular fortification of Amsterdam. (Enc. Amer. 1830.)—Amsterdam is of a semicircular form, about 9½ miles in compass, surrounded with a ditch 80 feet wide, full of running water, and with a rampart faced with brick [stone, Busching] having 26 bastions, on each of which there has been placed a

Holland, and when we add to this the tranquil course of the Amstel, a little river which passes through the city, and whose banks are bordered, during the fine season, with flowery meadows and trees covered with a beautiful foliage, the whole presents a rich and brilliant picture to the eye of the delighted spectator. "I know no city," says a recent tourist, "the distant view of which is so striking as that of Amsterdam. The eye travels over one vast flat meadow of the richest herbage, and, at the extremity of this, the view is bounded by a thick crowd of towers, cupolas, and spires. On a nearer approach, so level is the wide expanse around, that the eye seems to embrace at once the whole of this magnificent city, and crowds of masts are seen mingling with the houses. It is a sight truly imposing, and worthy of a great commercial nation."^e The city, surrounded by ditches and ramparts converted into fortifications (*boulevards*),^f has no occasion to dread the approach of an enemy, as by means of sluices the whole surrounding country can be inundated. A multitude of canals, the greater part of them bordered by rows of trees, traverse the city, forming ninety islands, which communicate with each other by means of 280 bridges, of which that over the Amstel^g is the finest; it is 660 feet in length, 70 in breadth, and is composed of 35 arches.^h The brackish and muddy water of these canals, although frequently put in motion by the opening and shutting of the sluices, yet spreads through this vast city dangerous miasmata, which, joined to the humidity of the atmosphere and ground, render it an unhealthy place of abode. One great inconvenience is the want of good water; that of the Amstel is bad; they make use of the water of the small river Vecht,ⁱ several leagues from the city, but the best is that which is brought from Utrecht at a great expense. The streets, almost all of them in straight lines on the banks of the canals, are well paved, furnished with foot-paths,^k and carefully lighted during the night; the two finest called the *Heeren-Gragt* and the *Keizers-Gragt*, are magnificent, and are more than half a league in length.^l Nothing can equal their splendour; but it is not, as in

wind-mill. On the side towards the harbour, which is 1½ miles in length, and of a semicircular form, giving to the city the shape of a crescent, there is no line of walls and bastions, the only defences being a double row of piles, connected by large horizontal beams, on the north side of the harbour, separating it from the road in which the larger ships anchor. (Ed. Enc. Busching.)—P.

^g "Bridge of the Amstel (*Pont de l'Amstel*)"—Amstel Bridge (Enc. Amer.)—P.

^h This bridge, called the Pont Neuf [Du. *Nieuwe Brugge*, New Bridge,] is 600 feet long, and 70 broad, and consists of 30 arches. (Ed. Enc.)—There is another bridge over that part of the Amstel called the *Damrak*, adjoining the Corn Market (*Koorn-beurs*), called the Old Bridge (*Oude Brugge*). (Busching.)—P.

ⁱ An arm of the Old Rhine, parting from it at Utrecht, and running N. W. to the Zuyderzee at Muiden.—P.

^k "Trottoirs"—side-walks.—All the streets are paved with brick, and have no raised side-paths for foot passengers; but as wheel carriages are neither numerous in this city, nor allowed to be driven with speed, a person may walk here with as much security as on the flag-stone pavements of London. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^l Kiezer's [properly, *Keizers*] *gragt*, or emperor's street, Heeren *gragt*, or lords' street, and Prissen's [properly, *Prinsens*; *Princes* (Busching)] *gragt*, or princes' street, are upwards of 140 feet wide, and are lined with houses, whose princely splendour would do honour to any town in Europe. (Ed. Enc.)—*Gragt* [*Gracht*, Busching] properly signifies a ditch or canal, and as applied to a street, it indicates that it has a canal in the centre, or is built along the sides of a canal. The three spacious canals called *Keizers-gragt*, *Heeren-gragt*, and *Prinsens-gragt*, run parallel to each other and to the city walls, in a semicircular form, thus constituting three concentric curves within the fourth formed by the line of fortification, and extend through the whole

Italy, palaces that are the ornament of these streets; the houses, all built of brick and painted with different colours, are tastefully fitted up with the most splendid furniture,^a and the profusion of warehouses and shops, stored with all the productions of the two worlds, announce the wealth of a city which long possessed the commerce of the universe. The *Kalver-Straat*^b and the *Nievedek*^c especially resemble exhibition galleries in the open air, in which are displayed all the treasures of industry.

Fine public edifices still farther display the commercial riches of Amsterdam; in the square of Dam,^d the most magnificent building is the royal palace, formerly the Stadthouse.^e The only fault found with this building is in its proportions, which are not in harmony with each other; thus, its height, which is 116 feet, not comprehending a tower of 41 feet, is too much for its length which is 282, and for its depth which is 222 feet.^f It is built upon 13,659 piles. The interior attests the splendour of the capital, at the time when a building so sumptuous was erected for its magistrates: no decorations have been spared; marbles, statues and pictures abound even to profusion. The royal hall^g is one of the largest in Europe: it is 120 feet in length, 56 in breadth, and 98 in height;^h it is crossed by a meridian line traced by the celebrated Huygens;ⁱ the marbles with which the floor, the walls, and the ceiling, are covered, the pillars which support the latter,^k and the standards taken from the Spaniards, decorate it with a magnificence which nothing could replace. The royal apartments are still in the state in which Louis Bonaparte ornamented and furnished them. The Exchange,^l built

length of the city, bordered on each side by lines of houses, forming the streets above mentioned.—P.

^a “—tastefully garnished with the most brilliant stuffs”—i. e. as we should say in America, with the goods displayed at the doors and windows of dry-goods stores; in other words, these are the Broadways and Bond Streets of Amsterdam.—P.

^b *Kalverstraat*, along the *Rockin* (a part of the course of the Amstel, so called.) (Busching).—P.

^c Qu. *Nieue-dek* (New Bazaar or Arcade).—P.

^d “Square of the Dam (*placc du Dam*)”—properly, the square called the Dam (*Du. de Dam*), from its occupying the place where the old dam or sluice was erected at the mouth of the Amstel.—The Stadthouse stands isolated in an open square in the centre of the city. (Enc. Meth. Morse).—P.

^e *Du. Stadhuis*—town house (Fr. *hôtel de ville*).—This word is rendered State house, in Pinkerton; a translation by the sound, rather than the sense. It literally signifies city house.—P.

^f Length, 282 feet; breadth, 235 feet. (Busching).—P.

^g Burglers’ or marble hall (Ed. Enc.)—*Du. Burgerzaal*, or *Marmerzaal*.—Burgomasters’ Hall.—This hall was prepared for the reception of his throne by Louis Bonaparte.—P.

^h Length, 120 feet; breadth, 57; height, 80. (Ed. Enc.).—P.

ⁱ The celestial and terrestrial globes are delineated upon the floor in three large circles, 22 feet in diameter, and 69 in circumference, composed of brass and various coloured marbles; the two lateral circles representing the two hemispheres of the earth, and the central, the planisphere of the heavens. (Ed. Enc.).—P.

^k This hall is wholly composed of white marble; over the entrance is a colonnade of Corinthian pillars of red and white marble. (Ed. Enc.).—P.

^l *Du. Amsterdamsche Beurs* (Amsterdam Exchange).—P.

^m It rests upon five vaulted arches, under which the Amstel flows into the Damrack water. (Enc. Amer.)—The *Damrak* is only a continuation of the course of the Amstel. (Busching).—P.

ⁿ Viz. 11 for the Reformed religion,* 2 French, 1 English, 1 Scotch, 2 for the Confession of Augsburg,† 1 Armenian, 3 Anabaptist, 24 Roman Catholic, 1 Quaker, and 3 Jewish Synagogues. [The churches are numerous; among them, the Dutch Reformed have 10, the French 1, the English 1, the Roman Catholics 18, and even the Greeks and Armenians have a church. (Enc. Amer.)—In 1773, the Dutch Reformed (*Herrormde Gemeente*) had 11 churches (*kerken*) and 30 ministers; the Walloons (*Waalische Gemeente*)—formed by the protestant refugees from the Walloon districts in the Spanish Netherlands, and the

upon a large bridge which conceals the course of the Amstel,^m is an edifice in the Gothic style, 250 feet in length by 140 in breadth; its principal front is ornamented with a Mercury of a colossal size. The churches and other religious edifices in Amsterdam are forty-nine in number.ⁿ That of St. Nicholas, called also *Ouder-Kerk*^o or the Old Church, is a fine building; the roof is supported by forty-two stone pillars, and above it rises a tower 240 feet in height, in which there is a chime composed of thirty-six bells. That of St. Catharine,^p or the New Church, *Nieuwe-Kerk*, is one of the finest in the kingdom, and also contains the tomb of the celebrated admiral, De Ruyter. In the fine street called *Heeren-Gragt*, meets the society *Felix Meritis*, which, from its embracing the sciences, literature, and commerce, is one of the most important and most popular in this capital.^q [It was established within the last fifty years, and is divided into five classes. The first is directed to agriculture, commerce, and manufactures; the second to mathematics and natural philosophy; the third to painting, sculpture, and architecture; the fourth to music; and the fifth to general literature. Each class has its separate museum, library, and hall of assembly, and the rules of each department are as liberal as the objects are enlarged. The building where this society holds its sittings is neat and commodious, and may be regarded an ornament to the city.^r The finest gate of the city is that of Haarlem. There are in Amsterdam three theatres, and a considerable number of hospitals and almshouses, six of which are for orphans alone, and an equal number are houses of correction and hard labour.^s These establishments, much better at-

French refugees after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes,) 2 churches and 6 ministers; the English Episcopalians and Presbyterians, each one church, and the latter two ministers;‡ the Lutherans, 2 churches and 6 ministers; the Roman Catholics (*Roomsgesinden*.) ten places of worship (*kerkhuizen*) within, and 2 without the city;‡ and the Jews, two synagogues (the Portuguese and the German.) Besides these, there was a church for the Armenians, and places of worship for the Remonstrants [Arminians], Mennonites, Quakers, &c. (Busching).—P.]

* Calvinists—the established sect in Holland.—P.

† Lutherans.

‡ Before the French invasion, the English had three places of worship; one for the Presbyterians, whose clergymen were paid by the magistracy; another for the Church of England, the expense of which was defrayed by his Britannic majesty; and a third for the Brownists, whose ministers were maintained by their congregations. The Roman Catholics had 27 places of worship, and were supposed to amount to a third of the population. The Dutch Reformed (established church,) and the three English churches comprehended another third. (Ed. Enc.).—P.

^o This should read *Oude-Kerk* (old church)—dedicated to St. John the Baptist (*S. Johannes de Doper*) and St. Nicholas (*Sant-Niklaas*).—P.

^p This church, like the former (see note ^o.) had two patrons, viz. the Holy Virgin Mary (*Heilige Maagd Maria*) and St. Catharine (*Sante Katharina*).—P.

^q “—which, from its courses of instruction (*cours*) in the sciences, literature and commerce, is one of the most important and most frequented in this capital.”—The beautiful Trippen-house, where the Academy of arts and sciences assembles, is now a temple of the arts and sciences. The society *felix meritis* (established by the merchants;) the society *doctrina et amicitia* [of learning and friendship;] that *tot nut van ’t algemeen* [for promoting the public good,] devoted to the liberal arts and sciences; the excellent reading room; several musical societies, the *hortus medicus* [botanical garden,] belonging to the *Athenaeum Illustre*, and the famous Latin schools,* prove the taste of the citizens of Amsterdam for science and learning. (Enc. Amer.).—P.

* In 1773, there was in Amsterdam, a Latin School (*Latynsche School*.) and another School, called the *Gymnasium Illustre*, with seven professors, viz. 1 of theology, 1 of law, 3 of medicine, 1 of Oriental languages and antiquities, and 1 of Greek, history, &c. (Busching).—P.

^r “The building in which the society holds its sittings, may be considered one of the finest in Amsterdam.”—This is all in the original corresponding to the sentences enclosed in brackets.—P.

^s “—a considerable number of hospitals and almshouses (*hospices*;) six of these are for orphans alone, and there is an equal number of

tended to than in most countries of Europe, are an inevitable scourge in a city, the rendezvous of a crowd of strangers, who spend their gold there, and corrupt the lower classes. We must see the vast East India House, the buildings of the Admiralty,^a which, of themselves, resemble a city, the docks for ship-building, and the majestic extent of the harbour, in order to judge of what was formerly the activity of Amsterdam, by the stir which still prevails. There annually enter the harbour 3000 vessels, but its trade with the two worlds is not the only support of its population. It manufactures a great variety of stuffs, besides chemical products, tobacco, hard-ware and jewelry; from the juniper a great quantity of Geneva is distilled,^b and the art of the lapidary is carried to the highest degree of perfection. This great capital was founded in the twelfth century at the foot of a castle on the banks of the Amstel, from whence it derived its name.^c About the middle of the fourteenth century it received the title of a city; in 1482, it was surrounded with walls,^d but it was not till 1578, when it declared its adherence to the pacification of Ghent,^e that it acquired importance; a century later it had drawn within its walls the whole trade of which Antwerp had been so long in possession.^f At the commencement of the sixteenth century it contained only 2500 houses; at present the number exceeds 27,000. If we are to believe a well informed geographer,^g the expense of maintaining the bridges, the canals, and the dikes of this city, and those which are within its bills of mortality,^h amounts to thirty million francs per day. What treasures must not Holland be possessed of to retain the billows of the ocean within the artificial barriers opposed to them! We conclude our account of this great city, by noticing the canal formed some years

ago to the Texel,ⁱ by which the dangerous navigation of the Zuyderzee is avoided, and not only merchant ships, but ships of war, sail direct from the Texel to the port of Amsterdam.^k

A canal, four leagues in length, conducts from Amsterdam to *Haarlem*,^l an important city, surrounded by ditches and by ramparts flanked with towers, which recall to remembrance the horrors of the too famous siege which this city sustained in 1573^m against the Spaniards, commanded by the Duke of Alva.ⁿ After a series of bloody conflicts, in which the besiegers and besieged suffered almost equal loss, and a resistance of six months,^o the duke forced the place to capitulate, on the promise of an amnesty, but perjured himself, by putting to death, within three days from the surrender, in cold blood, and accompanied by the most frightful punishments, the magistrates of the city, the reformed ministers, 2000 citizens, and the remains of the garrison.^p The buildings of this city are handsome; the streets are not broad,^q but they are furnished with foot paths,^r bordered with balustrades, and are traversed by canals planted with trees; taken as a whole, they present an aspect so much the more agreeable, as the greater part of the houses are decorated with marble, with dazzling sheets of brass, and with paintings. The finest of its buildings is the town-house.^s The church of St. Bavo is celebrated for its magnificent organ, composed of 8000 pipes, the harmony of which surpasses the highest melody we can conceive. In the market-place^t a statue, erected to Laurence Koster,^u announces that the city boasts of having given birth to this man, who passes, especially at Haarlem, for the true inventor of printing, and from whom Faust and Guttenberg stole his types, his secret, and his title to the gratitude of posterity.^v

penitentiaries and work houses (*maisons de correction et de travail*.)—The most remarkable of the latter are the Rasphouse (*Rasphuis*.) the Spinhouse or workhouse (*Spinhuis*.) and the house of correction (Betwering house—*Verbeterhuis*.)—P.

^a Admiralty House (*Admiraliteits Huis*.)—P.

^b "It distils a great quantity of brandy and gin (*caw-de-vie*—*genièvre*.)"

^c At the beginning of the 14th century it was a fishing village, in the possession of the lords of Amstel. (Enc. Amer.)—It was originally a fishing village, built around the dam at the mouth of the Amstel, and at the place of a ferry over the Y to North Holland. It was under the jurisdiction of the lords (*heeren*) of Amstel, who built a castle near the village, and made it their place of residence. It afterwards came under the rule of the counts (*graven*) of Holland, who granted it extensive commercial privileges. (Busching.)—P.

^d It was surrounded with a wall and ditch before the year 1400. In consequence of the great increase of commerce under the rule of the Counts of Holland, extensive suburbs were erected without the old walls, which were inclosed by a new wall in 1482, since which the city has received four enlargements (*vergrootingen*.) also surrounded by walls, viz. in 1585 and 1593, in consequence of the decline of Antwerp,^{*} in 1612, and lastly, in 1658. (Busching.)—P.

^e Following its second capture by the Spaniards in 1585, when its commerce was in a great measure transferred to Amsterdam. Antwerp was first taken in 1576, when it was plundered and burnt.—P.

^f The Pacification of Ghent was a convention or treaty (formed 1576, after the first capture of Antwerp) between the Catholics and Protestants throughout the Low Countries, in which all the provinces united themselves in the same confederacy with Holland and Zealand, and agreed in the expulsion of foreign troops, and in their demands for recovering the privileges they held under the house of Burgundy. Amsterdam was one of the last cities in the Low Countries that embraced the reformed religion, and it was only when it capitulated, after a siege of 10 months by the Hollanders, that it acceded to the Pacification. One of the terms of its capitulation was that the Roman Catholics should be allowed the free exercise of their religion.—P.

^g See note ^d.*

^h M. Reichart,* counsellor of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, author of the work entitled: "Guide des voyageurs en Europe."

* Reichart.—P.

ⁱ "Within its jurisdiction (*banlieue*.)"—*Banlieue*, a certain extent of territory surrounding a city, and dependent upon it—its jurisdiction, precincts or liberties. (Dict. de l' Acad.)—The cities in the United Provinces possessed a territory, without their walls, of greater or less extent, subject to their municipal government, and called in Dutch, *Stads Rechtsgebied* (city's jurisdiction.) They also possessed manorial rights over other districts, called their lordships (*Ambagts-Heerlykheden*.) (Busching.)—P.

^j The Helder canal—extending from the port of Amsterdam to the extreme point of North Holland near the Helder, and passing through the centre of North Holland by the towns of Purmerende and Alkmaar. Its length is 50½ miles, though the direct distance is only 41 miles; its breadth at the surface is 124½ feet, and at the bottom, 36 feet; its depth, 20½ feet. It has only two tide locks, one at each extremity, and two intermediate sluices or flood-gates. It has been formed by the present government.—P.

^k This sentence is added by the translator.—P.

^l "Haarlem."—Du. *Haarlem*—*Harlem* (Kilian.)—Haerlem (Ed. Enc. Guthrie.) See note ⁿ p. 1099.

^m The siege began in the winter towards the close of 1572, and continued till the beginning of July, 1573, when the city was compelled by famine to surrender. (Busching.)—P.

ⁿ Frederick of Toledo, son of the Duke of Alva, commanded the Spaniards at the siege of Haarlem. (Busching, &c.)—P.

^o Eight months. (Ed. Enc. Moreri.)—P.

^p Two thousand of the soldiers and inhabitants were massacred in cold blood. (Ed. Enc.)—More than two thousand of the garrison were put to death, besides several ministers and a great number of the citizens. (Busching.)—P.

^q The streets are broad and regular. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^r "Side walks (*trottoirs*.)" ^s Stadthouse (*Stadhuis*.)

^t Du. *Markt*—a large square in the centre of the city, surrounded, among other buildings, by the Stadthouse and the Great Church (*Groote Kerk*—that of St. Bavo.) The statue of Koster is on the front of the house which he is said to have inhabited, which also stands on one side of the market place, nearly opposite the Great Church. (Busching.)—P.

^u Koster, in the original, and generally in French and English authors—Du. *Laurens Koster*.

^v The types are said to have been stolen by one of the servants of

This city was also the birth-place of the learned hellenist Cornelius Schrevelius, and of Wouvermans, Van der Helst, and several other celebrated painters. Its society of sciences,^a which ranks several distinguished men amongst its members, and that called the *Teylerian*,^b which every year proposes prizes for the solution of different scientific questions, place Haarlem in the rank of the learned cities in Holland. It is also famed for its bleacheries,^c its manufactures of silk and woollen stuffs, and of carpeting and velvets, its soap-works and type-founderies, and above all for its gardens, in which the culture of tulips has almost degenerated into a mania. All the surrounding grounds^d are consecrated to this species of industry, thus adding to the beauty of its environs, in which we may distinguish a magnificent promenade called *the Wood*,^e pleasure-houses^f in the finest style, and the ruins of the old fortress of Brederode, whose red towers rise majestically in the air.

The road from Haarlem to *Leyden*,^g traced between a canal and the calm sea of Haarlem, is as beautiful, and as well kept, as the walks of an English garden; it is not annoyed by carts, every thing in Holland being transported by canals. During the whole distance to that city, an extent of six leagues, it is one continued agreeable promenade in the midst of meadows, country houses, and elegant villages. Leyden, the birth-place of Rembrandt,^h of Gerard Dow,ⁱ of Muschenbroeck,^k of Isaac Vossius, and of John of Leyden,^l the leader of the German fanatical and misled anabaptists of the sixteenth century,^m was formerly celebrated for its industry, and for its trade in books, which the printing-presses of the Elzevirs rendered so active; it still contains a population of more than 28,000 souls.ⁿ Its university, founded in 1575, possessing fine collections, a library of 60,000 volumes and 14,000 manuscripts, and enjoying a high

reputation in the learned world, is at all times much resorted to. Of great extent, encompassed with ditches and with walls, and communicating with the surrounding country by eight gates, Leyden is composed of numerous islands, intersected by canals bordered with trees, and covered with wide and straight streets, which communicate with each other by a vast number of bridges, principally of stone. The principal street, called the *Rupenburg*,^o is a very fine one, and considered by the people of Leyden as unrivalled in Europe: whatever may be in this, the whole appearance of the town is pleasing; and the number of handsome houses and venerable-looking buildings give it an air of importance.^p In its town-house may be seen one of the finest pictures of Lucas, one of its painters, representing the last judgment.^q The Gothic church of St. Peter^r contains the tomb of the celebrated and excellent Boerhaave.^s The old castle,^t a witness of the famous siege which this city sustained in 1574 against the Spaniards,^u during which more than 6000 persons perished by famine, presents a labyrinth visited by strangers. Several parts of this fortress appear to be of Roman construction, which would seem to confirm the opinion, hitherto uncertain, that Leyden occupies the site of *Lugdunum Batavorum*, mentioned in the Theodosian Table,^x in the Itinerary of Antonine, and by Ptolemy, as the most important city of the *Batavi*. This city, and the Hague, which is but three leagues from it, are in South Holland.^y [It is deserving notice in a geographical work, that it is at Leyden where the Rhine, till very lately, in the words of an old traveller, "faintly finished its course, by losing the small remainder of its waters in two or three canals, without having the honour to enter into the sea." The fate of this mighty river is singular and hard. After rolling its majestic stream from the Lake of Con-

Koster, while the family were at mass. It is generally agreed that his name was John; Busching says John Faust, but this must be a mistake; Meerman seems to have ascertained that it was John Geinsfleisch, who became eminent as a printer at Mentz, whither he absconded. In 1443, three years after he left Haarlem, he associated himself with John Faust, a wealthy citizen of Mentz, and in 1444, with Guttemberg of Strasburg, in connection with whom he first devised the use of cut metal types, cut wooden types having previously been employed. In 1445, the partnership was dissolved, and Faust associated himself with Peter Schæffer, who completed the invention by first casting types in matrices. (Ed. Enc. art. Printing. Thomas' Hist. of Printing.)—P.

^a Academy of Sciences. (Ed. Enc.)—Dutch Society of Sciences (*Hollandsche Maatschappij der Wetenschappen*). (Busching.)—P.

^b Founded by Peter Teyler Vander Hulst, a rich merchant of Haarlem. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c Its bleacheries are famous for the delicate whiteness which they give to linens, which has been attributed to a peculiar quality in the waters of the lake of Haarlem. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d "All the *banlieue*."—See note ^h p. 1102.—P.

^e Du. *Haarlemmer-Hout* (Haarlem Wood).—It consists of two distinct portions (*boschen*, woods), one called the New and the other the Old Wood (*Oude- en Nieuwe-Hout*), and, including the intervening meadows and pleasure gardens, contains about 60 *morgen* (125 acres nearly.) It is full of fine oaks and beeches, and is intersected with long avenues (*dreeven*, drives,) crossing each other in different directions. (Busching.)—P.

^f Du. *lusthuizen*.—P.

^g Du. *Leiden*; generally pronounced *Leycn* (Busching)—*Leyden* (Kilian)—also *Leijden*, the *ij* having the sound of *i* or *y*.—Fr. *Leyde*.—P.

^h Rembrandt was born at a mill on the banks of the Old Rhine near Leyden—not in the city.—P.

ⁱ Generally written Gerard Douw—the proper Dutch orthography.—P.

^k According to some, born at Utrecht.—P.

^l John Boccold—Du. *Jan Beukelze* or *Bockholt* (Busching.)—P.

^m "Leader of the Anabaptists."

ⁿ 29,000. (Stat. Tab.)—P.

^o The *Rapenburg*, adjoining the university.—The finest street in

Leyden is the Broad Street (*Brel- or Breede-straat*), which runs through the whole city. (Busching.)—P.

^p This sentence is added by the translator.—P.

^q A very capital painting of the last judgment, by Lucas of Leyden, is in the burgomasters' chamber. (Ed. Enc.)—Lucas Dammeszen, called Lucas of Leyden, because a native of that city. (Beauvais.)—P.

^r Du. *S. Pieters Kerk*—built in the form of a cross (*en kruisgebouw*). (Busching.)—P.

^s "The tomb of Boerhaave"—with the simple inscription: *Salutifero Boerhavi genio sacrum* (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^t Du. *Leidsche Burgt* (Leyden castle or citadel)—situated in the middle of the city; its only remains are the circular mound on which it stood, and a wall surrounding it. (Busching.)—P.

^u Leyden was first besieged, or rather blockaded, by the Spanish general Valdez, Oct. 1573, three months after the surrender of Haarlem; but this siege was raised March 21, 1574. The siege was renewed, May 26, 1574, and so closely pressed for five months, that the city was reduced to the last extremities by famine and pestilence. It was however relieved by cutting the dikes on the Meuse, and overflowing the country between it and Delft, by means of which a supply of provisions and ammunition was introduced, and the Spaniards compelled to retire in October. (Busching.)—P.

^x The table of Peutinger (*Tubula Peutingeriana*), so called from its having been found in the library of Conrad Peutinger (died 1547,) and published 1598. It was discovered in a monastic library at Spire by Conrad Celtes, towards the close of the 15th century, and presented to Peutinger. It is a rude chart of the military roads in the greater part of the western Roman empire, drawn in the time of Theodosius the Great. (Rees' Cyc. Beauvais.)—P.

^y South Holland included, under the old government, all that part of the province of Holland, situated south of the Y. It contained at that time, 11 cities having a voice in the Provincial States (*Stemmende Steden*), viz. Dordrecht, Haarlem, Delft, Leyden, Amsterdam, Gouda, Rotterdam, Gorcum (Gorinchem), Schiedam, Schoonhoven and Briel. The Hague, although the seat of government of the whole confederacy, had not the rank of a city, nor any representation in the States of the province.—For the present division of the old province of Holland, into the two provinces of North and South Holland, see Stat. Tab. p. 1109.—P.

stance to the frontiers of Holland, it is there robbed of its name by the Waal, which carries off the largest half of its waters. Before its arrival at Arnheim, the canal of the Yssel, running to the eastward, deprives it of another part of them; and again, below Arnheim, the Leck has usurped the name of the principal branch of the stream, leaving the smaller and now much-diminished branch, under the splendid name of the Rhine, to pass on to Utrecht, where the Vecht carries off another part of its waters. What remains of this mighty river was formerly lost in a marsh,^a without reaching the sea, but is by a canal, cut between the years 1804 and 1810, carried to the sea, which it joins at the village of *Katwyk*.^b^c

The number of considerable cities which cover the territory of the small province of South Holland^d is extraordinary; we can only notice the most interesting. The *Hague* (Dutch, *Haag*, or *S' Groenhegaa*;^e Fr. *La Haye*), as the residence of the court, and the place where the States-General assemble, merits the first notice. Before the revolution of Brussels in 1830, the Hague divided this honour with that city. It is not of very great importance from its size and population, but it must, notwithstanding, be reckoned among the finest cities in Europe. It is one of the small number of those in the Low Countries, the soil of which is dry, and the air pure and healthy. Two thirds of its streets are intersected by canals bordered with trees; fine plantations cover also its squares, and render the regularity of its buildings more agreeable to the eye. An air of ease is observable in every part of the Hague, which may be considered a parliamentary rather than a commercial city. The mercantile quarter^f is composed of streets, narrow indeed, but yet of great neatness; in the quarter where the burgesses reside,^g the houses have a fine appearance, and the streets are broad, straight, and paved with bricks; the finest is the *Prinzen-Gracht*.^h The old Palace-Royal,^h an immense building, but an ungraceful combination of different orders of architecture, contains a fine library, a collection of medals, valuable pictures, and the archives of the kingdom. The new palace, built

by William III., and those of the Count of Bentheim and Prince Maurice of Nassau, are each of them splendid of their kind. The palace last mentioned contains the Museum, which is visited by all the curious: more than 400 pictures recall the ancient splendour of the Flemish and Dutch schools. A museum, filling several apartments, contains a magnificent collection of Chinese and Japanese curiosities, besides objects of great value in the eyes of such Hollanders, as are acquainted with the history of their country. There are here preserved the clothes worn by William of Nassau, the founder of the Dutch republic, when struck by a ball from the fanatic Balthazar Gerard;ⁱ the dress of the stadtholder William III.; the hair of William IV.; the hat of De Ruyter; the silver goblets of the Marquis Spinola; and also the silver trowel employed by Alexander of Russia in laying a stone in the hut of his great progenitor at Saardam. The Stadthouse,^k the corn-market, and the new church,^l are likewise fine edifices; the last is especially remarkable for its frame work. We should enter upon by far too extensive a field, were we to enumerate or describe the hospitals, the almshouses, the schools, the collections, and the scientific societies, of the Hague. All the cities of the Low Countries possess similar establishments. Let us only notice, before proceeding, that this royal city was the birth-place of the astronomer Huygens, and of the poet Johannes Secundus, who imitated with so much grace and ease the language of Ovid. The environs of the Hague, so agreeable and verdant, are besides adorned with charming houses and magnificent promenades. The beauty of the promenade called *the Wood*,^m surpasses every thing imaginable; majestic trees intertwine their thick foliage in the air, and at the extremities of the walks, pavilions, concealing, under elegant fronts, garden or coffee-houses, serve as places of entertainment for visitors, for the Dutch prefer shutting themselves up in these pavilions, to which they are attracted on Sundays by excellent bands of music, to enjoying the pure and open air under the silent arches of this magnificent wood. Near this promenade is situated the beautiful royal mansion of *Oranzenaal*.ⁿ A fine avenue con-

^a The Old Rhine sends off a branch near Leyden, which conveys the greater part of its waters to the lake of Haarlem. The remainder is lost in the sands or downs near Katwyk. (Busching.)—The old mouth of the Rhine, at Katwyk, was obstructed by an incursion of the Ocean, A. D. 860 (Enc. Meth.)—P.

^b Du. *Katwyk*—*Catwijk*, *Catwijck* (Kilian.)—Catwick (Tuckey.)—So called from the ancient *Catti*, who settled there, according to Tacitus. (Busching.)—P.

^c The sentences enclosed in brackets are added by the translator.—P.

^d See note ^γ p. 1103, and Stat. Tab. p. 1109.

^e This is doubtless an error of the press, in the original, from which it is copied strictly by the translator; at least the French writer must have intended it for *S' Graevenhaag*. But even that must be an error, or at least not the usual Dutch orthography.—Du. *'s Graeven Hage*, *den Haag* or *Hage* (Busching)—*'s Graevenhage*, or *den Haag* (Hubner)—*'s Graevenhaage*, or *den Haag* (Wilcocke)—*Graven-Haghe*, or *Haghe* (Kilian.)—Germ. *Haag*.—Lat. *Haga Comitum*.—The orthography of Wilcocke is the most recent.—*'s Graevenhaage* signifies the Count's wood (*des Graeven haag*.) from *Graaf*, count, and *haag*, wood or thicket; *den Haag*, the Wood—so called from a wood or forest there, frequented by the Counts of Holland for hunting.—P.

^f "Quartiers marchands (business or trading quarters)—ceux de bourgeoisie (those occupied by men of fortune, wealthy citizens)."—P.

^g *Prijsen-Gracht*, or *Prinsensgracht* (Prince Street).—*Gracht* properly signifies a street with a canal in the middle; or originally a canal simply. (See note ¹ p. 1100.)—The *Voorhout*, which is accounted the principal street, is about half a mile in length, with a mall in the middle, and contains a number of buildings, in the purest style of ar-

chitecture. (Ed. Enc.)—The *Voorhout* is the most elegant street at the Hague. (Busching.)—P.

^h The Palace of the Stadtholder (consisting chiefly of old buildings, erected at different periods, without any regularity of design.) (Ed. Enc.)—The court or palace (containing several chambers allotted to the different branches of government, besides the apartments of the Stadtholder.) (Pinkerton.)—Du. *Hof* (the Court;) divided into the Outer and Inner Court (*Buiten- and Binnen- Hof*), which communicate with each other by means of the Stadtholder's gate (*Stadhouderlyke poort*.) (Busching.)—The Stadtholder's gate had by long custom been opened only to the Stadtholder's family; but in 1784, the States of Holland decided that it should be opened every day, during their sittings, to the members. A conspiracy was formed by the Orange party to prevent the execution of this act; only two of the members, Messrs. Gyselaer and Gevaerts of Dort, ventured through the gate, and although arrested in their progress, safely cleared the passage, and triumphantly vindicated the majesty of the people. (Mirabeau, aux Bataaves sur le Stathouderat, p. 190—5.)—P.

ⁱ Balthazar Gerard assassinated William of Nassau, the first stadtholder, by shooting him with a pistol as he was going out of his palace at Delft, A. D. 1584.—P.

^k Du. *Raadhuis*, or *Stadhuis* (Council House, or Town House.)—P.

^l Du. *Nieuwe Kerk*—built in 1649; it is of an oval figure, and covered with a cupola. (Busching.)—P.

^m Du. *Haagsche Bosch* (Hague Wood).—On the north side, about a mile from the town, is a noble wood, about two English miles in length, and nearly one in breadth, and full of the finest walks and most pleasing views. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁿ Du. *Oranjezaal* (Orange Hall)—also called, the House in the wood (*het Huis in het Bosch*—Fr. *Maison du Bois*.)—The palace called *Maison*

ducts to the village of *Scheveling* or *Scheveningen*,^a where are to be found different places of amusement. [Its length is said to be nearly two miles in a straight line, having a spacious path in the centre for carriages, with a separate path for equestrians and pedestrians on each side of the centre path. The spire of Scheveling church is seen at the extremity of the avenue, and the effect of the whole is very striking.]^b To the south-east of the Hague^c lies the castle of *Ryswick*,^d where was signed in 1697 the treaty of peace between the Germanic Empire, Spain, England, Holland, and France. An obelisk has been erected to record the memory of this event.

The country between the Hague and the Delft is "a piece of animated tranquillity. All that art has done is to give appropriate decoration to rural objects, and every cottage bears the marks of comfort and prosperity. Canals, raised above the level of the sea, and of the neighbouring plains; windmills, curiously and beautifully thatched; large farms, overspread with flourishing cattle; level and excellent roads;"^e villas, walks, and gardens, are some of the features of the agreeable landscape spread before the traveller.^f *Delft*,^g two leagues from the Hague, occupies a fine position on the banks of the *Schie*. It is a place of defence^h of the third class, a city without stir, and almost without trade, although possessing manufactories of cloth, carpeting and soap, besides breweries of reputation.ⁱ Formerly it was celebrated for its potteries, and hence the name of *Delft-ware*.^k It is 800 years old, but the houses are well built, and the public buildings are even magnificent. "The deserted streets declare that the best days of Delft are passed away. Every thing about the streets and houses shows remarkable attention to neatness; and Delft, although without

the interest attending the bustle of trade, remains a true specimen of an old Dutch town."^l We see in the old church the tombs of Admiral Heyn and the celebrated Tromp;^m the new church contains those of Grotiusⁿ and the physician^o Leuwenhoeck,^p both natives of Delft, which they have thus rendered illustrious; but the most remarkable monument in this church, is the mausoleum of William I.;^q at the *Prinsen-Hof*,^r a few steps from it, this prince was assassinated by Balthasar Gerard.^s From Delft, in less than two hours, we arrive at *Rotterdam*,^t the most commercial and the most populous city in Holland next to the capital. [Rotterdam, besides being one of the most beautiful cities in Holland, is most advantageously situated for trade, both foreign and internal. It stands on one of the branches of the Meuse,^u about twenty miles from the German Ocean, and by this river vessels of a large size come up to it, and, by means of canals, are carried to different parts of the city, and to the very doors of the houses. "Nothing," says an old traveller quaintly, "can be compared with the pleasant mixture of chimneys, tops of trees, and streamers of vessels; one is astonished to behold so beautiful a confusion, and can hardly tell whether it be a fleet, a city, or a forest." The city is well paved and clean, the houses well built, and every thing appears to indicate an active and prosperous commerce. There are no remarkable public buildings; but the quay, called the *Boompjes*,^x presents a long line of handsome houses, the mansions of wealthy merchants.]^y It possesses schools and learned societies; it was the native place of Erasmus, whose house may still be seen, and to whom they have erected a statue in bronze;^z and yet it is perhaps the only large city in the Netherlands which does not possess a public library.^z With this fact before us, shall

de Bois, a house of retirement for the Stadtholder, has nothing remarkable in its appearance or situation, but resembles the residence of a plain country gentleman. (Ed. Enc.)—The epithet in the original, (*jolie*), signifies rather, neat, pretty, than beautiful.—P.

^a "The village of Schweningen."—Du. *Scheveningen*, or *Schevelingen* (Busching.)—Scheveling (Ed. Enc.)—Schevening (Rees' Cyc.)—Situating among the downs on the coast, about two miles N. W. of the Hague.—P.

^b The sentences enclosed in brackets are added by the translator.—P.
^c About two miles distant.—P.

^d "Riswick."—Du. *Ryswyk*—*Rijswijk* (Kilian).—Ryswick is the usual orthography in French and English authors.—Ryswick is a village, said to be one of the neatest in Holland, with a castle, or rather palace, built in the modern style in 1634, by Prince Frederick Henry of Orange. This palace is called by the Dutch, *het Huis te Ryswyk* (the House at Ryswick—Ryswick House), and also *Neuburg* (Germ.) or *Nieuburg* (Du.), from the corner stone having been laid by the Duke of Pfaltz-Neuburg. (Busching.)—P.

^e For. Quart. Review, No. IX. vol. v. p. 227.
^f The preceding part of the paragraph is added by the translator.—P.
^g Du. *Delft* or *Delf*—so called, it is said, from a canal, called the *Oude-Delft* (old digging,) which runs through the city. (Busching.)—P.

^h "Place de guerre"—fortress or fortified town.—P.
ⁱ Delft has been long celebrated for its breweries, formerly more considerable than at present. It was noted for a kind of strong beer, sent in great quantities to the Cape of Good Hope and the East Indies. (Busching, 1773.)—P.

^k This sentence is added by the translator.—Delft has been long celebrated for its earthen ware [called Delft ware, Fr. *fatence*,] manufactured in imitation of the porcelain of China and Japan. It is made of baked earth covered with an enamel. (Ed. Enc.)—The only manufacture at present flourishing, is that of pottery, which far surpasses all others in strength and beauty of ornament. (Busching, 1773.)—P.

^l The above quotation is inserted by the translator.—P.
^m Peter Peterson [*Pieterze*] Hein, and Martin Herbertson Tromp. (Busching.) See note ^p p. 1098.—P.

ⁿ Du. *Hugo de Groot*.—His tomb is in the choir of the New Church. (Busching.)—P.

^o "Physicien"—natural philosopher. Leuwenhoek, a Dutch philosopher celebrated for his microscopical observations and discoveries. He

does not appear to have had a learned education, but was first distinguished for his skill in grinding optical glasses, and afterwards for his microscopical observations with instruments of his own contrivance and manufacture. (Ed. Enc. Beauvais.)—P.

^p Du. *Anton. van Leeuwenhoek*.—His monument is at the entrance of the Old Church, not in the New. (Busching.)—P.

^q The tomb of William I. was erected in 1609, at the expense of the general government, in the choir of the New Church, above the vault of that prince, since the burial place of the Orange family (Busching.)—P.

^r *Prince Hof* (Busching.)—The old palace of the stadtholder—originally, the nunnery of St. Agatha. Delft having become the seat of government of Holland, after the revolt against Spain, William I. converted the building into his place of residence, whence the name signifying Prince's Court. It stands on the *Oude-Delft*, directly opposite the Old Church.—The New Church stands in the great market-place (*Groote Markt*), opposite the Stadthouse. (Busching.)—P.

^s See note ⁱ p. 1104.
^t Du. *Rotterdam*—*Roterdam* (Kilian, Vosgien).—The name signifies the dam or sluice of the *Rotte*, a small river that rises in the marshes to the north of the town, and flowing through it, enters the Meuse. (Busching.)—P.

^u On the north side of the Meuse (proper).—The Meuse divides into two arms at Dort, of which the one on the north, passing by Rotterdam, is called the Meuse (*Maas*) simply; that on the south, the Old Meuse (*Oude Maas*). (Busching.)—P.

^x This quay or promenade (Du. *veeg*) extends along the Meuse between the mouths of the two havens or inlets from the river, by which ships pass into the heart of the city, called the *Oude* (Old) and *Leuve Haven*. It is very broad, and closely planted with trees, and is called from the latter circumstance, the *Boomtjes* (*de Boomtjens*) or Under the *Boomtjes* (*Onder de Boomtjens*).—Du. *boom*, a tree—dimin. *boomtje* (*boomtje*). Wilcocke.)—P.

^y In the great square or market place (*Groote Markt*).—P.

^z Among the literary collections and institutions of Rotterdam, are a cabinet of natural history and antiquities, a public library, and an academy of sciences, instituted in 1771. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

* This society, called the Batavian Society (*Bataafsche Genootschap*), was established in 1769. It is principally devoted to experimental philosophy Rotterdam has also a *Gymnasium Illustre* (high school) with six professors (Busching, 1773.)—P.

we be guilty of injustice towards the inhabitants of Rotterdam, in pronouncing them the Bœotians of the Low Countries.^a Absorbed by their commercial occupations, the moments must be very few which they can devote to the study of letters and the sciences!^b The name of this city signifies the *dike of Rotter*,^c because it is situated at the place where the small river of that name throws itself into the Lower Meuse.^d Between an arm of this river and the lake of Biesbosch,^e stands *Dordrecht* or *Dort*,^f a city which disputes the palm of antiquity with Delft. It is distant from Rotterdam about four leagues, and is fortified; but its situation in the midst of an island would prove a much better defence than the old ramparts that surround it. [The trade of Dort was once very considerable, and its situation is said to be more favourable for foreign trade than Rotterdam, the harbour admitting vessels of greater burden; but, whatever be the cause, the trade now is very limited, and confined very much to timber, which is floated down the Rhine in immense rafts.^g The buildings of Dort are chiefly old-fashioned.]^h Within the bounds of this city was held, in 1618 and 1619, the famous synod which condemned the doctrines of Arminius; and at the same time the States-General, influenced by Prince Maurice, sentenced and put to death the grand pension-

^a "We shall not, however, draw from this circumstance, as some have done, the too rigorous conclusion, that the inhabitants of Rotterdam are the Bœotians of the Low Countries."

^b "We speak advisedly," say the Foreign Quarterly Reviewers, "in saying that Rotterdam has among its inhabitants writers of a high order, and that a literary spirit is widely diffused among them."—*Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. IX. Vol. v. p. 227. *Trans.*

^c *Digue de Rotter*.—Properly, the dam of the Rotte. See note ^u p. 1105.—P.

^d "—into the channel (*cours d'eau*) called the Lower Meuse."—See note ^u p. 1105.—P.

^e Dort stands on an island, on the south side of the Meuse, which is there called the *Merwe* (Du. *Merwê*, or *Merwede*), a name which it takes after its junction with the Waal near Gorcum, and which it continues to bear till it divides into two branches, just below Dort, called the Meuse and the Old Meuse. (See note ^u p. 1105.) Previous to 1421, Dort was bounded on the south by a large district between the Merwe and the Meuse, the last of which then flowed in a straight line to the sea by Heusden and Gertruydenberg; which district was called the *Dortsche Waard* (Dort island.) In that year, however, a dreadful inundation broke through the Merwe dike, and overflowed 72 parishes, forming in place of them the lake called the Biesbosch (or *Bergseeld*.) The channel of the Meuse was also altered, its old one by Heusden being obstructed. The only remains of the *Dortsche Waard* was the small island on which Dort stands, called the Island (*ciland*) of Dort. (Busching.)—P.

^f Du. *Dordrecht*, or *Dort* (*Dordt*. Kilian.)—*Dortrecht*; by contraction, *Dort*. (Busching.)—*Durdrecht*, from the river *Durd* (Dort,) and *drecht*, *trecht*, or *tricht* (Lat. *trajectum*), a ferry. (Had. Junius.)—The river *Durd* has, however, disappeared, unless it be the same with the *Merwe*. (Busching.)—Lat. *Dordracum*.—P.

^g These floats [rafts] are sometimes so enormous, that 500 men are necessary to conduct them. The timber is cut in the saw-mills, which are numerous in the vicinity of Dort, or exported unwrought to Britain, Spain and Portugal. Dort is also the magazine for the Rhenish wines, and the coal, lime and iron of Liege and Namur. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^h The sentences enclosed in brackets are added by the translator.—P.

ⁱ "Within this city was held, in 1618 and 1619, the synod which condemned the doctrines of Arminius, and which, devoted to Prince Maurice, sentenced to death the grand pensionary Barneveldt."¹—The synod was held in a large hall in the building called the *Kloveniers Doele*. (Busching.)—It commenced its sittings in November, 1618. The Arminians refused to appear in the synod; and as the popular feeling was strong against them, Maurice ventured to imprison Barneveldt, Grotius, and others of their leaders, in the castle of Louvestein (*Locesteen*). The States-General were also compelled by him to appoint a commission, all the members of which belonged to the Orange party, to try Barneveldt, by whose sentence he was beheaded at the Hague, May 13, 1618. (Guthrie and Gray. ix. p. 352.)—Grotius was imprisoned in May 1619, and escaped in a large chest in which clothes and books had been transmitted to him, prepared for that purpose by

ary Barneveldt at the advanced age of 72, 50 of which he had spent with integrity and ability in the service of his country. The learned Grotius was imprisoned along with Barneveldt, and after a detention of several years, escaped through a stratagem of his wife. The two brothers, John and Cornelius De Witt, who were torn to pieces by an insurrection of the populace in 1672, were natives of Dort.¹

The province of Zealand,^k formed by the islands which lie at the mouth of the Scheld, has for its capital *Middleburg*,¹ in the island of Walcheren. This is an industrious commercial city, wealthy, and even attached to learning, or at least possessing an academy of sciences,^m besides being the birth-place of Leydeker,ⁿ author of a work on the Hebrew republic. A large canal, constructed in 1817, supplies the place of its former harbour.^o *Flushing*, or *Vlissingen*,^p in the same island, is defended by important fortifications, and possesses a large and secure harbour, docks^q which can contain 80 sail of the line,^r ship-yards and immense store-houses, erections for which it is indebted in a great measure to the French, who, after having expelled the English in 1809,^s kept possession of this place till 1814. It was the first city which, in 1572,^t erected the standard of liberty, and had also the glory of giving birth to the

his wife, in March 1621; consequently he was imprisoned less than two years. (Dumourier, *Mémoires de Hollande*, in Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k Du. *Zeeiland*—*Zoelandt*, *See-land* (Kilian.)—Lat. *Selandia*.—Eng. *Zealand*.—Fr. *Zélande* (M. B.) *Zélande* (Vosgien.)—Germ. *See-land*.—It literally signifies, Sea-land.—P.

¹ Du. *Middelburg*.—Fr. *Middelbourg*.—P.

^m In 1773, Middleburg possessed a *Gymnasium Illustre*, with professors in theology, law, medicine, literature and the sciences. (Busching.)—P.

ⁿ Melchior Leydecker [*Leydekker* (Busching),] author of many voluminous works; among others, of a curious work: "On the Republic of the Hebrews (*De Republicâ Hebræorum*)," in 2 vols. fol.—Middleburg is better entitled to notice as the birth-place of Cornelius Van Bynkershoek, a celebrated writer on international law.—P.

^o Middleburg communicates with Flushing by a canal fit for large vessels. (Tuckey, 1815.)—Middleburg has two harbours or basins, called the Outer and Inner Harbours (*Buiten- and Binnen-Haven*.) (Busching, 1773.)—P.

^p Du. *Vlissingen*—*Vlissinge* (Kilian)—*Vlissinghen* (Enc. Meth.)—Originally, *Vlissingen*, from a flask or cruise (Du. *vles*), said to have been bequeathed to the city by St. Willibrord. The arms of the city are a silver flask (*vles*) in a red field (gules, a flask argent.) (Busching.)—Fr. *Flessingue*.—Eng. *Flushing*.—P. ^q "Basins."

^r Flushing has a beautiful port within two moles, capable of holding 80 sail of the line, besides extensive docks and basins. (Tuckey.)—The port lies between two moles, that break the waves of the sea, which enters the town by means of two canals, forming two basins. (Ed. Enc.)—Inside of the town are two basins, one of such size and depth as to contain a fleet of men of war. (Morsc.)—Previous to the French revolution, Flushing was one of the principal naval stations of the Dutch republic. It contained two ports or harbours, viz. the Old Harbour (*Oude Haven*) on the west, constructed in 1315, and the New Harbour (*Nieuwe Haven*) on the east, constructed in 1614, at the common expense of the republic. The latter communicated by three sluices or locks (*schutsluizen*) with a dock or basin, farther within the city, called the Government Dock (*'s Lands Dok*), constructed for ships of war, and capable of holding 80 of the largest vessels. At the end of this dock was a fine promenade, called the *Boschaadje* (grove.) On the south side of the Government Dock, was the Dry Dock (*Drooge Dok*.) The entrance to this latter dock was by gates opening on the south side from a basin called the Broadwater (*Breedewater*.) (Busching.)—P.

^s The French had taken possession of Flushing with the rest of the United Provinces in 1794—5. During the Walcheren expedition, as it is called, Flushing was taken by the English, after a bombardment of two days, Aug. 15, 1809, but evacuated, with the whole island, Nov. 23, of the same year.—P.

^t It was the first city in the Netherlands, which voluntarily (*zynicillig*) declared against the Spaniards, and in favour of William I. of Orange, April 6, 1572. The centennial anniversary of that day is celebrated as a festival^u in Flushing. (Busching.)—P.

^u Called the Centennial Festival (*Hondertjaarig Eeue-Fest*)

renowned De Ruyter.^a The house where he was born is still shown to strangers.

In North Brabant, the farthest south of the Dutch provinces, and the most important from the rank which it occupies in the States-General, ten cities would merit being mentioned, if we did not wish to avoid the monotonous repetitions which would follow the description of a great number of places presenting the same appearance. The three principal places are fortified towns. On the right bank of the eastern Scheldt,^b and in the midst of swamps,^c stands *Bergen-op-zoom*,^d celebrated as a fortress, and regarded as a chef-d'œuvre of the celebrated Coehorn.^e It is famed for the anchovies which are caught in its neighbourhood, and for its earthen ware.^f The tower of its castle widens as it rises, seems ready to fall, and shakes with the least wind. *Bois-le-Duc*, in Dutch *Hertogenbosch*,^g is the capital of the province. Watered by the Dommel and the Aa, which unite lower down, and fall into the Meuse,^h it can, by inundating the environs,ⁱ augment the means of defence which its citadel and two forts^k already afford. Its streets are straight and well built; its canals branch into nine divisions;^l the town-house and cathedral^m are its finest edifices, and its trade is considerable. Among its celebrated men, are reckoned the painter Jerome Bos,ⁿ and the mathematician S'Gravesande.^o Between these two cities, and eight leagues from both of them,^p stands *Breda*,^q defended by fortifications which are nearly a league in circumference, and by vast marshes.^r It is celebrated in the annals of war: in 1590, Maurice of Nassau made himself master of it by concealing in a boat loaded with turf,^s which he caused to enter the place by night, eighty soldiers,^t who secured

^a "Admiral Ruyter."—Michael Ruyter (Gorton.)—Du. *Michiel de Ruiter* (Busching.)—P.

^b The Scheldt divides into two branches, near Zandvliet below Antwerp, fronting the S. E. point of the island of South Beveland, of which the one on the east, called the East Scheldt (*Ooster-Schelde*), flows north between that island and North Brabant to Bergen op Zoom, where it receives the Zoom from the east, and then west between the islands of Zeeland, to the North Sea, between those of Schouwen and Walcheren, while that on the west, called the West Scheldt (*Wester-Schelde*), and also the *Hondt*, *Hond*, or *Honte*, flows in a westerly direction, between Zeeland and Dutch Flanders, and enters the North Sea near Flushing. (Busching.)—P.

^c Bergen op Zoom stands on a rising ground [Du. *berg*] in the middle of a morass, on the river Zoom, where it joins the Scheldt. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d Du. *Bergen op Zoom*—*Bergen op den Zoom* (Busching)—*Bergen op Soom*, or *Berghen op de Zoom* (Kilian.)—*Berg-op-Zoom* (Enc. Meth. Vosgien.)—The name in Dutch, signifies the Hill or Hills on Zoom, or on the Zoom.—P.

^e It was regarded as his master-piece by Coehorn. (Gorton.)—P.

^f "*Berg-op-Zoom* or *Bergen-op-Zoom*, celebrated as a fortress, and noted for the anchovies caught in its neighbourhood, and for its manufacture of pottery."—P.

^g Du. *'s Hertogenbosch*—*Hertoghen-bosch* (Kilian.)—Germ. *Herzogebusch*.—Fr. *Bois-le-Duc*—*Bos-le-Duc* (Vosgien.)—Lat. *Sylva Ducis*.—*Bois-le-Duc*, or *Bosch* (Morse.)—The Dutch name, *'s Hertogenbosch* (*des Hertogen Bosch*), of which the French and Latin names are translations, signifies the Duke's Wood.—P.

^h "—which there unite, and a league lower down fall into the Meuse."—It is situated at the confluence of the Dommel and the Aa, in a low, sandy, but cultivated tract, almost surrounded by a morass. (Ed. Enc.)—Situating at the confluence of the Dommel and the Aa, whose united waters form the Dies [*Diese*], and enter the Meuse at the fort of Crevecoeur [a league and a half from Bois-le Duc. Vosgien.] (Enc. Meth.)—P.

ⁱ The adjacent country can be easily laid under water, and sometimes in winter the town can be approached only by boats. The approaches to it by land are on causeways. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k It is defended by a castle [citadel] called Papen Briel; by the fort of Crevecoeur, near the Meuse; the large fort of Isabella; and a small fort towards Brabant, called St. Antoine. (Ed. Enc.)—Under the military governor of Bois-le-Duc (1773,) were the city (Du. *Stad*

the governor and opened the gates. Spinola, the Spanish general, thirty-five years later,^u forced it to surrender, and burned the famous boat. The French seized it in 1794;^v but in 1813, during a sortie which they made to attack the besieging Russian army, the inhabitants rose up, closed the gates and prevented the garrison from re-entering. One of its finest buildings is the great church, the spire of which is 360 feet^w high.

There are few countries where the physical constitution of the soil appears to have more influence upon the character and manners of the inhabitants than the Dutch provinces. The humidity of the climate renders them dull, phlegmatic, and slow; they are rarely affected by violent passions, but their apathy ceases whenever their interest is affected. Selfishness is said to be the basis of their actions, love of gain their chief stimulant. Let us acknowledge, however, that these two failings have been the causes of their past greatness, their riches, and their patriotism, and even of the wisdom of their institutions, and that economy has become one of their political virtues. If their parsimony led them to throw off the yoke of Spain which loaded them with taxes, and to refuse to pay tithes to the clergy, and indulgences to the Roman pontiff, in the great struggle which they sustained in the sixteenth century, their calculating spirit and their perseverance triumphed over every obstacle. They felt that religious liberty was the basis of civil liberty, and that this last secured freedom of trade and industry; and, in the knowledge of this, they preserved as long as they could, the advantages of a representative government. On this account, whatever may have been the moving spring of their great actions, they have at least the merit of having directed their interested

's Hertogenbosch), and the two dependent forts, viz. Fort Isabella (*'t Fort Isabelle*), and Crevecoeur. (Busching.)—P.

^l "Its canals divide it into nine quarters."—P.

^m The cathedral, built in 1366, is one of the finest edifices in the Low Countries. Its wooden tower, which was so lofty as to be seen all the way from Antwerp, was supported by four stone pillars, but was destroyed by lightning in 1584. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁿ One of the first who painted in oil, in which he excelled—born 1450.—P.

^o W. J. S'Gravesande (Gorton. Beauvais.)—Du. *Willem Jacob. 's Graaezande*.—Chiefly known by his Elements of Natural Philosophy, according to the Newtonian System (Physices Elementa Mathematica, experimentis confirmata, sive Introductio ad Philosophiam Newtonianam,) translated into English by Desaguliers.—Du. *'s Graaezande* (*'s Gravesande*, or *'s Graavesande*.—Eng. *Gravesand*) is the name of a town or village, situated among the downs on the coast, south-west of the Hague, signifying the Count's Sands, from its having been a residence of the old Counts of Holland.—P.

^p Nine leagues W. of Bois-le-Duc; 8 leagues N. E. of Berg-op-Zoom. (Vosgien.)—P.

^q The name of this city is the same in the Dutch, English, French and Latin languages.—P.

^r Breda is situated at the confluence of the rivers Aa and Merck, in a fertile but marshy country, and capable of being surrounded with water, so as to be altogether inaccessible to an army. It is regularly fortified, surrounded with a wall three miles in circumference, protected by bastions and a strong citadel. The city is of a triangular form, with a gate at each angle, and the ramparts are adorned with rows of elms. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^s "Tourbe"—peat.

^t Sixty soldiers. (Ed. Enc.)—Charles de Héraugieres, captain of infantry, with seventy chosen men. (Dél. des Pays-Bas.)—P.

^u A. D. 1625. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^v In 1793, though the fortifications had been greatly augmented by the Dutch, this important place was surrendered to the French after a siege of ten days; but, in the same year, it was again delivered up by capitulation to the States. (Ed. Enc.)—Breda was taken by the French, Feb. 24, 1793, and again in 1794, and 1795. It was taken possession of by the Russian general Benkendorf, Dec. 1813. (Tegg's Chronology.)—P.

^w 362 feet. (Ed. Enc. Dél. des Pays-Bas.)—P.

views towards what might contribute to promote the prosperity of their country. Their traducers have thought it sufficient to bring forward their faults, to diminish the favourable impression made upon the mind by that crowd of useful works and establishments, maintained at so great an expense, which give to Holland so peculiar an aspect. Those dikes, say these detractors, raised to arrest the encroachments of the ocean, are only owing to their care for their own preservation; those canals which intersect the country in every direction, have been cut with no other view than to favour their commercial relations; those hospitals, and those charitable establishments, so excellent and so numerous, have only been founded to shelter a rich aristocracy from the attacks of the indigent; and even their good faith in matters of business has no other foundation but the necessity of securing confidence.* Man is a being compounded of virtues and vices, and we ought not to expect from a people more disinterestedness than from an individual. Who does not see that in attributing to their interest alone, the institutions and spirit of order which do honour to the Dutch, we render homage to their judgment? They are reproached with their national pride. Where is then the nation which does not love to look back upon its past splendour? The French themselves, the most lively people in the world, do they not rather prefer to think upon their military glory, than upon that which they have acquired in the arts, in literature, and in the sciences?

The manners of the Dutch are not dissolute: this has

* See the work entitled: *Quatre mois dans les Pays-Bas*, tom. ii.

^b "The only assemblies much frequented, are those of men, and even those are regulated by the different classes and employments into which society is distributed. Such are those of ship-owners

been attributed with some reason, to the coldness of their character, and to their parsimonious disposition. Not very delicate in their affections, those who have mistresses choose them from the class of servants, and sometimes the women show themselves not more difficult to please in the choice of the objects of their fondness. There is much less depravity found among the lower classes in Holland than in any other part of Europe. It is very seldom that we hear thefts spoken of, and still more rare to hear of crimes committed. To go little abroad, to smoke much, and to eat and drink often, almost constitute the principal amusements of the rich Hollanders. They do not appreciate the pleasures of society, but they can taste the quiet enjoyment of domestic life. The only intercourse in society that does take place, is regulated by business or profession. Thus, there are captains of vessels, rich merchants and bankers, persons in public office, traders, courtiers, shopkeepers, burgesses;^b but these classes never mix, and even live in a sort of jealousy of each other. Artists and men of letters are little thought of, and though there is no country in which there are found more museums, scientific collections, and literary and learned societies, the brilliant days when so many literary characters, savans, and celebrated painters, were seen to shine in Holland, are for ever past; the sciences and the arts are now only the relaxations of the industrious rich, who, appreciating properly the noble efforts of the human mind, spare no expense to give to their children an education which will dispose them to give themselves up to similar enjoyments.

(*armateurs*,) wealthy merchants and bankers (*riches negocians*,) magistrates, traders (*commerçans*,) brokers (*courtiers*,) shopkeepers (*merchants*,) and burgesses (*bourgeois*.)"

* Capitalists, wealthy citizens not in trade.—P.

STATISTICAL TABLE

OF

THE BELGIAN PROVINCES.

Provinces.	Population in 1827.	Superficies in hectares.	Towns.	Population.	Provinces	Population in 1827.	Superficies in hectares.	Towns.	Population.
South Brabant	492,736	307,733	BRUSSELS	100,000	East Flanders	689,158	298,370	GHEENT ^f	70,000
			Louvain	16,000				Oudenarde	5,000
			Tirlemont	8,000				Alost	12,000
			Nivelles	7,000				Termonde ^f	6,000
			MONS	20,000				Renaix ^g	10,000
Hainault	546,245	377,390	Tournay [†] ^a	33,000	St. Nicholas	14,000			
			Ath	8,000	Lokeren	13,000			
			NAMUR [†]	17,000	BRUGES ^f	36,000			
Namur	190,482	345,610	Dinant	4,000	Ostend	10,000			
			LIEGE [†]	49,000	Cour [†] ray	16,000			
Liege	337,556	282,593	Verviers	16,000 ^b	Menin [†]	5,000			
			Huy ^c	5,000	Thielt [†]	10,000			
			MAESTRICHT	19,000	Ypres	15,000			
Limburg	324,368	455,316	Venloo	6,000	LUXEMBURG	10,000			
			Ruremonde	4,000	Arlon	3,000			
			Hasselt ^d	6,000	Bouillon	3,000			
			St. Trond	7,000					
			ANTWERP	65,000					
Antwerp	319,285	282,293	Turnhout	10,000					
			Malines [†]	18,000					
			Liere ^e	11,000					
				Total	3,862,623	3,293,070			

^a The signs † and ‡ in this and the following table indicate the bishoprics and archbishoprics.

^b "10,000." The population in the text is taken from the For. Quart. Rev.—P.

^c Huy or Hoi (Hubner).—Huy or Hoye (Morse).—Situated on the Meuse, about half way between Liege and Namur.—P.

^d Situated on the Demer, 5 leagues N. W. of Maestricht. (Vosgien.)—P.

^e "Lièrre," Fr.—Lire (Vosgien).—Lierre (Morse).—Du. *Lier* (Hubner).—Situated at the confluence of the two Nethes, 10 miles S. E. of Antwerp.—P.

^f Du. *Dendermonde* (Hubner)—*Denremonde*, *Dermonde* (Kilian).—*Dendermonde*, *Dermonde*, *Tenermonde*, or *Tenremonde*. (Enc. Meth. —*Dendermonde*, or *Termonde*. (Morse).—Lat. *Teneramunda*.—So called from its situation at the mouth of the Dender (*Denre*. Kilian—Fr. *Dendre*).—Du. *mond*, mouth.—P.

^g Fr. *Renaix*.—Flem. *Ronse*—*Ronsse* (Kilian).—Situated 3 leagues S. of Oudenarde. (Vosgien.)—P.

^h Flem. *Meenen*.—Fr. *Menin*.—Situated on the Lys, 4 leagues N. of Lisle. (Vosgien.)—P.

ⁱ Tielt (Kilian).—Situated 5 leagues S. E. of Bruges. (Vosgien.)—P.

STATISTICAL TABLE

OF

THE DUTCH PROVINCES.

Provinces.	Population in 1827.	Superficies in hectares.	Towns.	Population.	Provinces.	Population in 1827.	Superficies in hectares.	Towns.	Population.
North Holland	405,929	229,200	AMSTERDAM ^f	201,000	Zealand	132,321	158,036	MIDDLEBURG	13,000
			Haarlem	21,000				Flushing	5,000
			Horn	10,000				UTRECHT	36,000
			Alkmaar	9,000				Amersfort ^b	9,000
			Zaandam	10,000				ARNHEIM	10,000
South Holland	440,662	277,830	ROTTERDAM	66,000	Nimeguen	13,000			
			The Hague	49,000	Zutphen	7,000			
			Delft	14,000	Harderwyk ^d	3,800			
			Leyden	29,000	ZWOLL ^e	13,000			
			Dordrecht	11,000	Overysse ^l	10,000			
			Gorcum ^a	5,000	Campe ^f	7,000			

^a Du. *Gorinchem*, also *Gornichem* and *Gorichem*; usually abbreviated to *Gorkum* (Busching)—*Gorcum* or *Gorkom* (Hubner)—*Gorckhom* (Kilian).—One of the former represented cities (*Stemmende Steden*) in the province of Holland—situated on the north side of the Merwe, a little below the confluence of the Meuse and Waal.—P.

^b See note ^o p. 1098.

^c See note ^a p. 1097.

^d Du. *Harderwyk*—*Harderwijk*, *Harderwijck* (Kilian).—Harderwick, and Harderwyck, in English authors.—Harderwik (Tuckey. Vosgien.) Situated in the province of Gelderland (quarter of Arnhem or Veluwe,) on the Zuiderzee, N. E. of Utrecht. (Busching).—It had formerly a university, now suppressed.—P.

^e See note ^s p. 1096.

^f "Kampen."—See note ^t p. 1096.

Provinces.	Population in 1827.	Superficies in hectares.	Towns.	Population.
Drenthe	56,979	223,852	AsSEN	4,000
			Meppel	2,000
Groningen	157,973	205,059	GRONINGEN	24,000
			Delfzyl ^f	3,000
Friesland	200,654	260,732	LEUWARDEN ^d	17,000
			Harlingen	7,000
North Brabant	327,326	484,896	BOIS-LE-DUC ^f	13,000
			Breda	11,000
			Bergen-op-Zoom ^e	6,000
Dutch Colonies	2,285,663	2,814,281		
	9,400,000			
	11,685,663			

^a Population, 798. (Alm. Imper. 1813.)—P. ^b See note ^c p. 1096.
^c Delfziel (Hübner.)—Delfsil (Kilian.)—Delfzil (Vosgien.)—Delfzyl is situated at the mouth of the Fivel or Damster Diep [Damster river* (Malham's Naval Gazetteer)], which joins the Dollart [rather the strait that opens into the Dollart]; it is a strong fortress.† (Tuckey.)—Situatd 6 leagues N. E. of Groningen. (Vosgien.)—P.
^e So called from the small town of Dam, situated on it, one league from Delfzyl.—P.

† The key to the provinces of Friesland and Groningen. (Vosgien.)—P.
^d See note ^e p. 1096. ^e "Berg-op-Zoom."—See note ^b p. 1107.
^f "Saint-George de la Mine," Fr. (so called, says Vosgien, from the gold mines in its neighbourhood.)—St. George de la Mine (sometimes called Delmina, and Elmina) is the principal establishment of the Dutch on the coast of Africa. It is a square castle, mounting 100 pieces of cannon, situated on a rocky coast, near the river Benja, and at the foot of it is the large Negro town of Oddenna. (Tuckey.)—St. George's Castle, or Del Minas. (Malham.)—Elmina, or St. George del Mina. (Morse.)—The forts and factories belonging to the Dutch West India Company (1773,) on the coasts of Guinea, Benin and Angola, were under the superintendence of the head-factory (Hoofd-kantoor) at Elmina, or the Castle of St. George del Mina (built on a rock, and near it, a small town called Mina) (Busching.)—P.
^g The Dutch colonies in Africa, are thirteen small forts on the coast of Guinea. (Ed. Enc. art. Netherlands, 1822.)—The Dutch have factories and settlements on the Slave Coast, as well as on the Gold Coast.

DUTCH COLONIES.

Africa.	Elmina, or St. George of the Mine. ^f
	Various small forts on the Gold Coast in Guinea. ^g
	Sumatra (the greatest part of this island with Bencoolen. ^h)
Oceanica. ¹	Java, whose capital, Batavia, is also that of all Dutch Oceania.
	Madura, the whole.
	Celebes, in part.
	Borneo, do.
	Archipelago of Sumbava and Timor, almost entirely.
	Archipelago of the Moluccas, almost entirely.
	Land of Papua ⁱ in New Guinea..
	Islands of Papua. ⁱ
	Riou, a small island, now become of little commercial importance. ^k
	Islands of Bonair, ^m Curaçao, ⁿ St. Eustatius, ^o part of the island of St. Martin, Saba, and some smaller islands of little importance.
America.	Colony of Surinam in Guiana.

(Ed. Enc. art. Guinea, 1817.)—In 1773, the Dutch West India Company possessed on the coasts of Guinea, Benin and Angola, fifteen forts and factories, of which Elmina was the capital. (Busching.)—P.

^h Bencoolen is the principal establishment of the British East India Company in Sumatra, and is incorporated with the presidency of Bengal. (Enc. Amer. Morse.)—P.

ⁱ "—of the Papous" (Papuan.)
^k "Riou, a small island, become recently (*depuis peu*) important from its commerce."

¹ The Dutch colonies in Asia, are Java, with the lesser governments of Amboyna, Banda, Ternate, Malacca and Macassar, and also some factories on the coasts of Coromandel and Persia. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^m Bonaire, or Buenaire.—P.
ⁿ Curaçao (Tuckey.)—Curaçao (Vosgien.)—Curazao (Pinkerton.)—P.

^o "St. Eustache."—St. Eustatia (Tuckey.)—St. Eustatius (Busching.)—The last the proper name.—P

STATISTICAL TABLES

CONNECTED WITH

THE LATE KINGDOM OF THE NETHERLANDS,

EMBRACING BOTH DUTCH AND BELGIAN PROVINCES.^a

I. Movement of the Population for ten years.

Provinces.	Population.		Births.	Deaths.	Marriages.	Divorces.
	1815.	1825.				
Zealand	111,108	129,329	55,331	42,430	10,645	27
Gelderland	264,097	284,363	90,862	59,818	19,337	13
North Brabant	294,087	326,617	100,863	69,507	20,380	1
North Holland	375,257	393,916	145,744	121,725	34,789	209
South Holland	388,505	438,202	165,741	143,850	34,942	148
Utrecht	107,947	117,405	41,038	29,928	8,982	30
Friesland	176,554	202,530	65,565	38,219	15,327	46
Overyssel	147,229	160,937	51,951	37,479	11,629	13
Groningen	135,642	156,045	51,673	30,539	11,492	37
Drenthe	46,459	53,368	16,723	9,858	3,954	3
Limburg	287,613	321,246	101,781	70,549	22,960	5
Liege	58,185	331,101	113,623	82,608	24,387	24
Namur	364,400	189,393	58,690	34,134	12,592	8
Luxemburg	113,597	292,610	92,242	58,695	18,740	1
Hainault	288,595	546,190	183,198	118,289	39,591	27
South Brabant	441,649	495,455	169,181	119,109	36,423	5
East Flanders	615,689	687,267	218,830	162,834	43,120	0
West Flanders	516,324	563,826	191,139	141,310	37,882	6
Antwerp	291,565	323,678	101,471	70,623	23,075	2
The Kingdom	5,424,502	6,013,478	2,015,646	1,441,600	430,247	605

^a The greater part of these tables are added by the English Editors (from the For. Quart. Rev. No. X.) Those taken from the original are pointed out in notes.—P.

II. Table showing the Ratio of Population to Deaths, Births, &c.

Provinces.	Rate of increase of population for 5 years to 1825.	Ratio of population in 1824 to			Ratio of female to male births in 1824.	Ratio of births to marriages in 1824.
		Deaths.	Births.	Marriages.		
North Holland	0.040	34.5	23.2	104.4	0.956	4.50
East Flanders	0.051	44.8	28.4	165.3	0.946	5.82
Limburg	0.053	47.5	29.2	90.3	0.956	3.09
Antwerp	0.056	48.8	30.7	142.9	0.960	4.65
Zealand	0.056	31.4	20.7	113.7	0.960	5.49
North Brabant	0.059	51.4	29.2	150.0	0.974	5.14
Namur	0.062	57.9	29.8	150.9	0.907	5.06
Liege	0.065	46.2	28.9	154.1	0.942	5.33
Utrecht	0.068	36.3	24.3	118.2	0.939	4.86
South Brabant	0.068	38.2	26.1	142.2	0.970	5.45
Gelderland	0.069	53.7	27.6	131.1	0.952	4.75
South Holland	0.070	35.0	23.9	113.3	0.959	4.74
Overyssel	0.071	43.5	26.5	121.9	0.937	4.60
West Flanders	0.073	40.7	27.5	137.7	0.930	5.01
Hainault	0.073	51.1	27.4	136.5	0.921	4.98
Groningen	0.078	49.3	28.9	149.3	0.898	5.17
Luxemburg	0.080	53.8	27.9	149.9	0.967	5.37
Friesland	0.086	46.1	27.1	128.7	0.944	5.75
Drenthe	0.087	55.0	27.8	130.3	0.895	4.69
Average for the kingdom	0.062	43.8	27.0	132.4	0.947	4.90
Do. for 1825.	—	41.0	27.1	127.2	0.943	4.70

III. Land in Cultivation.^a

Provinces.	Hectares of land in the whole. ^b	Hectares in cultivation.
Zealand	158,416	148,029
Gelderland	509,195	239,802
North Brabant	501,293	277,183
North Holland	245,114	203,008
South Holland	237,181	244,213
Utrecht	133,194	110,281
Friesland	263,618	235,705
Overyssel	328,712	175,863
Groningen	204,899	173,063
Drenthe	229,266	74,229
Limburg	466,687	310,514
Liege	238,992	237,579
Namur	347,683	278,397
Luxemburg	650,210	463,423
Hainault	372,469	356,258
South Brabant	328,426	316,883
East Flanders	282,361	264,988
West Flanders	316,585	296,915
Antwerp	283,830	197,303
Total	6,198,131	4,653,636

IV. State of the present Manufacturing Interest in the Netherlands.

Substances.	Value in Fr.	Substances.	Value in Fr.
Iron	46,000,000	Brought forward	608,000,000
Copper	5,000,000	Dyeing	10,000,000
Woolens	80,000,000	Paper	8,000,000
Linens	95,000,000	Caps and Bonnets	7,000,000
Cottons	50,000,000	Cheese	10,000,000
Sugar (refined)	14,000,000	Jewellery	4,000,000
Salt (do.)	10,000,000	Starch	3,500,000
Spirits	40,000,000	Acids and Salts	1,500,000
Beer	112,000,000	Cordage	3,000,000
Tobacco	28,000,000	Hats	6,000,000
Oil	30,000,000	Glass	2,000,000
Soap	10,000,000	Clocks	4,000,000
Lace	25,000,000	Cards	1,200,000
Leather	23,000,000	Embroidery	1,200,000
Earthen ware and Pottery	4,000,000	Turnery	600,000
Bricks and Tiles	6,000,000	Lead and Zinc	1,000,000
Printing and Books	15,000,000	Miscellaneous	4,000,000
Bleaching	10,000,000		
Carry forward	608,000,000	Total	675,000,000

V. Principal Branches of the Expenditure of the Netherlands. IN FLORINS.

	1816.	1821.	1836.	Average for the eleven years.
King's household	2,600,000	2,600,000	2,100,000	2,531,636
Great offices of state	1,468,635	1,211,285	1,065,430	1,202,811
Foreign affairs	937,838	705,503	766,969	787,638
Justice	3,394,511	3,221,347	2,191,049	3,243,567
Interior, and Waterstaat ^c	7,245,910	5,019,322	6,159,249	5,744,439
Religions, except the Catholic	1,264,261	1,423,449	1,327,311	1,351,813
Catholic religion	1,325,176	2,036,730	1,631,413	1,662,863
Education, arts, commerce and colonies	3,894,736	1,723,882	73,019 ^d	2,155,520
Finances	23,314,342	34,309,517	38,707,562	31,553,101
Navy	6,554,531	5,037,745	6,582,842	5,775,711
Army	27,128,574	17,427,732	18,444,535	22,852,651

Finances.

Revenue in Fr. 161,836,000. Debt in Fr. 3,800,000,000.

VI. Publications in the Netherlands.

	1825.	1826.	1827.
Theology	111	103	99
Jurisprudence, Medicine, Physics, &c.	93	105	146
History	94	96	96
Philology, Poetry, Drama	135	134	114
Miscellanies, Novels	246	325	286
	679	763	741 ^e

^a There are some slight differences in the quantities of land as exhibited in this table, and the tables on pages 1109 and 1110. The present table is taken from the *Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. X. art. *Netherlands*.

^b A hectare of land is equal to 2½ English acres. [The hectare is equal to 2 acres, 1 rood, 35.4 rods.—P.]

^c Expenses of dikes, canals, and navigation in general. [*Waterstaat* signifies literally, water administration.—P.]

^d The charges for education are now included under the head of Interior.

^e The preceding part of this table is taken from the original.—P.

Translations from	German	French	English	Spanish	1826.	1827.
Do.					107	120
Do.					57	58
Do.					30	25
Do.					1	—
					195	203

VII. Students of the Universities of the Netherlands, 1st Jan. 1826.

	Theology.	Law.	Medicine.	Sciences.	Philosophy and Letters.	TOTAL
Leyden	103	138	60	8	227	536
Utrecht	154	103	20	33	170	480
Groningen	94	73	28	14	91	300
Louvain	0	154	70	63	335	622
Liege	0	197	84	63	115	481
Ghent	0	144	124	33	54	355
	351	809	386	214	992	2774

The Increase, during a period of three years, in the Students of the whole six establishments, is thus exhibited:

	1824.	1825.	1826.
Theology	246	325	351
Law	723	807	809
Medicine	355	374	386
Sciences	233	226	214
Philosophy and Letters	718	904	992
Total	2275	2636	2752

VIII. State of Education in the Kingdom of the Netherlands, 1st January, 1826.

Provinces.	Primary Schools.		Small Schools.*	Schools of Industry.	TOTAL.	Expenses of Primary Instruction—1826.	Colleges or Latin Schools.	Proportion of Pupils to the Population for each 1000 inhabitants.	Periodicals and Journals.
	Boys.	Girls.							
North Brabant	20,630	14,529	2,624	195	37,978	48,066	420	116.02	6
South Brabant	21,993	16,177	4,863	508	43,541	74,293	779	88.36	40
Limburg	13,493	8,795	1,466		23,754	22,050	782	73.23	2
Gelderland	18,881	12,243	2,031		33,155	58,245	172	116.63	4
Liege	13,794	8,539	933	67	23,333	12,311	634	69.12	10
East Flanders	25,644	9,205	6,399	1,624	55,872	21,065	274	81.07	5
West Flanders	21,028	17,830	6,888	11,376	57,122	34,081	256	85.12	4
Hainault	32,179	21,736	6,504	18	60,437	61,379	1,263	110.64	3
North Holland	22,018	16,880	9,062	88	48,048	159,226	221	118.36	38
South Holland	23,813	16,885	8,179	1,296	50,173	110,715	225	113.40	22
Zealand	7,059	4,813	1,386	47	14,205	35,267	37	107.35	8
Namur	12,139	9,565	1,247	27	22,978	37,919	435	120.68	3
Antwerp	15,805	11,914	2,969	713	31,401	34,765	570	98.35	3
Utrecht	6,765	5,165	1,468	277	13,675	27,433	119	111.65	2
Friesland	14,571	10,351	2,011	219	26,933	48,104	121	134.22	1
Overyssel	13,484	10,587	1,582		25,872	41,824	113	164.62	4
Groningen	11,883	9,374	331		21,588	23,660	84	136.65	4
Drenthe	4,770	4,089	90		8,869	8,572	28	156.18	1
Luxemburg	19,925	14,719	1,600		34,904	24,798	505	119.63	2
Total	320,774	236,446	60,193	16,455	633,868	890,373	7,038	103.09	156

* Schools for small children (M. B.)

IX. Commercial Movement of the principal Ports of the Kingdom, during the years 1826—1828.^a

	1826.	1827.	1828.
Vessels entered at Amsterdam	1,887	1,982	2,132
Do. at Rotterdam	1,587	1,731	2,085
Do. at Antwerp	928	822	955
Do. at Ostend	482	501	574
Do. employed in the Herring Fishery	131	142	

X. Army and Navy in 1829.

Army	43,297 men.
Navy	4,314 men.
{ Crews in actual service	4,314 men.
{ Ships of the Line	12
{ Frigates	33
{ Corvettes	36
{ Smaller Vessels	50
	131 vessels.

XI. Charitable Institutions of the Netherlands.

Nature of Institutions.	Number of Institutions.	Individuals relieved.	Expenses of Relief.	Expense for each Individual.
Administrations for relieving the Poor at home	5,129	745,652	5,448,740	7.31
Commissions for distributing Food, &c.	36	22,056	82,424	3.73
Societies of Maternal Charity	4	1,448	13,493	9.32
Hospitals	724	41,172	4,091,157	99.37
Funds for Military Service	1	2,277	110,942	48.73
Royal Hospital of Messine ^b	1	1,56	23,290	149.30
Poor Schools	285	147,296	247,176	1.67
Workhouses of Charity	34	6,169	406,704	65.92
Depôts of Mendicity	8	2,598	229,587	88.37
Societies of Beneficence for the Colonies ^c	2	8,553	353,529	41.33
Establishments for the Deaf and Dumb	4	239	41,994	175.70
Total	6,228	977,616	11,049,036	[Average 11.30]
Monts de Piété ^d	124		4,208,068	
Savings Banks	50	18,035	2,771,608	[Average 153.93]

^a Tables IX. and X. taken from the original.—P.

^b In West Flanders, for the daughters of soldiers invalided or killed in service. (For. Qu. Rev.)—P.

^c Poor Colonies, or Colonies of Industry, under the superintendence of two Societies of Beneficence, one for the Northern, the other for the Southern Provinces; the Northern colonies are estab-

XII. State of Crime in the Netherlands in 1826.

Crimes against Persons.			
Nature of Crimes.	Accused.	Acquitted.	Condemned.
Political Crimes	0	0	0
Rebellion	68	26	42
Breach of Sanitary Laws	0	0	0
Escapes from Detention	3	0	3
Perjury and Subornation	17	2	15
Assassination	13	3	10
Poisoning	0	0	0
Parricide	0	0	0
Murder	24	7	17
Assaulting and Wounding	123	26	97
Assaults upon Authorities	21	4	17
Arbitrary Arrests	0	0	0
Menaces	5	2	3
Mendicity with violence	1	0	1
Bigamy	2	0	2
Abortion	0	0	0
Infanticide	2	0	2
Child-stealing	0	0	0
Rapes and Attempts	16	2	14
Rapes on children under 15 years	9	1	8
Total	304	73	231
Crimes against Property.			
Nature of Crimes.	Accused.	Acquitted.	Condemned.
Exaction and Corruption	9	4	5
Embezzlement of the public money	10	0	10
Burning of Buildings	11	4	7
of other objects	0	0	0
Destruction of Property	8	6	2
False Coining	11	2	9
Counterfeit Seals, &c.	2	1	1
Fraud by False Pretences	5	1	4
in Commercial Writings	12	0	12
Other Frauds	40	12	28
Fraudulent Bankruptcy	14	2	12
Robbery in churches	5	1	4
on the Highways	9	2	7
in Dwelling Houses	198	24	174
Other Robberies	744	91	653
Alteration of Bills, Bonds, &c.	0	0	0
Embezzlement of Titles and Deeds	2	0	2
Breaking Seals	0	0	0
Importing Prohibited Goods	5	0	5
Total	1085	150	935

lished among the heaths in Drenthe, and the Southern among those near Turnhout in Antwerp. (For. Qu. Rev.)—P.

^d Equitable loan banks, which advance money to the poor, either without interest or at an interest much below what any pawnbroker would take. (For. Qu. Rev.)—P.



British Statute Miles
 5 10 20 30 40 50

Longitude West 2 from Greenwich 1 0 1

BOOK CLII.^a

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Great Britain.—England.—First Section.—Civil Geography.—Early Inhabitants.—Roman Conquests.—Saxon Invasion.—Normans.—History, progress and settlement of the Constitution.

THE island of Great Britain was originally called the country of *Green Hills*, afterwards the island of *Honey*, and at a still later period *Bryt* or *Prydain*, from which the name of Britain appears to have been derived. The rivers Forth and Clyde are the natural limits of two large but unequal portions of the same country. The northern portion was called *Alben*, or the region of mountains; the name of *Kymru* was applied to the western part of the other, and that of *Lægr* to the southern and eastern. The two latter names, unlike the former, were not derived from the nature of the soil or the character of the country, but from two distinct races, the Cambrians and the Lægrians, the early inhabitants of Southern Britain.

Of these two nations, the Cambrians claim the higher antiquity; according to imperfect traditions, they came from the eastern extremities of Europe, and having crossed the German Ocean, many of them settled in Gaul, while others landed on the opposite shores of Britain. Before this period, if credence can be given to the same traditions, Britain was destitute of inhabitants, bears found shelter in the forests, and wild cattle roamed in the plains. The names of many places, not derived from the Cambrian language, and the monuments of an unknown age, attributed by vulgar superstition, to a race of hunters, who, instead of dogs, trained foxes and wild cats for the chase, render it probable that before the arrival of the Cambrians, Britain was inhabited by men of a different origin and a different language. The early inhabitants were gradually forced into the west and north by the successive influx of strangers from the east. Some passed the sea, and reached the large island of Erin, or settled in the western isles, which were peopled by men of the same race as the aboriginal Britons. The high mountains, which stretch from the banks of the Clyde to the extremities of the island, proved an impregnable barrier against new aggressions to as many as retreated into the north, where they assumed and have still preserved the name of Gaels. Increased at different times by their brethren from Ireland, they formed the population of Albania, or the *Highlands*; different from the inhabitants of the plains in the south, and mindful of former injuries, they handed down to their descendants the memory of their conquest and their flight. It is

impossible to determine the time in which these migrations took place, but according to traditional and other evidence, they were anterior to the landing of the Lægrians on the southern shores of Britain. The Lægrians inhabited the south-western parts of Gaul; they were of the same origin, and spoke the same language as the Cambrians, who, compelled to give way to these new settlers, retired to the shores of the western sea, and scattered themselves over a country, which, from that period, has retained the name of Cambria. The Lægrians took possession of the southern and eastern coasts; a third horde of the same race migrated from the country between the Seine and the Loire, and obtained a settlement, it is said, without war and without contest. The name of Britons is exclusively applied to these last settlers in the national poems and ancient annals. Their territory was probably situated on the north of Cambria and Lægria, near the frontier of the Gaelic population, between the firths of Forth and Solway. These barbarians, sprung from a common origin, were sometimes exposed to the invasions of foreign tribes. One of these hordes inhabited that part of Gaul which has since been denominated Flanders; many persons amongst them were destroyed by an inundation, and as many as escaped were compelled to leave for ever their native land; they made themselves masters of the Isle of Wight, and the southern coast of England. The territory of the Lægrians was afterwards divided into two portions by the Caritanians,^b a Teutonic tribe that entered by the mouth of the Humber, and settled on its banks and on the neighbouring shores.^c

The memory of these remote events is partly preserved in obscure traditions, and in the less erring indications, which ancient languages afford. Little, however, was known of Britain before the arrival of the Romans.^d The Phœnicians, Carthaginians and other nations may have repaired to the island, and carried on a trade with the inhabitants, but it was not their policy to make known their route, lest others might participate in the profits of their traffic, much less to explore the country. The pretext which Cæsar uses to justify his expedition, was to make the Romans familiar with the coasts, harbours and landing places, to which the Gauls were strangers. None but merchants resorted to the island, and if the land opposite Gaul be excepted, foreigners were ignorant of the country.^e But Cæsar, it is well known, did not penetrate beyond the banks of the

^a This and the following books on Great Britain and Ireland, are rewritten by the English Editor.—P.

^b Coritani. (D'Anv.)—P.

^c See the *Horæ Britannicæ*, *Archæology of Wales*, and the *Introduction to Thierry's History of the Norman Conquest*.

^d B. C. 55.

^e Cæsar's *Commentaries*, Book iv. ch. 13.

Thames; more important projects recalled him to Rome, and according to the observation of Lucan, he may be said to have fled from the enemy he sought.—*Territa quasitis ostendit terga Britannis*. During the reign of Augustus, Britain continued a *terra incognita* to the Romans; it was first subdued in the time of Domitian by Agricola, who ascertained it to be an island.^a

A difference of complexion observed among the inhabitants, was supposed to indicate a different origin. The red hair and tall stature of the northern tribes, convinced Tacitus that they had migrated from Germany; while the swarthy complexion and curled locks of the Silures,^b caused them to be considered of Iberian descent.

If, in the time of Cæsar, the natives of the south-eastern part of the island were more refined or less barbarous than the other inhabitants, it was owing to a more frequent intercourse with their Gallic neighbours. Their districts were better peopled; agriculture was not unknown to them; they used marle as a manure, and raised more corn than was necessary for their consumption. The people may be said to have been husbandmen, at a time when the rest of their countrymen were shepherds; consequently to have made the first step towards civilization.

But at the early period of which we speak, all the Britons were little removed from the savage state. Their towns were built in thick woods, fortified with a ditch or rampart to serve as a place of retreat against their enemies, and well adapted, from their situation, to favour their escape on any emergence. Their houses were very rude; a stone foundation supported walls made of timber or reeds, while the interior consisted of a small chamber with a fire in the middle; the floor was strewn with straw or rushes, on which the inmates and visitors slept. Ten or twelve persons resided in a single house; they had their wives in common, but the offspring was always attributed to him who married the mother.^c The zeal of some historians in defending the morals of their ancestors may be commendable, but it cannot by any means invalidate the statement of Cæsar, which is confirmed by Dion and other ancient writers. "It is very likely," says Dr. Henry, "that the Roman general was deceived by appearances, and led to entertain this opinion of the promiscuous intercourse of the sexes by observing the promiscuous manner in which they lived, particularly in which they slept."^d It is doubtful that Cæsar ever observed the manner in which the Britons slept; his information was derived from the natives themselves, who would not have avowed the practice, had it not been general, or if it had been considered disgraceful. The well known story of Cartimandua, the queen of the Brigantes, does not prove that she lost her dominions for the reason that is commonly alleged, but because she raised her standard-bearer to the throne.^e

^a Tacitus, Life of Agricola.

^b South Welsh.

^c Cæsar's Commentaries, Book v. Chap. 10.

^d Henry's History of Britain, Book i. Chap. 7.

^e The story is thus related by Tacitus. "In the reign of Claudius, Cartimandua had treacherously delivered up Caractacus to swell the pomp of that emperor's triumph. From that time riches flowed on her, but riches drew after them their usual appendages, luxury and dissipation. She banished from her presence Venusius her husband, and raised Velleatus her armour-bearer to her throne and bed. By that criminal act she lost all her authority. Convulsions shook her kingdom. The discarded husband had the people on his side, while the adulterer had nothing to protect him but the libidinous passions of the queen and the cruelty of her reign. Venusius was in a short time at the head of a powerful army. The subjects of the queen flocked to his standard, and a body of auxiliaries joined him. Cartimandua

The southern Britons stained their bodies with an infusion of woad, which gave their skins a blue colour, and made them appear terrible in battle; they wore long hair, and shaved all the rest of the body except the head and upper lip.^f The custom of tattooing themselves was confined to the northern tribes; the outlines of animals were punctured in the skin during infancy, and a strong dye was rubbed on the punctures; the figures expanding with the growth of the body, retained their appearance through life.^g Strabo judged from the few he saw at Rome, who were of lofty stature, but ill made and inactive. Want of activity was no characteristic of these tribes. They delighted in war and martial occupations; nay, their chieftains thought the time lost which was spent in peace. The first food given to a male child was put into his mouth on the point of his father's sword, who prayed that he might prove a brave warrior and die in battle; such they deemed the most honourable death.^h The children contended with each other in wrestling, in swimming, and in the race; to the want of restraint, almost constant exercise and simple diet, their bodily strength and daring spirit have with some justice been attributed. Arrived at manhood, the vicissitudes and toils of war were familiar to them; in bearing fatigue, hunger, thirst and cold, they surpassed their conquerors.

"They use chariots in war, they scour the field on every side, throw their darts, and create disorder among the ranks by the terror of their horses, and the noise of their chariot wheels. When they mingle with the cavalry, they leap out and fight on foot; meanwhile the charioteers retire to a short distance, and place themselves in such a manner that if the others are overpowered, they may be secure of their retreat. Thus they act with the agility of cavalry and the steadiness of infantry; expert from constant practice, they can stop their horses at full speed, check and turn them, run along the pole, stand on the harness, and dart into their chariots."ⁱ The different tribes never formed a lasting union with each other, they fought separately against the common enemy, and they were therefore subdued.

Their money consisted of brass or iron rings of a certain weight; they practised hospitality, but it was not considered a crime to plunder the territory, or rob the inhabitants of a different tribe. Their virtues were those of barbarians; frank, generous, and free from deceit, "they are absolute strangers to the pernicious cunning and dissimulation of the men of our times."^k

The numerous clans were under the government of chieftains, but the latter seldom possessed unlimited power. Much exactness was not observed in the order of succession, and, what is a singular custom among a barbarous nation, females were not excluded from the highest dignities; Cartimandua was queen of the Brigantes,

was reduced to the last extremity. She implored the protection of the Romans, who sent some cohorts and squadrons of horse to her relief. Several battles ensued with various success. The queen, however, was rescued from impending danger, though she lost her kingdom. Venusius wrested the sceptre from her hands, and the Romans were involved in a war." Tacitus' History, Book III. chap. 45. The empress Julia alluded to the prevalence of this vice in Britain before a British princess, the wife of Argetocoxus; the latter did not deny the charge, but retorted it against the Romans.

^f Cæsar's Commentaries, Book v. Chap. 11. ["Capilloque sunt promisso; atque omni parte corporis rasa, præter caput, et labrum superius."]

^g Solinus, xxii. 43.

^h Solinus, Chap. 53.

ⁱ Cæsar, Book v.

^k Diodorus Siculus, Book v. chap. 21.

while the famous Boadicea reigned over the Iceni. "There is no rule of distinction to exclude the female line from the throne, or the command of armies."^a It was the right of the monarch to command the army, but he could not depend on the obedience of his troops; they compelled him to make war or peace against his inclination. It appeared a sufficient apology for the imprisonment of Comius, a deputy sent by Cæsar, that it was the act of the multitude, not of the chiefs, who remonstrated in vain. In a barbarous state, men cannot estimate the benefits of government; they are unwilling to surrender any portion of their liberty, that they may enjoy what remains in greater security; it is by acting on the imagination, and by taking advantage of the passions and fears, that barbarians are effectually enslaved.

Accordingly, the authority of the priests was much greater than that of the kings. The druids arrogated the right of making laws, and the power of enforcing them. They declared their decisions the decrees of God, and themselves the only persons who could make them known to the people; so gross an artifice was believed in so rude an age. Their excommunications were as terrible as any that ever emanated from Rome; their doctrines were concealed from the people; sometimes several persons lived together in the same house, that they might perform together their services in the sanctuary; at other times, they retired to caves and desert places, that they might obtain a greater reputation for piety. They abstained from certain meats; "it is unlawful to eat hares, pullets or geese, but many individuals breed them for their diversion or pleasure."^b To enable these men to pass their time in the contemplation of divine truths, undisturbed by worldly cares, they were exempt from every contribution. No sacred rite was performed without them; the prayers, thanksgivings and sacrifices of the people could only be offered by the druids. In times of peace, when the royal authority was much abridged, the whole frame of civil society, loose and imperfect as it must have been, was held together by the same class.

It is natural to suppose that the Roman conquest had the effect of improving the inhabitants, of creating commerce, and of diffusing the comforts which accompany it. Before the invasion of Cæsar, tin was the only article of trade; and it is unnecessary to add that the advantage derived from it was confined to a very small number. In the list of British exports in the time of Agricola, Tacitus specifies corn, cattle, hides, gold and silver, tin, lead and iron. The British *sagum* or plaid was substituted for the undressed skins with which the natives covered themselves, and the *sagum* was afterwards superseded by the Roman *toga*. The Romans styled

Agricola the conqueror of the Britons, but he secured for himself a more imperishable fame; he was their benefactor. Promotion became the consequence of merit, and the affections of the people were conciliated by an impartial administration of justice. It was by no means an easy task to obtain corn and other provisions for the army, but the burden was lightened by equal contributions. In former times, the extortions of the tax-gatherer were more oppressive than the tax itself, and if the Romans were long in making themselves masters of the island, it may be imputed to the injustice and rapacity of their governors. The natives were often defeated in battle, but they were not subdued. It was the object of Agricola to reclaim them from a savage life. "He encouraged by public assistance and by his individual efforts, those who built temples, courts of justice, and commodious dwelling houses. Praises were lavished on as many as cheerfully obeyed; the slow and uncomplying were branded with reproach, and emulation was found to be a more powerful motive for exertion than a sense of duty. To establish a plan of education, and give the sons of the leading chiefs a taste for letters, was part of his policy. By way of encouragement he praised their talents, and already saw them, by the force of their natural genius, rising superior in attainments to the Gauls."^c Monkish historians affirm that the martial spirit of the inhabitants was destroyed by a taste for the refinements and arts of Rome, as if the undisciplined courage of barbarians were a virtue, or in any way worthy of admiration.

The Romans had an imperfect knowledge of the northern tribes in Scotland. Marshes and fens, ravines and mountains, vying with each other in sterility, were the only obstacles to the arms of Agricola after the battle at Mons Grampius; but it was not the policy of that celebrated general, or of the people whom he commanded, to expose themselves needlessly to danger.

It may be observed that the name of Caledonians was extended by the Greek and Roman writers of the three first centuries, to all the independent clans or tribes between the frontier wall and the northern extremity of the island. The Caledonii, however, were confined to the long and narrow belt, that stretches from the Firth of Tay on the eastern, to Loch Fine on the western coast.

There is reason to believe that forty-five distinct tribes or clans inhabited Britain during the Roman period.^d

Conquered Britain was divided by the Romans into six provinces of irregular boundaries. The country that extends from the western extremity of Cornwall to the south foreland of Kent, partly insulated by the Bristol Channel on the west, and the course of the Thames on

^a Tacitus, *Life of Agricola*, chap. 16.

^b Cæsar's *Commentaries*. Book v.

^c Tacitus, *Life of Agricola*, chap. 21.

^d The Cantii, Regni, Bibroces, Atrebatæ, Segontiaci, Belgæ, Durobriges, Hoedui, Carnabii and Damnonii possessed the country from the shores of Kent to those of Cornwall. The Silures, Ordovices and Dimetæ inhabited Wales. The country between the Thames, the Severn, the Mersey, the Humber and the Ocean, was peopled by the Trinabantes, Iceni, Coritani, Cassii, Dobuni, Huicci, Ancalites and Cornabii. The Setantii, Volantii and Brigantes inhabited Lancashire, Westmoreland, Cumberland, Yorkshire, Durham and part of Northumberland. Valentia was peopled by the Ottadini, Gadeni, Selgovæ, Novantes and Damni. Vespasiana by the Harestii, Vecturones, Taixali, Vacomagii, Albani and Attacotti. The tribes in independent Scotland were the Caledonii, Cautæ, Logi, Carnabii, Calini, Mertæ, Carnonacæ, Cerones, Creones and Epidii.—[The tribes in Britain, mentioned by Ptolemy, were the following, viz. Novantæ, Selgovæ,

Damni (Dumnii,) Gadeni, Otadeni (Otodini,) Epidii, Cerones, Creones, Carnonacæ, Carini (Carini,) Cornabii (Cornavii,) Caledonii, Cantæ, Logi, Mertæ, Vacomagii, Venicantes (Vennicones,) Texali (Taixali,) Brigantes, Parisi, Ordovices, Cornavii, Coritani, Catyuchlani (Cassii,) Simeni (Iceni,) Trinoantes (Trinobantes,) Demetæ, Silures, Dobuni (Boduni,) Atrebatii, Cantii, Regni, Belgæ, Durotriges, and Dumnonii (Dannonii, Danmonii.) Besides these, the following are mentioned by Cæsar, viz. the Bibroci (supposed to have inhabited Berks,) the Segontiaci (in Hants,) the Ancalites (in Oxfordshire and Bucks,) and the Cenimagni (considered by Camden, the same as the Iceni.) The Huicci (Jugantes of Tacitus) were included in the Cornavii. The Horesti of Tacitus occupied Angus, under the Vacomagii. The Attacotti are supposed to have occupied some part of the north of Scotland. The Vecturones included all the tribes north of the Forth, not included in the Dicaledones; the latter occupied Argyle, Perth, and the Highlands adjoining those two counties.—P.]

the east, made up *Britannia Prima*, then the most wealthy region in Britain. Wales and the tract that is bounded by the circuitous course of the Severn obtained the name of *Britannia Secunda*. *Flavia Cesariensis* was bounded by the two last provinces, and also by the Humber, the Don and the German Ocean. *Maxima Cesariensis* comprehended all the country between the two seas, from the Humber to the Eden and the Tyne. *Valentia* extended from the northern limits of the last province to the Firths of Forth and Clyde.^a *Vespasiana* was separated from independent Caledonia by the mountainous chain that stretches from Dumbarton to the Firth of Murray. But the Romans exercised a doubtful authority in the last province, and it may perhaps be more correct to consider the *prætentura* of Agricola, as the northern boundary of Roman Britain.

To complete this part of the subject, it is necessary to take some notice of the Roman monuments of the period. Of these none were more important than their military works, their chains of forts, their ramparts and their walls. The troops under the command of Agricola were employed during part of the third, and the whole of the fourth summer, in building forts between the Firths of Forth and Clyde;^b in his opinion, the most advantageous frontier of the Roman territory in Britain. Such a choice was not unworthy so great a general. "Men of skill and military science thought no officer more able than Agricola in choosing the most advantageous situation, and accordingly not one of the stations fortified by his direction was taken by storm. At every post to enable the garrison to stand a siege, a year's provision was laid up; although frequent sallies were made, the besiegers were always repulsed, and the Romans passed the winter without danger."^c It was shown, however, that the possession of the province depended more on the character of the general than on the works which he had erected. The forts were no defence against the weakness of his successors; and during the period that elapsed from the departure of Agricola to the arrival of Hadrian, the tribes in the Lowlands of Scotland, and in the north of England, had thrown off the yoke.

Hadrian, like Augustus, was more desirous of securing his dominions, than enlarging their limits; for this purpose he contracted the boundaries of Roman Britain, and raised a new barrier against the incursions of the northern tribes. The vallum of Hadrian reached from the Solway Firth on the west to the north of the Tyne on the east, or more definitely, from the neighbourhood of Burgh on the Sands to the present town of Newcastle. It was not carried across the heights, but in an oblique direction along the vallies. The works were a rampart, a ditch, and two *aggeres* or mounds. The earthen rampart or vallum was probably twelve feet in height; some parts of it rise, even in the present day, six feet above the surface. The dimensions of the ditch may be more correctly ascertained; it passes through a limestone quarry near Harlow-Hill, where it is eleven feet deep, and nine in width.

^a *Flavia Cesariensis* included all that part of the island south of the Bristol Channel and the Thames; *Britannia Prima*, that part between the Thames, the Severn, the Humber and the German Sea; *Britannia Secunda*, all west of the Severn, or rather more than Wales; *Maxima Cesariensis*, between the Humber and the wall of Severus, from sea to sea; and *Valentia*, all between the walls of Severus and Antoninus. (Henry's Hist. Great Britain, vol. I. p. 347-9.)—P.

^b The *Prætentura* of Agricola.

The two mounds were parallel to the ditch, the one on the north, the other on the south. The southern was a military road, and the original work of Hadrian; the other, it has been conjectured, was added as a military way for the wall of Severus, when the vallum was no longer a work of defence. The fortifications were more than sixty miles in length; forts and stations at short distances from each other served as quarters for the troops.

But the peace which had been restored by Hadrian, was repeatedly broken by the different tribes of the *Mæatæ*^d on the north of the vallum, and on the south by the incursions of the Brigantes into the territory of the Ordovices. Lollius Urbicus was appointed *proprætor* of Britain by Antoninus, the adopted son and immediate successor of Trajan. The different tribes were not only reduced to obedience during his government, but a new vallum^e was erected near the site of the *prætentura*, probably from *Caer Ridden* on the Forth to *Alchuid* on the Clyde.^f According to an inscription that is still preserved, the whole was finished in the third consulship of Antoninus, the year 140 of the vulgar era; not more than twenty years after the vallum of Hadrian had been completed. It appears from several measurements, that the length of this new fortification was not less than thirty-seven miles. The principal parts were a broad ditch, the rampart, of which the foundation was twelve feet wide, a well paved military way on the south side of the vallum, and eighteen forts or stations at convenient distances from each other. Although almost seventeen hundred years have elapsed since this work was finished, and although it is at present in a very imperfect state, yet the troops by whom it was raised, and the portions allotted to the different divisions, may be determined by inscriptions that are still extant. This monument of the Roman power was achieved by the soldiers of the second legion, together with the vexillations of the sixth, the twentieth legions, and one cohort of auxiliaries. If the respective divisions were complete, which was not always the case, the total number could not have been greater than seven thousand eight hundred men.

A battle fought on the plain of Trevoux in the year 197, made Severus master of the empire, and his reign forms an era in the history of Roman Britain. To diminish the too great power of the prefect, the island was divided into two governments; by this means, it was supposed, acts of flagrant injustice were likely in future to be less frequent, and the knowledge of them more readily communicated to the emperor. The northern government was conferred on Varius Lupus, but he found himself unable to repel the *Mæatæ* and Caledonians. The same person was the first Roman governor in Britain, who had recourse to the dangerous expedient of purchasing with money a temporary peace; the conditions, it may be readily supposed, were broken by the fierce and independent Britons, and the measure led to new and repeated aggressions. It was then that Lupus made known the disturbed state of Britain to the emperor, and counsel-

^c Tacitus, Life of Agricola.—Chapter 22.

^d The *Mæatæ* included all the tribes between the walls of Severus and Antoninus, viz. the *Novantæ*, *Selgovæ*, *Damnii*, *Gadeni*, and *Otadeni*. (Henry's Hist. G. Britain. Book I. Append.)—P.

^e Vallum of Antoninus—Graham's Dike.—P.

^f According to Bede, it terminated at *Alcluyd*. (Camden's *Britannia*, p. 1222.)—It extended from *Waltown*, in the parish of *Carriden*, on the Forth, to *Dunglass*, in the parish of *West Kilpatrick*, on the Clyde. (Sinclair's Stat. Account.)—P.

led him to appear in the province, and to bring along with him a more effective army; the advice was followed; the emperor arrived, punished the insurgents, and restored peace to the island. Having advanced to the Firth of Cromarty, he became acquainted with the habits of the northern tribes, and no earthen rampart was thought sufficient to protect the southern provinces against their incursions. A new sort of defence was chosen, and a wall of stone^a was erected near the vallum of Hadrian. It was not parallel to it in its whole length, as it was determined not to follow the winding course of the vallies, but to carry it across the loftiest heights, and the most abrupt precipices. The work was built of polished stone; the height was twelve feet, exclusively of the parapet, and the breadth, eight; such at least are the dimensions according to the venerable Bede, who lived at the east end of the wall, and in whose time it was in many places entire. The length of the fortifications from *Segedunum*, Cousins-House, on the east, to *Tunnocelum*, Boulness, on the west, is more than sixty-eight English, and less than seventy-four Roman miles. The wall was defended by stations, castles, and turrets; the first amounted in number to eighteen; they were fortified with strong walls and deep ditches; the smallest station could contain a cohort or six hundred men. A town, possessed by Roman and British artisans, was built in the neighbourhood of each station, and the inhabitants were protected by the garrison. The castles, situated in the intervals between the stations, were neither so large nor so strongly fortified, but they were not fewer than eighty-one. The turrets served the purposes of watch-towers, and places for sentinels, who being within hearing of each other, could convey any intelligence along the line in a short time.^b

Such was the wall of Severus, which Spartian, the historian of the emperor, calls the greatest glory of his reign; for nearly two hundred years, it proved an impassable barrier to the incursions of the fiercest tribes; during the greater part of a thousand years, it served as a quarry for all the towns and villages that were built near it; its ruins, imperfect as they are, cannot at present be viewed without admiration.

This stupendous work was raised by the second and sixth legions. The Roman soldiers, not less skilled in the useful arts than in the arts of war, were never degraded, in time of peace, by indolence and its consequent vices. The military ways of the Romans were afterwards the principal roads of the Anglo-Saxons, and Roman stations became the most important of the Anglo-Saxon towns.

It has been conjectured that the population of the island at the time of the first invasion of the Romans, was not greater than three hundred thousand individuals. The conquest may have been favourable to the progress of civilization, but the sway of the Romans was cruel, and their government unjust. The Britons could not rise to

^a The Wall of Severus—called also the Picts' Wall.—P.
^b According to the *Notitia Imperii*, the wall was guarded by the following troops.
 Twelve cohorts of infantry, consisting of six hundred men each, 7200
 One cohort of mariners in the station at Boulness, 600
 One detachment of Moors, equal probably to 600
 Four wings of horse, at the lowest computation, four hundred each, 1600
 10,000

^c *Pandects*, xxiii. tit. ii. N. 38, 57, 33.

the dignity of *consulares* or *præsides*; they were thus excluded from the highest offices, and it was unlawful for the strangers, by whom these offices were held, to marry natives, or to purchase land in the island.^c

But the British soldiers in the Roman armies were distinguished for their bravery. It might be shown that there were at least fifteen thousand six hundred men, or twenty-six cohorts of British infantry, under the emperors. The number was, in all probability, much greater; and some of the cohorts, it is certain, received as the reward of their courage, the title of invincible;^d it was not, however, the policy of Rome to suffer them to serve in their native land.

Corn was not the least important of the British products, and merely on account of that article, the island was of value to the Romans. It is now impossible to determine the quantity it afforded, but it was perhaps more considerable than is commonly imagined. While Julian commanded in Gaul, the Franks, Saxons and Alemanni passed the Rhine, devastated the country, laid forty towns in ashes, and carried the inhabitants into captivity. Julian compelled them to restore the prisoners, but they might have perished from hunger, had not the granaries of Britain furnished a plentiful supply. Their wants were thus relieved, and corn was afterwards imported from England to sow their lands.^e

The towns are enumerated, but not described, in the different itineraries. They were of different denominations, viz. the colonial, the municipal, the Latian, the stipendiary, and others to which less important privileges were attached. The number of the first sort was nine; there were only two of the second, and no additions were made to them, because the inhabitants were not subject to the imperial statutes, because they had the power of appointing their own magistrates, and because they possessed the rights of Roman citizens. Ten cities claimed the Latian right; they might be governed by native magistrates, who claimed the freedom of Rome at the expiration of their office. The number of stipendiary towns was equal to twelve.

The conquered countries were divided by the Romans into districts or *civitates*, each of which had its chief town, the seat of a senate, whose jurisdiction extended over all the inhabitants of the *civitas*. Gaul was divided into a hundred and seventeen districts; Britain probably into thirty-three. Honorius, when he gave up the island, addressed his letters to the *civitates* or states of Britain, and warned them to provide for their own safety.

However barbarous Britain may have been when it was visited by Julius Cæsar, it could not have continued a Roman province during four hundred years without participating in Roman civilization. The beneficent influence of Christianity succeeded the debasing superstition of the Druids; the injustice of barbarians was exchanged for the laws and civil institutions of the Romans. The legisla-

^d The British troops in the Roman armies were:—
 Ala Britannica Milliaria.
 Ala Quarta Britonum in Egypto.
 Cohors Prima Ælia Britonum.
 Cohors Vigesima Sexta Britonum in Armenia.
 Britannici sub Magistro Peditum.
 Invicti Juniores Britannici } inter Auxilia Palatina.
 Exculcatores Juniores Britannici }
 Britones cum Magistro Equitum Galliarum.
 Invicti Juniores Britones intra Hispanos.
 Britones Seniores in Illyrico.
^e Zosimus, III.

tive triumphs of that celebrated people were not less wonderful than their warlike achievements; by the latter, distant provinces were conquered; by the former, discordant tribes were blended into one nation. The laws imposed on conquered states, and the rights and privileges conferred on the inhabitants, produced an union which could not be effected by military occupation. The towns of the Britons were no longer begirt with forests; their houses consisted no longer of wood. The conquered strove to imitate the conquerors; cities were built after the model of those in Italy, and were adorned with market-places, temples, mosaic pavements, porticos, and baths. The emulation of the inhabitants was not confined to the useful, it extended to the liberal arts. Juvenal alludes to the skill of the Britons in one department of letters, certainly not of the highest order—"Gallia caudicosa docuit facunda Britannos." Martial bears witness that the Roman poets were read in the island—"Dicitur et nostros cantare Britannia versus." The more respectable authority of an historian indicates the similarity of institutions, customs, and manners in the two countries—"Ita ut non Britannica sed Romana insula censeretur."^a

The names of two people^b appear for the first time in history during the fourth century; it ought not, however, to be inferred that the older writers were ignorant of their existence. The Scots inhabited Ireland, which, in the Roman language, is indifferently called *Hibernia* and *Scotia*. The frequent intercourse between the British mountaineers and the Irish, and the numerous emigrations from the one country to the other, led in time to a community of names. The Scots possessed the north-western coasts and archipelago, while the Picts dwelt in the east on the confines of the German Ocean; their respective territories were divided by the chain of the Grampian hills. The Scots, living in the mountains, became hunters or wandering shepherds; the Picts, having a more fruitful soil, and a more level country, cultivated the ground, and built solid habitations, of which the ruins still remain. When united together for an irruption into the south, they lived on friendly terms, and their two chiefs, one of whom resided at the mouth of the Tay, and the other between the lakes of Argyll, joined their standards; on other occasions, their friendship was interrupted by mutual depredations.

A small territory in the Cimbric Chersonesus was peopled in ancient times by the ancestors of the English.^c More important tribes have been exterminated or subdued, but a different fate was reserved for a horde of freebooters, too insignificant to be mentioned by Tacitus with the other inhabitants of Germany. The descendants of the same tribe are now the people of England, the citizens of the great republic in the new world, and the settlers in the vast colonial possessions of Great Britain.^d

Ptolemy of Alexandria is the first writer who mentions the Saxons; they inhabited, before the middle of the second century, the western side of the Cimbric Chersonesus, between the Elbe and the Eyder, and three small islands at the mouth of the Elbe. The same people formed at a later period the great Saxon confederation which extended from the Elbe to the Rhine. The Angles, supposed to have been originally a tribe of the

Suevi, the bravest of the German nations, settled in the Cimbric Chersonesus, and inhabited the present duchy of Sleswick. Their name is still preserved in the district of Anglen, between Flensburg and Sleswick. The Jutes, a tribe of the Getæ, inhabited the extremity of the Cimbric Chersonesus, which from them is still called Jutland. Of these, the Saxons were the dominant tribe; the two others were in a state of subjection.

No conquest was more complete, and none more durable in its effects, than that of England by the Saxons. Disastrous at first, as the inroads of savages must ever be, destructive of Roman civilization, and bringing back the country into the barbarism from which it had been saved, the advantages that followed seemed uncertain and remote.

The chiefs or powerful men among the Saxons erected separate sovereignties in the island; new divisions were thus formed, and the old abolished. This period of English history is generally styled the time of the heptarchy; the name, although incorrect, is sanctioned by usage. It is necessary, however, to allude to the error, otherwise the limits of the petty kingdoms might not be readily understood. It may perhaps be better to describe these states according to the dates of their foundation, than their vicinity to each other.

Kent, the first Saxon kingdom in Britain, was not more extensive than the county of the same name. It was founded about the year 455, and the new settlers embraced Christianity, while the rest of their countrymen in England adhered to their pagan superstitions.

The second state, or the kingdom of the South Saxons,^e comprehended the two counties of Sussex and Surrey. Ella and his three sons, accompanied with a band of adventurers, landed in the year 477, but he did not make himself master of his small sovereignty until the year 490, when he took the town of Anderid, in the midst of the forest of Anderida. Chichester, the *Regnum* of the Romans, and the *Caer Cei* of the Britons, appears to have been the capital of his kingdom. It was converted to Christianity in the year 678, and contained at that time about seven thousand families.^f

Cerdic arrived in England five years after the taking of Anderid, but several years elapsed before Wessex or the kingdom of the West Saxons was founded. It consisted of the counties of Hants, Berks, Wilts, Somerset, Dorset, Devon and part of Cornwall. It was not until the year 519, after a destructive battle had been fought at Charford on the Avon, that the Saxons, under Cerdic, established themselves in the country. The Isle of Wight, one of the earliest conquests of the West Saxons, was made over to the nephews of the conqueror.

Erkenwin assumed the sovereignty of Essex or the East Saxons in the year 530; he ruled over Essex, Middlesex and part of Hertfordshire. The princes of Essex acted no distinguished part during the heptarchy; they appear to have been dependent on the kings of Kent.

The Angles, allured by the success of the Saxons, left their native land. They settled in the country on the north-east of the Saxons; Uffa was chosen their leader, and from him, his successors were styled *Uffingas*. Cambridge, Suffolk, and the Isle of Ely, made up the

^a Gildas, chap. 5.

^b The Scots and Picts.

^c The Saxons, Angles, and Jutes

^d Manners and Customs of the Anglo-Saxons, by Sharon Turner.

^e Called also the Kingdom of Sussex.

^f Bede's Ecclesiastical History. Book IV. Chap. xiii.

kingdom of the East Angles;^a St. Edmund's Ditch separated it from Mercia. Dunwich, the capital, is the *Domnoc* of the venerable Bede; although now covered by the sea, it was a place of considerable importance during the Roman and Saxon periods.^b

But the Angles were not confined to East Anglia; the greater number of them invaded the north of England, and founded the kingdom of Bernicia, which extended from the Tyne to the Forth. Ida, their leader, built a castle on a lofty promontory, and called it Bebbanburgh in honour of his wife Bebba; and the same place is now better known by the name of Bamburgh.^c

Deira, the third Anglian kingdom, was bounded on the south by the Humber, and on the north by the Tyne. The Britons in that part of England were subdued in the year 560 by Sella, an Anglian chief, but the country retained the name of its early inhabitants. Thus the kingdoms of Bernicia and Deira stretched from the Humber to the Forth, and from the eastern to the western sea.

Crida passed the Humber in the year 586, defeated the Britons on the coast, and extended his conquests to the heart of England. The powerful kingdom of Mercia comprehended the counties of Huntingdon, Rutland, Lincoln, Northampton, Leicester, Derby, Nottingham, Oxford, Cheshire, Salop, Gloucester, Worcester, Stafford, Warwick, Buckingham, Bedford, and part of Hertford. Sometimes called the kingdom of the Central Angles, it derived the more common name of Mercia from being contiguous to Wales and all the other Saxon kingdoms.

Thus it has been shown that eight separate states were founded in Britain by the Saxons. Bernicia and Deira were often under the same sceptre, and it has been supposed that they formed one kingdom, but some of the others were at different times united under the same monarch. An octarchy denotes the total number of Anglo-Saxon states in Britain; a triarchy the different tribes that subdued the country.^d

The present chorography of England derives its origin from the Saxon period, or to speak more precisely, from the time of Alfred the Great. Certain districts were governed by ealdormen or aldermen, a dignity, which indicated the age of the individuals on whom it was conferred; but when England was afterwards invaded by the Northmen, these persons were styled *jarls*, and the title of earl has been substituted for that of ealdorman. The districts which were thus governed, corresponded in some degree with the present counties, but their limits were not the same. England in the time of Alfred contained only thirty-two counties; Durham and Lancashire formed part of Yorkshire, while Cornwall was united to Devonshire, and Rutland to Northamptonshire; Northumberland, Westmoreland and Cumberland were subject to Scotland. The districts were entrusted by the ealdormen to the care of deputies, who were called shire-reeves, shrieves or sheriffs, the Anglo-Saxon word *shire* being synonymous with the English word *share*, and *reeve* signifying to manage or govern.

In the Norman period, England was enlarged by the accession of Cumberland and Westmoreland; Northum-

berland, exposed to the incursions of the Scots, was little more than a nominal part of the kingdom. Wales was then independent, and it continued so until the time of Edward the First, who defeated the Welsh, abolished the line of their kings, and annexed the principality to the English throne. It was, however, at a much more recent period that the counties in England and Wales were divided according to their present limits. The improvement, if on the whole it can be called one, was not effected before the thirty-fourth year of Henry the Eighth. An act was passed in that year, by which the marches or intermediate lands between England and Wales, were divided anew, or annexed to old counties. The new counties are Monmouthshire, then declared an English county, and Brecknockshire, Denbighshire, Montgomeryshire and Radnorshire in Wales. Additional land was annexed to Gloucestershire, Herefordshire and Shropshire, and also to Cardiganshire, Caermarthenshire, Glamorganshire, Merionethshire and Pembrokeshire.

The districts^e were divided into trethings, trithings or tridings, a division which is still preserved in the ridings of Yorkshire. They were governed by a trithing-reeve, an officer subordinate to the sheriff. Lathes and rapes cannot be correctly defined; they were probably less than trithings; it is certain they were larger than hundreds. Kent is still divided into lathes, and Sussex into rapes.

The divisions into hundreds and tithings have been attributed to Alfred; it is more probable they were established by the Saxons at an earlier period, at least they corresponded with the *pagi* and *vici* into which the country of the ancient Germans was divided. The hundreds were so called because they contained a hundred free families. It has been maintained that they depended not on the population, but on the size of the district; it is difficult, however, to reconcile this opinion with the fact that the most populous districts in the Saxon times were divided into a greater number of hundreds than more extensive but less fruitful tracts. The tithings, as their name imports, were the tenth part of a hundred.

The northern counties were not made up of hundreds, but of wards and wapentakes. They were called wards because the inhabitants, in ancient times, were obliged to watch and ward against the incursions of their enemies. Wapentake and weapon-take are evidently synonymous. Cumberland, Westmoreland, Northumberland, Durham and Lanarkshire are divided into wards; Yorkshire into wapentakes.

It has been seen that the present divisions of England may be traced to Saxon times; the names of ancient offices and titles of honour are referrible to the same period; the greater number of towns, burghs and villages retain, with little variation, the names which were given them by the Saxons. The Anglo-Saxon language resembles the English in its structure, grammar, and idiomatic expressions; the genius of the two languages is the same, and the one may be considered the daughter of the other. A knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon enabled an English philologist^f to analyze all the indeclinable parts

mined by the sea, almost the whole of the town has been washed away. In 1801, it contained only forty-two houses, and 184 inhabitants (Shoberl's Suffolk.)—P.

^c Bamborough Castle—fourteen miles S. E. of Berwick.—P.

^d Turner's History of the Anglo-Saxons. Vol. i.

^e Counties.

^f Horne Tooke.

^a East Anglia.

^b Dunwich was formerly one of the most flourishing maritime towns in England. It had attained its highest prosperity in the reign of Henry II. In the reign of Edward III. after it had considerably declined, it had eleven ships of war, thirty-six merchant ships, and twenty-four fishing vessels. It had eight parish churches, of which only one remains. As it is situated on a high loamy bank, continually under-

of speech in his own language, and to trace them to their source. The studies of Johnson rendered him ill fitted for his laborious task; of the only language that could guide him in his researches, the author of the dictionary was ignorant; his etymologies are generally erroneous; his ingenuity is exhausted in fanciful and unmeaning analogies. Few men could have raised such a monument from so imperfect materials; but it may be doubted if the dictionary has tended to render Englishmen more familiar with the power and copiousness of their vernacular tongue.^a

A Saxon king, it might seem, had enough to do to conquer his enemies, to give laws to his subjects, and to administer justice among them in person; but Alfred found time to cultivate letters, and some of his writings are still extant. "In three pages of Alfred's Orosius," says Sharon Turner, "I found seventy-eight words which had become obsolete in English out of five hundred and forty-eight, or about one-seventh. In three pages of his Boethius, I found a hundred and forty-three obsolete out of six hundred and sixty-six, or about one-fifth. In three pages of his Bede, I found two hundred and thirty obsolete, out of nine hundred and sixty-nine, or about one-fifth. The difference in the proportion between these and the Orosius proceeds from the latter containing many historical names."^b Not more than one-fifth part of the words in the Saxon are now wholly obsolete in English; this must not be considered a mere assertion; the truth of it has been proved, in some degree at least, by Mr. Turner. The English language is principally derived from the Saxon, and it has been remarked that the idiomatic phrases, those on which the characteristic differences of languages depend, are the same in the one and in the other. It need not, therefore, excite surprise, that the English writers, who are the most remarkable for the purity of their style, abound most in Saxon expressions.

It could not have been foreseen, at the time Britain was inhabited by the civilized Romans, that the island was to be conquered by an obscure, nay, almost an unknown tribe, much less that works comparable to those of the best periods of Greece and Rome, were to be written by Englishmen in a language handed down to them by northern barbarians.^c

It is of importance, in examining the historical geography of a country, to ascertain its population at any remarkable epoch, such as that of the Saxons in England; but, unfortunately, this can seldom be done with any thing like precision. It is not easy to find the truth in the conflicting statements of different writers. The low state of the arts, the wretched condition of the ancient Britons, the destructive wars with the Danes, and above all, the division of the people into two classes, the servile and the free, must have had a tendency to perpet-

^a Want of candour was no part of Johnson's character; he acknowledged his errors, and declared that, if he lived to give another edition of his dictionary, he would adopt Mr. Horne's derivations. *Diversions of Purley*, edited by Taylor, vol. i. page 154.

^b *History of the Anglo-Saxons*, Appendix, chap. iii.

^c "Of sixty-nine words which make up the Lord's prayer, there are only five not Saxon, the best example of the natural bent of our language, and of the words apt to be chosen by those who speak and write it without design. Of eighty-one words in the soliloquy of Hamlet, thirteen only are of Latin origin. Even in a passage of ninety words in Milton, whose diction is more learned than that of any other poet, there are only sixteen Latin words. In four verses of the authorized version of Genesis, which contain about a hundred and thirty words, there are no more than five Latin. In seventy-nine words of Addison, whose perfect taste preserved him from a pedantic or con-

uate barbarism, and to check the progress of population; but the total number of inhabitants is supposed to have been less than, in all probability, it really was. It has been affirmed that the population was not much greater in the time of the heptarchy than before the Roman invasion, and much less than in the flourishing times of the Roman government.^d This opinion rests chiefly on the evidence afforded by Domesday-book, but according to that register, there is reason to believe that the population of the Anglo-Saxon counties amounted to a million and a half.^e Those, however, who have examined the work most minutely, do not think it contains the data on which such a calculation can be made. Some of the northern counties are omitted, and many of the burgesses are not mentioned. Thus, there were not more than seventy in Yarmouth, fifty-two in Buckingham, ten in Bristol, then an important town, nine in Bedford and five in Sudbury. No notice is taken of Winchester; the monks and almost all the secular clergy are not enumerated. If allowances are made for these defects, the result can only be considered an approximation. There is besides another source of error, and one which is not always taken into account; in other words, it may easily be shown that the population was greater in the time of the Saxons than at the time the register of Domesday was taken. It is necessary to calculate the effects of the exterminating wars waged by the conqueror, of whole districts withdrawn from cultivation, of the signal punishments inflicted on the northern rebels, and of the almost total depopulation of their country.

The Saxons were a barbarous people; the superior genius of a few was obscured in the general darkness. The example of the venerable Bede was not imitated; his moral worth and intellectual attainments formed a bright contrast to the greater number of the clergy, and to the greater number of his countrymen. The thanes or powerful men were more ignorant than the peasantry of the present day; none of them could read or write, and when something like a better change was effected by the authority, encouragement and remonstrances of Alfred, many regretted that they had neglected letters in their youth, believing it impossible for a man of mature age to learn to read or write. Kings put a cross to charters as a substitute for their signature, and Alfred's brothers were as ignorant as the rest of their countrymen.^f "It is known," says Alfred, "how few of the clergy can read; still they are the only instructors of the people."

The arts during the same period indicate a rude state of society; the home trade was almost confined to the necessaries of life, while foreign commerce was very insignificant; some encouragement, however, must have been given to it, for a merchant who went three times over sea in his own craft, might become a thane.^g It

strained preference for any portion of the language, we find only fifteen Latin. In later times the language has rebelled against the bad taste of those otherwise vigorous minds, who, instead of ennobling their style like Milton, by the position and combination of words, have tried to raise it by unusual and far-fetched expressions. Dr. Johnson himself, from whose corruptions English style is only recovering, in eighty-seven words of his fine parallel between Dryden and Pope, has found means to introduce no more than twenty-one of Latin derivation." *History of England*, by Sir James Mackintosh, page 82.

Robertson and Hume have been submitted to a similar analysis, and the result is equally satisfactory.

^d Henry's *History of Britain*, vol. iii. p. 319.

^e According to Sir James Mackintosh, to 1,700,000.

^f Asser's *Annals of Alfred*.

^g Wilkins, *Leges Saxonicae*.

sometimes happened that abbots and influential persons requested their friends on the Continent to send artificers in different articles, that could not be made in England. Goat-skin coverlets and pillows stuffed with straw were the luxuries of the rich, and ladies of rank bequeathed their bed-linen to their daughters. The dialogues of Elfric throw some light on the occupations and trades of the Saxons.

It is incorrect to judge of their private houses from the comparative magnificence of their churches. The former were small, ill built, and not comparable, in point of cleanliness at least, to those that are now inhabited by the lower orders in England. Alcuin, an Anglo-Saxon abbot of immense wealth, but more remarkable as being one of the few great men of his day, lived in a mean and dirty house. Some costly articles, such as gold cups and silver goblets, adorned the rude halls in which the feasts of the nobles were held; but the wealthiest amongst them never enjoyed the luxuries which are now common to every peasant. The collective happiness or misery of a people is proportionate to their knowledge or ignorance; the diffusion of wealth or luxury, if a term can be used, the meaning of which varies in different states of society, is one effect of the progress of knowledge, and not the least beneficial, as it extends to all orders and ranks of men.

The nobles passed their time on their estates; the tedium of indolence, and the absence of social or intellectual enjoyment, was relieved by manly exercises. They shared with their sovereign in the pleasures of the chase; to excel in this amusement was the boast of princes. The imperfect state of cultivation, the great extent of waste lands, and the number of wild animals, some of which are now extinct in England, were favorable to an occupation which accorded well with the manners and habits of the Saxons.

The people, it has been already observed, consisted of two classes, the free and the servile; among the former, there were distinctions of rank; among the latter, different degrees of slavery; the cottars, bordars, and villeins were subject to a bondage more or less oppressive. Some were liberated by the benevolence or generosity of their masters; others might amass property, and purchase their freedom; still, it is certain, the servile population was much more numerous than the free. The influence of the church and the new religion might have tended to soften the rigours of slavery; in latter times, it was unlawful to alienate a christian from the land.^a Extraordinary changes take place in the affairs of nations; if a slave now lands on the English shores, at that moment he obtains his freedom, but formerly the English themselves were sold as slaves in a barbarous and revolting manner.^b

The authority of the Anglo-Saxon princes was limited by the nobles, and in some measure dependent on the national councils. Not arbitrary, but more of a mixed

character, their government resembled that of the ancient German kings, as it is described by Tacitus. Their monarchies were elective rather than hereditary, at least the person in the regular order of succession was often omitted, and another appointed by the wittenagemot. If the power of the kings was afterwards increased, and if the government tended towards a despotism, it may be attributed to the force of circumstances, and to the genius of the individuals who reigned, not to any change in the character of the people.

Antiquarians have traced the commencement of parliaments to the time of the wittenagemot. Although the members of the latter may have been the most influential persons in the country, it was widely different from either house of parliament; it resembled more the assemblies of the ancient Germans. The institution of juries is commonly believed to be of Saxon origin, and it is not unlikely that the germs of them existed in the time of Alfred. He is said to have put a judge to death for condemning a criminal, when the jury were in doubt about their verdict, "for when in doubt, they ought rather to save than condemn."^c

The virtue of chastity was common to the Anglo-Saxon women with those of ancient Germany. Bede bears his testimony to the virtue of his countrywomen, and Tacitus deploras that what could not be effected by the refinement of Greece and Rome, was accomplished almost by the natural instinct of barbarians.

The subjugation of England by William the Bastard, Duke of Normandy, is the last territorial conquest that has taken place in the west of Europe, but it was by no means the most complete of its kind; it was insufficient, it has been already seen, to destroy the language, much less the memory of the Saxons. The destinies of the vanquished were changed; reduced to slavery, they could not engage in the military profession, or exercise command. Soldiers left their castles or forts, and repaired to towns, where they subsisted, not by arms, but by toil and servile employments. In these towns, it has been shown,^d the embers of Roman civilization were preserved, and it is certain the rise of the conquered class corresponded with the decline of the feudal nobility, the descendants of the conquerors. Historians narrate the victories of the Normans, and affirm that the destruction of the Saxons was the inevitable consequence of the battle of Hastings. A people are not so easily destroyed; their inveterate hatred against their oppressors is cherished by the memory of past independence; the state of England under the Normans has with more truth been compared to that of the Greeks under the Turks. In both countries many lost their lives in the vain attempt to regain their freedom.

The history of England from the year 1066, the epoch

^a An Anglo-Saxon noble gave his lands to the church, and the teams of men are enumerated with the teams of oxen. Turner, vol. iii. appendix.

^b The custom of selling their nearest relations for their own advantage, is said to be natural to the people of Northumberland. Malm. lib. i. chap. 3d. "There is a seaport town called Bristol, opposite to Ireland, into which its inhabitants make frequent voyages on account of trade. Wolfstan cured the people of this town of a most odious and inveterate custom which they derived from their ancestors, of buying men and women in all parts of England, and exporting them to Ireland for the sake of gain. The young women they commonly got with child, and carried them to market in their pregnancy, that they might bring a better price. You might have seen with sorrow, long ranks of young persons of both sexes and of the greatest beauty, tied together with ropes,

and daily exposed to sale: nor were these men ashamed. O horrid wickedness! to give up their nearest relations, nay their own children to slavery. Wolfstan knowing the obstinacy of these people, sometimes stayed two months amongst them preaching; by which in process of time, he had made so great an impression on their minds, that they abandoned their wicked trade, and set an example to all the rest in England to do the same." Henry's History of Great Britain. Gregory the Great pitied the fate of the English (Angles), who were often sold as slaves at Rome, and was thus led to think of converting the islanders.

^c *Miroir des Justices*, p. 297. See also Turner's History, Book v chap. 6.

^d Savigny's History of the Roman Law, translated by E. Cathcart Esq. See Mr. Cathcart's valuable notes at the end of the volume.

of the conquest, to 1215, the date of the great charter, appears to confirm these remarks. It consists of changes in the government, insurrections among the people, domestic spoliation and foreign warfare; many, who escaped these calamities, were cut off by famine or pestilence.^a William made over the land to seven hundred of his officers, who divided it among their followers; from this period, the vanquished classes are placed too much out of view; it has been ascertained, however, that superstition was not the sole cause of the long and violent quarrel between Henry the Second and Archbishop Becket, and that Englishmen are indebted to others besides the barons for the charter of their liberties.^b

The seeds of freedom began to spring during the long reign of Henry the Third; but, marked as it was with faction, the consequence of weakness, and with civil war, the result of turbulence, the advantages were of short duration. The following reigns of the Edwards have been considered "the most glorious in the English annals." It is almost unnecessary to remark that one of these kings was inhumanly murdered by his own subjects, and that during a period of not less than a century, the nation enjoyed scarcely ten years of peace. The reigns of the Edwards may be admitted to have been remarkable for the splendour of victories, the pomp of triumphs, and the acquisition of distant territories, not so on account of the happiness of the people. Military renown was a poor recompense for the waste of war, a decreasing population, and a neglected husbandry. The laws indicate the wretched condition of the inhabitants. "Every able-bodied man under sixty years of age, not having sufficient to live on, being required, shall be bound to serve him that doth require him, or else shall be committed to gaol, till he finds security to serve. If a servant or workman depart from service before the time agreed on, he shall be imprisoned. If any artificer take more wages than were wont to be paid, he shall be committed to gaol."^c

Thus superior and inferior skill were equally rewarded, but the severity of these statutes was increased by the 34th Edward the Third. According to that act, if a labourer or servant flee to a town, the chief officer shall deliver him up, and if he depart to another county, the letter F shall be burnt on his forehead. Those who affect to admire the past, might do well to examine it more minutely, to convince themselves of the poverty and ignorance of the people, and the unjust oppression to which they were subject, to estimate correctly the barbarism of such enactments as have been mentioned, and the collective misery co-existent with them. The tendency of industry and civilization is to diffuse happiness among every order of the community, to increase the enjoyments which wealth commands, and to diminish the evils to which poverty is exposed. The mental and moral education of the lower orders, which has lately been put into practice, is conducive to the same end; it tends, besides, to strengthen government. Knowledge does not breed discontent; ignorance, on the contrary, seems the parent of anarchy: the whispers of faction have overthrown despotisms; the loudest clamours of sedition are sounded in vain in a free country. If the perfec-

tion of government consists in giving the governed, with the least possible inconvenience, all the advantages of which it is susceptible, it is difficult to conceive how this can be effected in any other way than by successive meliorations. It is thus that something like a self-correcting principle has been introduced into the English constitution, preventing the permanence of abuses without endangering the government, and leading to improvement without the bad effects of innovation, and to the redress of wrongs without the calamities of revolution. These reflections arise naturally from considering what England was in the fourteenth century, and what it is at present.

The subject may be more minutely examined. It is impossible to read the history of the middle ages without being convinced that famines, of which happily but an imperfect idea can be formed in modern times, were among the greatest evils to which nations were liable. The progress of commerce, of agriculture, and, above all, of knowledge, have enabled men to elude these wrathful dispensations. Land is much more productive than formerly, and the excess of one country is transported with ease to supply the deficiencies of another. The famines, so common in past times, are now unknown; but the extent of country over which they once raged, their duration, and the misery occasioned by them, are historical facts that cannot be disputed. No man recollects any calamity so great as that which befel England in the reign of Edward the Second; for three years the people groaned under the double scourge of pestilence and famine. Parliament fixed in vain the maximum price of provisions in 1315; the measure was of no avail, every article of consumption sold at a much higher rate, and it was found very difficult on some occasions to obtain bread for the king's table, a circumstance from which some notion of the scarcity may be inferred.^d The misery, however great during 1315, was more than doubled in the following year; the early crops were spoiled by incessant rains, and the late never arrived at maturity; the want of nourishment, and unwholesome food, produced dysenteries and epidemic disorders among the people. The maximum prices were repealed, and wheat rose until the quarter was sold for ten times its usual value. The cravings of hunger constrained the poor to feed on roots, horses, dogs and the most loathsome animals; instances more revolting to humanity are mentioned by cotemporary writers; many expelled from their castles the crowds of domestics, with which they usually swarmed, and these unfortunate men, without the lawful means of support, were necessitated to live by the plunder of their former patrons or their inoffensive neighbours. Every county was infested with bands of robbers, whose desperate rapacity was not to be checked by the terrors or punishments of the law. The inhabitants were forced to combine for their own protection, association was opposed to association; summary vengeance was inflicted by each party, and the whole country presented one great theatre of rapine, anarchy and bloodshed.^e

Little more than thirty years after these distressing events, the inhabitants were exposed to other evils more destructive in their effects. The great pestilence which

^a Not fewer than twenty-one dearths and famines are enumerated by Howe between the years 1069 and 1325.

^b Thierry's History of the Norman Conquest.

^c Anderson's Chronological Account of Commerce, vol. i. p. 204.

The following were the prices fixed by parliament. A fat ox fed

with corn, 24s.; not fed with corn, 16s.; a fat cow, 12s.; a fat hog, two years old, 3s. 4d.; a fat sheep, unshorn, 1s. 8d.; shorn, 1s. 2d.; a fat goose, 2d.; a fat capon, 2d.; a fat hen, 1d.; two chickens, 1d.; four pigeons, 1d.; twenty-four eggs, 1d.

^e Lingard's History of England, volume iii.

passed from Asia to the banks and Delta of the Nile, and onwards to the Greek Islands, Italy, and other countries in Europe, was as general and fatal as any recorded in history. Mr. Hume supposes it to have cut off about a third part of the people in England; Dr. Mead makes the number amount to more than a half, and adds, correctly, that the time of the pestilence was the period of the greatest mortality which has been recorded in English history. According to Stowe, those who died in the metropolis were not fewer than fifty thousand. No calamity of a similar nature has taken place in England since the year 1665; how remote then are the chances of them in modern times! The intercourse with the east, nay, with every region of the globe, has decupled, and the seeds of disease, it might be reasonably inferred, are now more easily transported. The contrary, however, is the fact, and it is mainly owing to the precautions taken by European governments, and to the diffused comforts which the people enjoy.

The proportion between the population and the surface of the country indicates, with some exactness, the intellectual advancement of the inhabitants. The population and the extent of England are now known; it is interesting to determine what the former was in past times. According to the fifty-first of Edward the Third, a poll-tax of four-pence was imposed in the year 1377, on lay persons, male and female, of fourteen years of age and upwards; mendicants only were excepted. An official return of those who paid the tax in each county, city and town, is fortunately preserved.^a The persons who paid it appear from the subsidy roll to have been equal to 1,367,239. If the number of mendicants and those who eluded payment could be discovered, the total population might at once be known; for it may be assumed, with sufficient accuracy, that all the individuals under fourteen years of age are less numerous than a third part of the inhabitants. If the poor, the young under fourteen years of age, and the omissions in collecting the tax, be supposed equal to one half of the original number, the lay population amounted to 2,050,858. But the beneficed clergy, who contributed, were equal to 15,229, and the non-beneficed clergy to 13,932. Wales is not included in the roll, but it is supposed to have contained as many inhabitants as Yorkshire, or 196,560. Cheshire and Durham had their separate receivers; the first is ranked with Cornwall, 51,411, and the second with Northumberland, 25,213. All the inhabitants of England and Wales were thus equal to 2,353,293.^b This approximation is more probably above than below the truth, for there is reason to believe that Wales was less populous than Yorkshire, Cheshire than Cornwall, and Durham than Northumberland. Although the data may be defective, they indicate, with sufficient accuracy, a very scanty population, the result of an imperfect state of society, foreign wars, domestic dissensions and pestilential diseases.

A great council appears to have shared the legislative authority with their sovereign, after the Norman conquest. These councils were founded on feudal principles, and the royal revenue was derived from the royal demesnes, and by dues from military tenants. The king might receive extraordinary contributions from the great-

er vassals, but the consent of the latter was implied, and it was their duty to consult with the inferior vassals, of whose rights and interests, as their lords, they were the natural protectors. The changes by which these great councils merged into parliaments have been obscurely handed down to posterity.

The earliest records from which the existence of the house of commons can be regularly traced, date from the twenty-third year of Edward the First. It then consisted of seventy-four knights from all the counties in England, except Chester, Durham and Monmouth, and of a varying number of members from cities, towns and burghs, amounting sometimes to two hundred and sixty, and at other times to not more than a hundred and seventy-four.^c The variation may be attributed to the negligence, remissness or partiality of the sheriffs, to whom the returns were committed, and also, but in a less degree, to the little value attached to a seat in parliament in early times, for the inhabitants of different places were allowed, at their own request, to discontinue the exercise of the elective franchise. Not long afterwards, other places, either because they had risen into importance, or, in some instances, for other reasons, obtained the right of sending members to parliament. It is proved by constitutional writers, that all who possessed landed or moveable property, ought to be bound by no laws, more particularly, ought to be liable to no taxes, to which their consent had not been obtained by means of their representatives. "This is so much the case," says Mr. Hallam, "that if, in examining the map, we find any sea-port, as Sunderland or Falmouth, or any inland town, as Leeds or Birmingham, which has never enjoyed the elective franchise, it may at once be concluded that it has emerged from obscurity since the reign of Henry the Eighth."^d

If it were necessary to trace the parliamentary history to an earlier period, it might be shewn from the innovations attributed to Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, that the towns had risen before the year 1264, from the degradation in which they were placed after the conquest. So great a change was accomplished in two centuries; during that interval, the citizens and burgesses availed themselves of the poverty of their lords to purchase important privileges. The latter received a common rent, and they exacted no longer individual services; the guilds were incorporated by charters, and the towns were entitled to levy tolls, hold fairs, enact laws, and elect their own magistrates. Much about the same time, gifts were substituted for tollages, or in other words, the towns obtained the right of taxing themselves.^e It is of little consequence if, in some corporate burghs, the elective right was vested in freemen, for all those who were assessed for their landed or moveable property, were included in that class; the great distinctions between freemen and the other inhabitants of towns, are of later origin.

Although the government of Henry the Eighth was practically despotic, he is entitled to the merit of having extended the elective franchise. The whole of Wales, the counties of Chester and Monmouth, and even the towns of Berwick and Calais, were for the first time represented; thirty-three new members were thus added to the commons. Edward the Sixth erected fourteen

^a This record was laid before the Antiquary Society in 1784, by the late Mr. Totham of the Paper Office.

^b Chalmers' Domestic Economy of Great Britain, page 15.

^c Hallam's Constitutional History of England, chap. xiii.

^d Hallam, chap. xiii.

^e Lingard's History, chap. v.

burghs, and restored ten that had discontinued their privileges. Mary added twenty-one, Elizabeth sixty, and James twenty-seven members. Five Cornish towns were represented at the accession of Edward the Sixth, and twenty-one at the death of Elizabeth. The oppressive jurisdiction of the stannary courts, and the burdens to which some of the inhabitants in Cornwall were subject, were not the real causes of such innovations. The practice of conferring the elective right on insignificant places and small burghs, commenced in the reign of Edward the Sixth, a practice occasioned by the importance of the popular part of the government, and adopted by the crown to increase its influence. It is remarkable that the inhabitants of the town and county of Durham were overlooked during this long period; the right was first conferred on them in 1673; the cause of their exclusion cannot be easily explained; it has been attributed to the prevalence of popery.^a Liability to local and perhaps general taxes, was without doubt the principle on account of which the elective franchise was first conferred, but it has been confined in later times to particular classes, such as burgage tenants, the freemen of corporations, or the magistrates of towns.

The aristocratical branch of the government^b may be traced to the Norman conquest. This assembly was composed of the barons and prelates, who were afterwards styled the greater barons in the great charter. Baronies by tenure or in fee are of a later date, but at a still later period, the introduction of barons by writ, produced an important change in the character of the assembly. Notable persons, not possessing any previous title, were summoned by John to attend his first parliament. Similar writs of summons became more frequent in the succeeding reign, for the same policy was adopted by Henry the Third to strengthen himself against the more powerful lords. The crown might withdraw the writs of summons, so that the privileges of the titular barons depended on their subserviency to the court. If a person be now summoned to parliament, he and his heirs are ennobled, but this improvement was first introduced in the sixteenth century.^c

The period, from the accession of Edward the First to the death of Edward the Third, cannot be considered unfavourable to the development of constitutional principles. To carry on the expensive wars in which the last of these monarchs was engaged, heavy taxes were necessary; these were borne by the people, but they do not appear to have been backward in asserting their rights—their money was not spent in vain. The utility of frequent parliaments was acknowledged as the only means of amending errors, redressing grievances, and abolishing abuses. It was ordained in the preceding reign that a parliament should be held at least once a year, but as the power of those who made the law might be called in question, the same statute was again solemnly passed and faithfully observed. Although Edward the Third may

have wished, he had not the power to break it; his wants rendered him dependent on the aids of his people, and more than seventy writs were issued for assembling parliament in his fifty years' reign.

Purveyance had become an intolerable hardship; the right of exacting it extended to the royal suite, which amounted often to more than a thousand persons; it was much curtailed by parliament. The sources of justice were corrupt, and judges were accessible to bribery; to lessen the temptation, the salaries were increased, but their integrity continued doubtful. The French language was the language of the tribunals, but as it was unknown to the greater number of Englishmen, the proceedings of the different courts may be said to have been secret. It was enacted that all informations should be laid, and all pleadings delivered in English; a great improvement was thus accomplished.

The celebrated statute of treasons was the greatest benefit that was conferred on Englishmen in this reign. An able writer has shewn that the effect of this law was to weaken the power of oppression in England more than in other countries.^d The light of knowledge began to dawn in the same period. Wycliffe has been styled the "Morning Star of the reformation;" but he lived in too early an age; the spirit of his innovations was not communicated to the people; still the zeal of his followers, and the boldness of the lower orders, broke out in rebellions during the succeeding reign.

Religious edifices are the noblest monuments of the architecture of the period. If it be denied that this art was then carried to a degree of perfection in England, which it has not since attained, it may be admitted that some of the finest structures in the same country were raised in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. As a proof of this remark, it is only necessary to mention the cathedrals of York, Winchester, Salisbury, Lichfield, and many others. It is said that not fewer than a hundred and fifty-seven abbeys and other religious houses were founded in the reign of Henry the Third.^e Rome encouraged those who engaged in such works, and for its vain promises, men consented to spend their time, their labor and their wealth. The associations which the sanctuary recalled, accorded with the feelings of the age, and these it was the policy of Rome to cherish—the hopes giving rise to enthusiasm, and the fears terminating in superstition, both alike fatal to truth, but well adapted to strengthen the power of the church.^f

These buildings indicate the progress of an important art, and improvement cannot be made in any art or science without communicating something of it to others. Thus, to have clocks for the cathedrals, Edward the Third invited John Uniman, William Uniman and John Lutuyt of Delft to come into England, and granted them the royal protection to exercise their trade in any part of the kingdom.^g Englishmen learnt the art from these foreigners, and a clock made by Richard de Wallingford, abbot

^a Hallam, chap. xiii.

^b House of Lords.

^c History of England, by Sir James Mackintosh, vol. i.

^d Idem. *ibid.*

^e Grose's Antiquities, Vol. i. Preface, p. 32.

^f "Italians, some Greek refugees, Frenchmen, Germans and Flemings formed a fraternity of architects, possessing particular privileges, and obtaining papal bulls for their protection. They styled themselves freemasons, and went from one nation to another, as they found churches to be built (for very many in those ages were everywhere

building through piety or emulation :) their government was regular; and where they fixed near a building, they made a camp of huts. A surveyor governed in chief; every tenth man was called a warden, and overlooked each nine. The gentlemen in the neighborhood, either out of charity or commutation of penance, gave the materials and carriages. Those who have seen the accounts or records of the charge of the fabrics of some of our cathedrals, cannot but have a great esteem for their economy, and admire how soon they erected such lofty structures." Wren's Parentalia, pages 306, 307.

^g Henry, book iv. chap. 5.

of St. Albans in the succeeding reign, is described by a writer who appears to have examined it.^a

The inhabitants of Flanders and the Netherlands had acquired wealth from the sale of their woollen stuffs. The importance of English wool was well known even at this time, and it was the object of government to encourage its manufacture. John Kempe, a celebrated woollen manufacturer of Flanders, accepted the invitation of Edward the Third, and arrived in England in 1331, with his apprentices and workmen; the royal protection was promised at the same time to all weavers and fullers who settled in the island; in consequence, seventy Walloon families came in the same year, and their example was followed by greater numbers in the succeeding years of the reign.

The most remarkable trading companies or rather corporations were the brotherhood of St. Thomas à Becket, afterwards the merchant adventurers, the German merchants of the Steel Yard, and the merchants of the Staple. It was the object of the last to purchase the staple commodities of the kingdom, viz. wool, wool-fells, leather, lead and tin, and to convey them to certain towns, called *staple towns*, that the king's customs might be collected with ease, and that foreign merchants might know where to find the commodities. One of the regulations was very impolitic; natives might be employed in collecting and conveying the different articles, but no Englishman was allowed to export them. The people complained that the trade was in the hands of foreigners, and it is certain the greatest merchants then in England were merchant strangers. Those of Lombardy were perhaps more opulent than the rest, but their usurious practices brought popular vengeance more than once upon them. The Caurisimi of Rome, according to Matthew Paris, charged sometimes sixty per cent. interest. Edward the Third acknowledged a debt of 12,000 marks to the Bardi of Florence, and granted them a present of two thousand pounds for their good services.^b However imperfect or unjust the traffic of these foreigners may have been, the country was really improved by them; they shewed others the road to wealth, and they made Englishmen acquainted in some degree with the civilization of Italy.

The tumults in the next reign^c indicate the rising importance of the people, and the decline of servitude, if not of vassalage. To enforce the arbitrary laws which had been enacted, required all the energy of Edward; the task was too great for his feeble successor. The excesses of the people are sometimes the consequences of oppression and injustice on the part of their rulers; in the reign of Richard, the brutality of a tax-gatherer was the signal of a revolt, which endangered the throne, and levelled with the ground the finest buildings in London. The doctrines of Wycliffe were perhaps the remote causes of the same event; it was difficult to restore Christianity to any thing like its original

^a "Being now an abbot, and possessed of wealth and leisure, he resolved to leave a lasting monument of his ingenuity, art and learning. With this view he fabricated, at a great expense of money, thought and labour, a most wonderful clock, which represents the revolutions of the sun and moon, the fixed stars, the ebbing and flowing of the tides, and an almost infinite number of other lines and figures. When he had finished this wonderful piece of mechanism, to which, in my opinion, there is nothing in Europe comparable, he composed a book of directions for managing and keeping it in order, that it might not be ruined by the ignorance of the monks." *Leland de Scriptoribus Britannicis.*

purity, without exposing the corruptions that prevailed. Preachers embraced the new opinions, and although they could not correct the abuses of the church, they roused the people to an insurrection pernicious in its immediate consequences, but productive afterwards of great good.^d

An evil resulting from the feudal system called forth the interference of the legislature; although it was not abolished until a later period, it may be mentioned as descriptive of the state of society. Numerous dependents wore the badges or livery of their respective chiefs, engaged in their quarrels, and participated in their crimes. The chieftains were often at enmity with each other, and the people obtained protection not from the government, but from the lord whose cause they espoused; improvement was thus retarded, the useful arts were neglected, and the indolence and predatory habits of the nobility were imitated by their followers. It might be urged that the first peer, whose title depended on letters patent, was created by Richard the Second, but it was merely by the remote consequences of the innovation that the feudal system was weakened.

The solemn deposition of Richard the Second by the parliament, may indicate the dependence of kings on their subjects; but this violent proceeding has been quoted to extenuate other measures of the same kind; it is to pervert history to suppose it was in any way brought about by the people. In feudal times and in so rude an age, their influence is very insignificant, and it might with equal truth be imagined that the Russian people and not the Russian nobles had the guilt or merit of putting the emperor Paul to death.

The period from the year 1399 to 1455,^e is eventful in foreign wars, brilliant victories, civil discord and national calamities. The doubtful title of Henry the Fourth gave rise to a civil war that was not terminated before the battle of Bosworth. In these contests, the wealth of England was wasted, and her nobles slain. It is uncertain whether the conquests by which Henry the Fifth extended his dominions, or the defeats by which they were lost, were more fatal to the prosperity of the country. Men's minds were averted from the arts of peace by wars abroad; civil dissensions, religious persecution and the rancour of faction at home produced the same effect.

The church had reached the acme of its power in the same reign;^f persecution then began, and William Sautre was the first Englishman whose life was sacrificed on account of his religious belief; not long afterwards, many others obtained the honour of martyrdom. Henry, when Duke of Lancaster, was suspected of favouring the Lollards, but no sooner had he ascended the throne, than he became their persecutor; as a subject, he embraced the popular opinion; as a king, he thought differently; the church might strengthen his authority, or sanction his usurpation.

On one occasion, the commons instead of granting supplies, advised the king to seize the temporalities of the

^b Anderson's History of Commerce.

^c Richard the Second.

^d John Ball, the orator of the lawless multitude, preached from the following text:—

"When Adam delved and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?"

^e From the accession of Henry the Fourth to that of Henry the Seventh.

^f That of Henry IV.—P.

church; the lands of the clergy, they insisted, amounted to a third part of the kingdom; they contributed nothing to the exigencies of the state; their great wealth made them neglectful of their duties. The advice was followed in a later reign.

The exigencies of the sovereign were at least attended with one advantage; they made him more dependent on the commons. It is impossible to read the history of the period, without being convinced of the increasing importance of the lower house, perhaps the only real advantage that was obtained in these troublous times. Acts of misgovernment, unjust exactions on the part of the prince, or prodigality of the public money, seldom escaped the vigilance of the commons, and they were not slow in remonstrating against them. Sir John Tiptot, speaker of the lower house, in a speech addressed to the throne, told Henry the Fourth, that the country was impoverished by excessive impositions, while nothing was done for its benefit. Ninety-six towns and castles, he added, were taken in Guienne; Ireland was almost lost, although much money had been expended in its defence; the Scottish marches were in a bad condition, the rebellion still continued in Wales, the sea was ill guarded, and the merchants ruined; the expenses of the household were excessive, and the court was filled with worthless men.^a

Such remonstrances were sometimes of little use; in the present case, Henry had the address to obtain from the same parliament a considerable sum; although many other instances might be mentioned, in which the same means were unavailing, still the effect of remonstrances continually urged, and of grievances always exposed, was to obtain concessions from the sovereign, and supplies from the people, to raise and strengthen the fabric of English liberty.

It is of consequence to mark the changes that have taken place in the representative system. Before the year 1429, every man, who possessed a freehold, however small, had a vote in electing a knight of the shire; but in the same year, the law was changed, and the small freeholders were deprived of their rights. It is declared in the 8th Henry VI., "that the knights of the shire shall be chosen in every county, by people dwelling and resident in the same counties, whereof every one of them shall have free land or tenement to the value of forty shillings the year, at least, above all deductions." He who possessed a freehold estate of forty pounds a year, was qualified to become a knight of the shire, or the member of parliament for a county. As to the towns and burghs, the electors were directed by the writs to choose the most fit and discreet freemen, resident amongst them, and none others upon any pretext.

The business of parliament was not so well understood in those times as at present, elections were not conducted with the same regularity, and the powers of sheriffs

were less accurately defined. Thus, it is certain, the number of members in the lower house was indeterminate, while the sheriffs appear to have exercised a discretionary power; they sent precepts sometimes to more, sometimes to fewer towns and burghs in the different counties. It happened also that precepts were sent to some places, from which no returns were made, and that others excused themselves on the plea of poverty.

To regulate the proceedings at elections many laws were made, but these were not always effectual. From the year 1411 to 1447, the knights for the large and populous county of York were not returned by the freeholders, but by the attorneys of a few nobles.^b

The corruption of sheriffs was one of the most common abuses that prevailed in those times. By different statutes it was enacted, that if a sheriff made a false return, he was liable to a fine of £100 to the king, and of a like sum to the injured party, and to a twelvemonth's imprisonment.^c It has been well observed that this severity was necessary, for if a member was deprived of his seat by a false return, the sessions of parliament were so short, that he had little chance of recovering it.

It was not imagined, in this period, that members for parliamentary influence, or for the distinctions and emoluments to which parliament leads, should devote their time and attention to the public service, and, in particular, to the interests of the counties and towns, of which they were the representatives. Coeval with the origin of the lower house, was the practice of remunerating its members, a practice not sanctioned by any enactment, but founded rather on a principle of justice. These wages, if they may be so called, varied at different times; they were fixed, in the reign of Edward the Third, besides travelling expenses, at four shillings a day for a knight of the shire, and at two shillings for a citizen or burgess. It is almost unnecessary to add that no member disdained to receive his hire. This custom enables us to explain why the inhabitants of so many places considered the elective privilege a burden, and prayed to be excused from exercising it.^d

It would have been of little avail to pay members for their services, if they were prevented from performing them. It was therefore declared unlawful to arrest them for debt, or any civil obligation, during the sitting of parliament; but the same rule was not then applicable to the intervals between the sessions; the extension of the privilege was of more recent origin.

The greatest improvement in the parliamentary history of the period related to the manner in which laws were framed. In early times the commons presented petitions at the end of every session; of these, some were either granted or refused by the king, while the consideration of others was deferred to a future period. In the reign of Henry the Fifth, in place of petitions, acts were drawn up by the judges before the close of the session. Such

^a Parliamentary History, A. D. 1406.

^b Henry's History of Great Britain. Book v. chap. 3.

^c "Diverse sheriffs of the counties of the realm of England, for their singular avail and lucre, have not made due elections of the knights, nor in convenient time, nor good men and true, returned, and sometimes no returns of the knights, citizens, and burgesses, lawfully chosen to come to the parliament; but such knights, citizens, and burgesses, have been returned, which were never duly chosen, and other citizens and burgesses than those which, by the mayors and bailiffs, were, to the said sheriffs, returned. And sometimes the sheriffs have not returned the writs which they had to make of elections of knights

to come to the parliaments; but the said writs have imbisied, and moreover, made no precept to the mayor and bailiff, or to the bailiff or bailiffs, where no mayor is, of cities or boroughs for the election of citizens, or burgesses to come to the parliament." 23d Henry VI. chap. 14.

^d In the longest parliament of Henry IV. the members sat one hundred and fifty-nine days. "The two knights of the shire for Cumberland received £80, 8s.; because, besides the one hundred and fifty-nine days that the three sessions lasted, they were allowed wages for forty-two days for their three journies." Henry, book v. chap. 3. It is needless to make any comment on the rate of travelling; the three journies may now be performed in less than ten days.

a power, it was evident, could not long continue in such hands; accordingly, in the succeeding reign, bills and acts were framed by the commons, and one enacting clause sufficed for as many as were passed in a session, or in other words, for all those to which the lords agreed, and the king gave his royal assent.

The rights of the subject were held by a very precarious tenure, the people had often no control over their king, and so long as he was independent of them, the latter were exposed to all the evils of a despotic government. There were so many illegal methods of obtaining money, and these were so frequently resorted to, as to preclude the necessity of having recourse to the commons. Thus, Edward the Fourth having expended all the supplies that were granted by parliament, obtained a benevolence or free gift from his subjects, by which the wealthiest amongst them were impoverished.

The dispensing power of the king was incompatible with the existence of a free community; it enabled a monarch to dispense with the most solemn laws, and to extend a like indulgence to individuals and whole classes of men. Wilkins mentions an extraordinary instance of the exercise of this power; to gain the support of the clergy, Edward the Fourth, in the second year of his reign, allowed them to violate every law, and the judges were prohibited to try or punish an archbishop, bishop or clergyman for treason, ravishing women, or any other crime.^a The same power, it may be added, was exercised in many other instances, although perhaps never in so iniquitous and absurd a manner.

The English government resembled a military despotism during the worst period of the civil wars. The high constable was vested with a commission, by which he might put any subject to death secretly, and without the salutary constraint of legal forms. If he wished to discover the guilt or innocence of those whom he condemned, (an act of humanity by no means necessary), recourse was had to the torture. A monument of these times is still preserved in the tower of London; the rack, called the Duke of Exeter's daughter, was invented by that nobleman when he filled the office of high constable.

The arts of peace, and the varied resources of commerce and industry, were almost destroyed in the confusion of wars and civil discord. The population, there is reason to believe, was much reduced; many towns were changed into villages, and others were levelled with the ground. A great part of the country was laid waste, agriculture was neglected, and arable lands were converted into pasturage. It would be incorrect, however, to imagine that nothing was gained from these contentions; they were the precursors, perhaps the causes of the rapid improvements, that may be dated from the accession of Henry the Seventh. An important change took place in the condition of the great body of the people; if the decline of slavery commenced before the reign of Henry the Third, the period of the civil wars determines the decline of villeinage.

The country having been desolated with numerous armies during the greater part of a century, these armies, and the others that engaged in the expeditions against France, consisted of the lower orders; but, according to the genius of feudalism, the villein, who was released

from the soil, and who fought in the cause of nobles and kings, could not afterwards be degraded by servitude. The church was unfavourable to bondage even in the darkest times; in England the laws and the nature of the government were equally against it; but the principal cause of the change must be attributed to the progress of knowledge. While the spirit of commerce created a greater demand for labour, which could be only supplied by a scanty population, it was discovered that the hired labour of freemen was far more productive than the forced toil and the habitual indifference of slaves.

The changes that had been made from time to time in the currency, tended to create embarrassment and confusion; the higher orders suffered most from the evils springing from such causes; the revenue of the king, and the incomes of the nobles, remaining nominally the same, were necessarily diminished. Commerce had to contend not merely against impolitic decrees and unwise regulations, the arbitrary power of princes was destructive of its true interests; in those days the king could not only press mariners and soldiers, but artificers of every kind, and all the merchant vessels of his subjects. Thus, Henry the Fifth, preparatory to his first expedition against France, pressed all the ships of twenty tons and upwards, in all the English ports. Letters of marque, so common in that period, and frequently obtained on false pretences, by making it unsafe even in time of peace, to transport commodities, increased the risks to which trade was unnecessarily exposed. But in spite of every disadvantage, the most absurd regulations, an arbitrary government, and the unjust system of reprisals, commerce must have been even then a road to wealth. Norburg and Hende lent large sums of money to their sovereign, and adorned the capital with public buildings. Sir Richard Whittington rebuilt Newgate, the library of the Grey-Friars, and part of St. Bartholomew's hospital, and also founded a college of priests in the street that is still called College Hill. William Canning was five times mayor of the trading city of Bristol; some notion of his wealth may be formed from the fact that he paid Edward the Fourth a fine of 2470 tons of shipping.

The population of England in 1485 may be vaguely estimated by comparing the imperfect census in 1378, with one equally loose in 1588; and although nothing more than a rude approximation can be obtained, it is certain the total number of inhabitants was not more than three millions; it was distributed in a very different way from what it is at present; Lancashire and Cumberland were ill peopled, while London and Westminster did not contain more than sixty or seventy thousand persons.

The germs of liberty are sometimes the consequences of civil wars and revolutions, but they did not spring after the contests between the roses. Freedom was repressed, if not crushed, by the Tudors; the moral degradation of the people, the result of political servitude, was completed by Henry the Eighth, and faint indications of a better spirit are all that can be discovered in the long and glorious reign of Elizabeth. The ancestors of the English had left them a noble example; on some occasions they had maintained their rights by constitutional means; at other times by resisting despotic acts. Their children submitted to a new line of kings, and instead of extending the privileges which their fathers had won,

^a Wilkins, Concil. tom. iii. p. 583.

they relinquished them without a struggle. English historians have endeavoured to account for this change in the character of their countrymen. "It is now the generally received opinion, that to the provisions of that reign (viz. of Henry the Seventh) we are to refer the origin, both of the unlimited power of the Tudors, and of the liberties wrested by our ancestors from the Stuarts: that tyranny was their immediate, and resistance their remote consequence; but he must have great confidence in his own sagacity, that unaided by subsequent events could, from a consideration of the causes, have foreseen the succession of events so different."^a It is not perhaps inaccurate to attribute immediate submission to some of the measures in that reign, and remote resistance to others of a very different character. To account for the former, much must be ascribed to the state of England at the time; a reaction must have certainly been produced by the civil wars; the memory of the contest was fresh in the minds of many; the evils attending it were perhaps exaggerated by their interests or their fears; at all events, repose seemed an invaluable blessing.

The aristocracy had always resisted the power of the crown, but their order had been much reduced in the wars between the rival houses of York and Lancaster. So many peers had been attainted, so many had fallen in battle or perished on the scaffold, that thirty only could be summoned to the first parliament of Henry the Seventh; it was not his policy to increase them; accordingly, not more than thirty-eight temporal peers attended the first parliament in the succeeding reign. It must also be allowed that the contests tended to weaken liberty, and to strengthen faction. The blood of the nation had been shed, not for their rights, but for the claims and pretensions of their rulers. Henry the Seventh ascended the throne, and although his real title was that of conquest, no attempt was made on the part of the people to secure their rights, none to redress grievances, or abolish abuses. It is well remarked by Lord Bolingbroke, that all the power with which the victory of Bosworth had invested the earl of Richmond, was employed in having the act of settlement so framed that his right to the crown might appear inherent in himself and independent of parliament. The wisdom of his policy in other respects may be doubted; he ruled more like the leader of a faction than the king of a great nation; every opportunity was taken to elevate the Lancastrians, and to humble the Yorkists. The reign was by no means a quiet one, but the people took no part in the disturbances; the opposition sprang from factions, of which the puppets were a Simnel and a Warbeck. An insurrection was no sooner repressed, a rebellion no sooner subdued, than the king strengthened his authority, and arbitrary power was gradually established; the danger to which the kingdom had been exposed, seemed to justify every new encroachment, until the first of the Tudors ruled by force, and the nation, too desirous of tranquillity, suffered its rights to be taken away one after another.

The measures, of which the remote result was favourable to freedom, were of a very different nature; some of

them related to the internal government of the country; commerce was increased, agriculture was improved, and the useful arts were encouraged and promoted. The taxes imposed in this reign, however oppressive, were borne by the people; the treasures amassed by the king, however unjustly acquired, were much greater than any of which mention is made in a former age. Wise laws were enacted, and it is comparatively of little consequence to whom the merit of them may be due. All the effects of the king's policy were probably unknown at the time; while he humbled the peerage, the condition of the middling and the lower orders was improved; but it was not thought that they could become at a future period a more formidable enemy than the aristocracy to arbitrary power. The personal services of the tenants were now commuted into rents, and much about the same time the nobles were allowed to alienate their lands; the means were thus acquired by the commons of increasing their property and influence in the state.^b

It is impossible, in a work of this nature, to enter into details on any part of English history; still it might be considered an omission to take no notice of the Court of Star Chamber, which is commonly supposed to have had its origin in this reign. It is not indeed imagined that it then existed in all its iniquity; the jurisdiction of the tribunal was gradually extended. Had the purposes, for which it was first instituted, been always adhered to, it might have been more deserving the praise which has been bestowed on it by Bacon; many deviations had been made in his time, and if there were no reasons to suspect his commendation, it was necessary at least to place its proceedings wholly out of view, to consider what it might have been, or even what it was in the reign of Henry the Seventh. The inherent vice of the court, if it may be so termed, was manifest in its construction. The judges were the chancellor, the treasurer, and the lord privy seal; they might claim the assistance of a bishop, a temporal lord of the king's council, and the two chief justices. The judges, it might be urged, were afterwards altered, still they were always confined to the members of the council; they became more numerous, but not more independent. It may be right to observe that the encroachments of the Star Chamber were for a time restrained by the bishops; they appear to have possessed considerable influence, and they exerted it in mitigating severe penalties.^c The power of the court, it is equally true, was greatly increased by Cardinal Wolsey, then chancellor of England, and archbishop of York. It assumed an almost indefinite jurisdiction in cases of offences, and it could inflict any punishment short of death; fine and imprisonment were the earliest, perhaps the most frequent; the pillory, whipping, branding and cutting off ears became common in later times; hands and noses were cut off in the reign of Elizabeth.^d If subject to salutary and wise regulations, the method of punishing by fines, may not be liable to serious objections; but it never has been maintained that the fines imposed by the Star Chamber were either proportionate to the offences, or inflicted for the purpose of preventing them. It became customary to impose fines that were wholly ruinous to individuals, and the judges partici-

^a Fox's History of James the Second.

^b Letters on the History of England by Lord Bolingbroke.

^c Hallam's Constitutional History of England.

^d Idem, chap. 8.

pated in the ill-gotten wealth, a temptation too great perhaps for ordinary virtue to resist in any age, particularly under the dynasty of the Tudors.

The influence of the Star Chamber may be traced in some parts of the English law; the court did not exist in all its rigour before the time of the Stuarts; to enumerate all its proceedings in the reign of Charles the First, all the unjust decisions that were pronounced, and all the cruel punishments that were inflicted, might fill a volume. Thus a tribunal, which had been originally instituted to restrain the lawless power of the nobles, and to prevent the recurrence of crimes that had been too often committed with impunity, became gradually subversive of freedom, and extended its oppressive jurisdiction over every class of the community.

The reign of Henry the Eighth, inasmuch as it is connected with the reformation, forms an era in English history; it may therefore be necessary to state succinctly his religious creed and that of his subjects; in reality, it differed less from Catholicism, than is commonly imagined. The creed that was finally imposed on Englishmen by the monarch, is contained in the law of the six articles, which are confirmatory of the Catholic faith. It was the boast of Henry, that he retained the religion of Rome, after having shaken off the supremacy of the Pope. According to the first article, there remains no substance of bread and wine in the sacrament of the altar after the consecration, but under the forms of bread and wine, the natural body and blood of Christ. According to the second, the communion in both kinds is not necessary to the salvation of all persons by the law of God. Thirdly, priests may not marry by the law of God. Fourthly, vows of chastity ought to be observed by the law of God. Fifthly, the use of private masses ought to be continued, since they are agreeable to God's law, and men derive great benefit from them. Lastly, auricular confession is expedient and necessary, and ought to be retained by the church.

It was not until the reign of Edward the Sixth, while the Duke of Somerset was protector, that the actual reformation took place in England. It was then that prayers to saints were declared superstitious, and that masses, dirges and prayers in a foreign tongue, were prohibited. To write or speak against the dispensation of the sacrament in both kinds was made unlawful by act of parliament, the liturgy of the church of England was introduced, and the statute of the six articles was repealed. In this drama, the king and the nobles were the principal actors; it may be inferred that the people were not ripe for the change, because insurrections broke out in many parts of the country, and because it was easy in the next reign, to bring back the nation to its ancient faith.^a The Pope, it is natural to suppose, might have been more compliant; his refusal was certainly a deviation from the usual policy of Rome, but one for which the state of Europe sufficiently accounts.^b The power of Charles the Fifth continuing on the ascendant in Italy, Clement the Seventh concluded a treaty with him on the most advantageous terms; the latter obtained the great object of his desire; the Medici were restored, and Tuscan liberty was lost. The taking of Genoa, and the

destruction of the French army in Naples, compelled Francis to submit to the league of Cambray; Henry was deserted by his allies, and the Pope sacrificed the interests of the church to those of his family. If a different policy had been pursued, the separation from the catholic church might have been retarded; to prevent it from ever taking place, was beyond the power of any English monarch or any Roman pontiff.

Vanity and presumption were as conspicuous in the character of Henry, as cruelty and ungodly passion; these may have been the immediate causes of the rupture, but the wealth of the church increased the resources of the king, and rendered him independent of his people. Never had so much been gained by the crown from the confiscations that followed subdued rebellions, as from the suppression of monasteries. The clear yearly revenue was rated at £131,607, but, according to Bishop Burnet, it amounted to ten times the sum; although the last sum may have been overrated, the other, it is certain, was much too low; besides, it is well known to have been the practice of the courtiers to undervalue the estates, that they might purchase them on easy terms. The king, it is said, was advised to divide the abbey lands, and to make them over *on easy terms* to the nobles and gentry; if they were bound, it was argued, by the ties of private interest, there could never be a lasting reconciliation with the court of Rome. The soundness of the argument was made evident in Mary's reign, for although her parliaments exhibited the most perfect obsequiousness in all matters relative to religion, they could never be made to consent to the alienation of the church lands. The justice or injustice of Henry the Eighth's conduct has been maintained by different writers according to their protestant or catholic views. These lands escheated not necessarily to the crown because the authority of the pope was denied; but the seizure of them, it is asserted, was a violation of private property; there is some difference, however, between the property of individuals and of corporations; the one is considered more sacred than the other.^c The justice of the measure may be called in question, but the advantages of it cannot be reasonably doubted. The weakness and almost total extinction of the nobility accounts for the despotic sway of the Tudors; to strengthen the aristocracy, therefore, was to raise a barrier against farther encroachments; now, with a few exceptions, all the great English families rose first into notice in the time of Henry the Eighth; the weight of their influence was thrown into the opposite scale; it became adverse to tyranny. Independently of this high consideration, much benefit resulted from the diffusion of property; in those days the English nobles were given to profuse hospitality, they now encourage the liberal and the useful arts. Many of the church lands had been left by pious persons on condition of performing masses for their souls, or other ceremonies, which, although sanctioned by the church, are deemed superstitious. The necessary consequence of such property remaining in such hands, was to promote idleness and mendicity, to encourage ignorance, and to check improvement by an obstinate adherence to antiquated customs and erroneous opinions.

^a Essay on the English Constitution, by Lord John Russell.

^b This sentence, and the following, doubtless refer to the Pope's refusal to annul the marriage of Henry with Catharine of Spain. The VOL. III.—NO. 56

preceding, as it now stands, to the reign of Edward VI.; but it might equally apply to the suppression of the monasteries by Henry VIII.—P.

^c The question has been ably treated by the learned Mr. Hallam.

If Henry the Eighth was tyrannical, parliament put the seal of its authority to the laws which confirmed arbitrary power. The first part of the reign is distinguished by the persecution of heretics, the last by the murder of catholics; in short, no man's life was safe, who believed more or less in matters of religion than the monarch prescribed. If the king wished to repudiate his queen, parliament condemned her on the most unjust and frivolous pretexts. If any man eminent for learning or virtue incurred the royal displeasure, he was put to death, but without any violation of the forms and ceremony of law. The people could not contend against the impetuosity of the prince, and the abject complacency of parliament. The king threatened to cut off the heads of refractory commons, and the threat silenced the loudest murmurers. To levy an oppressive tax, archbishop Morton used an unanswerable argument; the merchants who lived sumptuously were informed that their wealth was evident from their expenditure; those who lived frugally, it was urged by the same person, must have amassed great sums by economy; both were forced to contribute. On one occasion, an attempt to raise a sixth on the goods of the laity, and a fourth on those of the clergy, was resisted; the commissioners were recalled, and the project was abandoned.

Queen Elizabeth had the merit of having first firmly established the protestant religion; in the reign of the same princess, England rose to a state of greatness, of which there had been no parallel in past times. It is doubtful if there ever was a greater queen in any other country; it is certain she was superior to English sovereigns in the art of ruling. In her reign, England became the guardian of the protestant faith, the mistress of the sea, the scourge of Spain, and the mediatrix of the factions in France. The nature of the government, however, was very different from the present. The vague jurisdiction of the Star Chamber extended to whatever was not cognizable at common law. The established church was guarded by the high court of commission for ecclesiastical affairs; it punished with equal severity the catholics on the one side, and the puritans on the other; boundaries were assigned to faith, and men were commanded to believe particular tenets and speculative doctrines. The right of printing was not only a monopoly, but the favored few who enjoyed it, were restrained by a most vigilant censorship. The importation of foreign books was prohibited, and some individuals were punished for having the works of catholics in their possession. Judges allowed themselves an extraordinary latitude, and they could do so with impunity, while the semblance of juries was all that had been preserved, and while fines and imprisonment awaited every juryman who gave a verdict according to his conscience. The royal proclamations had the force of statutes, and such a power seems incompatible with the existence of a mixed monarchy. While these acts of injustice were committed, many persons, it is undeniable, were not forgetful of ancient rights, and if they were unsuccessful in maintaining them, it must be attributed to the profound dissimulation, the consummate wisdom, and the extreme popularity of the queen. It required all the address of Elizabeth to maintain the prerogatives of which she was so jealous; had a less able hand guided the government, the people might have vindicated their rights. Knowing the danger of having recourse to parliaments, the queen practised the utmost economy; in truth, the new institutions were subversive of

the old, both could never be amalgamated, and the surest method of establishing the former, was to destroy the latter; this, however, no English sovereign was able to accomplish. To grant subsidies, which could not be raised by any other method, to propose statutes, which were not binding without their consent, to examine grievances, and to obtain their redress either by law or by petition to the crown, were the acknowledged privileges of the commons. The speaker claimed the freedom of debate and free access to the royal person at the commencement of every session. The history of the house of commons brightens the darkest pages in the reign of Elizabeth. The queen, some commons insisted, was amenable to the laws; others connected the cause of the puritans with that of freedom. Morice wrote a letter from his prison to Lord Burleigh, expressing his sorrow for having offended the sovereign, but avowing his resolution to strive, while life should last, for freedom of conscience, public justice, and the liberties of his country.^a Every member in the house of commons, it was admitted, is deputed to serve not only his constituents, but the whole kingdom, a power never possessed by the parliaments of Paris, or by the deputations of the estates of other countries; it resulted in England from the election of non-resident burgesses. The commons wrested the right of monopolies, which the queen termed "the brightest gem in her crown, the fairest flower in her garden."

On the whole, if the people submitted to encroachments on their rights, it may be attributed to the illustrious qualities of the princess, to the wisdom and talents of her advisers, to such men as Cecil and Bacon; but in the latter years of her reign, the nation became weary of her sway, and the spirit of freedom revived in England.

If the affection of a people for their rulers depends in any degree on the prosperity of their country, the nation had good reason to be satisfied with their queen; never before was the commerce of England so important, its shipping more numerous, or industry more flourishing. The trade to Russia and Persia was, perhaps, the first indication in England of that commercial enterprise, which forms so striking a feature in the history of the sixteenth century. The earliest commercial treaty between the English and the Ottomans was concluded in 1575, and the former derived many advantages in consequence of their direct communication with Turkey. Thus, the Venetians and Genoese, who had enjoyed almost exclusively the carrying trade of the Levant, were gradually supplanted by the English.

The establishment of an East India company was the last, and in its results, the most important event during the reign. The original stock of a company destined to govern territory, more extensive and more populous than the Roman Empire, amounted only to £72,000; their first fleet consisted of four ships under the conduct of Captain Lancaster.

The bigoted Philip and his sanguinary general contributed most to increase the internal resources of England. The Flemish manufacturers who fled before the Duke of Alva, were received by Elizabeth with kindness; they peopled the deserted streets of Canterbury, Maidstone, Norwich, Southampton and other towns, and they taught the inhabitants to manufacture important articles. It

^a Lodge's Illustrations.

was in the same reign that the ingenious Mr. Lee erected a loom of his own invention for weaving silk stockings. Knives were first made in London about the year 1563; it is almost needless to add that English cutlery is now superior to any other. The first pin manufactory was established in the reign of Henry the Eighth, but it was not until the year 1566 that Elias Grouse, a German, taught the English the art of making needles.

The activity which pervaded every branch of the government under Elizabeth, was communicated to individuals; navigators sailed round the globe, and voyages of discovery were made with success. But it cannot be disputed that commerce might have been extended, and the wealth of the country increased, had the queen followed a different policy; her avarice and importunate favorites prompted her to grant monopolies and exclusive privileges, injurious to an industrious community.

It would be incorrect to follow the example of different writers, and to attribute the origin of the poor laws to a statute passed in this reign. It is declared in the forty-third of Elizabeth that the aged and infirm should be maintained, but that the strong and healthy should be made to work. To provide for all the old and infirm poor, although practicable, may not be expedient; it tends to weaken individual exertion, and to render men indifferent about providing for the wants of old age. It is needless to add that to furnish employment to all the healthy and robust is in ordinary cases beyond the power of government. The English system of poor laws, so different from that of most countries, may be attributed to two causes, the necessity of providing for the poor at the Reformation, then deprived of the charitable aid and the means of subsistence, which they received from the monasteries, and the rapid and great increase in the price of provisions, which took place in the sixteenth century. The act of 1601 is framed with all the deliberation and wisdom for which the ministers of Elizabeth were so remarkable, and if it had been strictly enforced, the condition of the poor in England might have been little different from that of those in Scotland. It was thought afterwards obligatory on the government to find work for all the unemployed, and in dear seasons to make up to those who had families, the difference between the price of bread and the rate of wages. The meaning of the act was thus perverted by the ignorance or unfitness of overseers, and by the method in which relief was afforded.

It might be important to determine the gradual extension of the poor laws, but unfortunately little information can be obtained from the imperfect state of the earlier records. The number of persons receiving parochial aid is said to have amounted about the close of the seventeenth century to as large a portion as at present, or to one-tenth of the population of England and Wales.^a The money collected for the purpose cannot be ascertained; it is not supposed, however, to have been much less than £1,000,000. The long peace and the reduced rate in the price of provisions which followed the treaty of Utrecht, were favourable to the diminution of poor rates. The average amount of them during the three years ending with 1750, did not exceed £700,000. Considerable additions were afterwards made; in 1760 they amounted to £985,000, and in 1770 to £1,306,000. The contest with the North American colonies, the decline of

trade, and the suspension of undertakings, in consequence of the want of capital, or the higher rates of interest, which capital commanded, raised them in 1780 to £1,774,000. The increase in the population, and the war that followed the French revolution, rendered the price of bread so disproportionate to that of labour that the poor rates rose in 1800 to £3,861,000, in 1810 to £5,407,000, and in 1812, to £6,680,000. The average amount of them since the year 1812 has been equal to more than £6,000,000.

Workhouses are in some degree peculiar to England, for they are not, as in other countries, hospitals or houses of correction. The plan of them was established about a century ago, but it was greatly extended by an act, which is commonly called Gilbert's act, from the name of the member by whom it was proposed. The object of the act was to obtain from a number assembled in the same place, all the advantages resulting from a minute division of labour, and a joint disbursement; magistrates were authorized to consider any large workhouse as a common receptacle for the poor throughout an area of twenty miles. However just the theoretical principles on which these institutions were founded may appear, much practical advantage has not been derived from them: the inmates are not separated according to their ages, their habits, or their pursuits, and the division of labour has not been carried to any degree of minuteness.

It is the effect of the poor laws to lower the rate of wages, and although they were productive of no other evil, that alone renders them hurtful to the labouring classes. It appears from the following table that the wages of the country labourers, estimated according to the quantity of provisions they may command, have continually decreased from the year 1742 to 1808.

Periods.	Weekly Pay.		Wheat per quarter.		Wages in Pints of Wheat.
	s.	d.	s.	d.	
1742 to 1752	6	0	30	0	102
1761 to 1770	7	6	42	6	90
1780 to 1790	8	0	51	2	80
1795 to 1799	9	0	70	8	65
1800 to 1808	11	0	86	8	60

Although other articles, particularly clothing, have fallen in price since the middle of the last century, the condition of the lower orders, it is certain, has not been improved. The fluctuations in the price of grain, so common in England, are more severely felt by the same class than by any other of the community. In dear seasons, the mortality among those whose means of subsistence are partly derived from poor rates, is generally greatest.

Years.	Average price of Wheat per quarter.		Deaths.
	s.	d.	
1801	118	3	55,965
1804	60	1	44,794
1807	73	3	48,118
1810	106	2	54,864

The great objection against the poor laws, consists in the inducement which they offer to the lower orders to contract early marriages, and to depress their circumstances

^a Clarkson on Pauperism.

by an undue increase of their numbers: in other respects, their effect is very pernicious; the poor are exposed to the petty tyranny and oppression of parish officers, and gradually habituated to all the vices that spring from humiliating dependence. It may be urged that whatever tends to make them less dependent on parochial relief, tends also to improve their condition. This is best done by removing the taxes, which are imposed on the necessities of life, and which, from that very circumstance, press most heavily on the poor. Such taxes may be compared in their effects to dear corn; in other words, the increased rate of wages by no means corresponds with them. Much good has already been accomplished by taking away the taxes on different articles; those on beer and sea-borne coal, which have been lately repealed, are likely to be followed with similar results. The increasing resources of the country, and a judicious plan of taxation, may lead in time to many improvements, if not to a total change, of the present system.

Adhering to the order of time, it may be necessary to remark that the law by which every parish was obliged to repair its own roads by four days' labour of its inhabitants passed in the reign of Philip and Mary. The first act on a subject so much connected with the prosperity of a country, dates from the reign of Edward the First, but it was intended to prevent robbery rather than to improve the means of communication from one place to another. The roads in several districts were amended, in conformity to different laws of Henry the Eighth. It was not, however, before the reign of Charles the Second, that turnpikes were established, and that those who reap the advantages of easy conveyance, were made to contribute the necessary expense. The rate of travelling in those days was very slow; Cowley having retired from the *hum* of men, invited his friend Sprat to enjoy the pleasures of St. Ann's Hill, and informed him that he might sleep the first night at Hampton Town; the same journey may now be performed before breakfast. When at a later period, Sir Francis Wronghead was chosen member of Parliament, great preparations were made for his journey to town, and many accidents happened by the way, all of which were owing to the badness of the roads. A member at present, when there is a call of the house, orders post horses from the next stage, and calculates the hour of his arrival at Westminster.^a

The defeat and dispersion of the armada, was one of the most remarkable events in the reign of Elizabeth. The subsequent war with Spain, and the romantic attempt of twenty thousand volunteers under the command of Norris and Drake, to place Don Antonio on the throne of Portugal, shewed the enthusiasm with which the people were animated. An alarm having been given of a second Spanish invasion in the year 1599, the queen equipped a fleet, and levied an army in a fortnight to oppose it; from this promptness, foreigners formed a very high notion of the resources of England. But if it were necessary to enter into statistical details, it might be shewn that the single county of Lancashire, from the resources of its manufactures and extensive commerce, can now offer a more effectual resistance to an enemy,

^a Chalmers on the Domestic Economy of Britain.

^b Many instances in which old laws were repealed in vain, are to be found in the works of Lingard, Hallam, and other writers.

than the whole kingdom could have done in the reign of Elizabeth.

The Tudor line having presided over the destinies of England, during a period of nearly a hundred and twenty years, ended at the death of Elizabeth. It was succeeded by the Stuarts, a family less skilled in the art of ruling than their predecessors, less conspicuous for their great qualities, and better adapted to adorn a private station, than to govern a kingdom in troublous times. Every one acquainted with English history, must be convinced that very valuable rights were obtained at an early period from different sovereigns; ever since the barons wrested from John the great charter of their liberties, the government, unless that charter had been violated, could never have been a pure monarchy. But in a rude age, government depended more on the character of princes, than on the force of laws; concessions reluctantly made by one king, were little regarded by his more able or more fortunate successor, and the sway of the Plantagenets was milder than that of the Tudors. Institutions subversive of freedom were first introduced and gradually sanctioned, if they were not accompanied with the most pernicious consequences; the ancient laws, it may be recollected, were never repealed; on the contrary, their authority was often asserted in parliament, at a time when their power was of no effect.^b It was evident, however, that the people must either vindicate their rights, which could only be done by preventing regal encroachment, and by making kings subject not superior to the laws, or give up for ever the great work which their ancestors had begun. A family unable to maintain, and unwilling to give up what they considered their prerogative, ascended the throne, when the people were more powerful than at a former period, and when their additional power was not so much the consequence of greater wealth as of greater knowledge. The study of the Greek and Roman authors, which may be dated in England from the reign of Elizabeth, had enabled the higher orders to form better and juster notions on the subject of government. The stern puritans, now acquainted with the abuses of the Romish church, were naturally enlisted in the cause of freedom; their inflexible spirit might have been prognosticated from the first petition that was presented to James on his road to London, and fortunate had it been for his family and the happiness of the kingdom, had he acceded to its terms. But such lessons left little impression on the mind of the king; his learning betrayed his incapacity to govern; his notions of kingly power accorded ill both with public opinion and English institutions. The puritans could by no means admit of a comparison between the regal and the divine government, but according to the sovereign, the one was emblematic of the other, and resistance to either was impious. Such doctrines were avowed by a prince, who had no legitimate right to the throne of England, and although there is reason to believe that he may have possessed a more sacred title, founded on the people's choice, still it is certain he must have despised it for other reasons than that it was contrary to a positive enactment.^c The acknowledgment, more than the exercise of absolute power, gratified the weakness of the

^c "The declaration, which Mr. Hume asserts Elizabeth to have made on her death-bed, intimating her wish that her kinsman, the king of the Scots, should succeed her, is not confirmed by cotem-

prince, but his doctrines cannot be reconciled with the existence of a limited monarchy. They were put in practice by venal judges and an ambitious priesthood. By a sort of sophistry, difficult to understand, it was declared in England, for the first time, that the king's power is of two kinds, a power ordinary, and a power absolute. "He is above the law by his absolute power, and though for the better and equal course of making laws, he do admit the three estates into council, yet this in divers learned men's opinion is not of constraint, but of his own benignity, or by reason of the promise made upon oath at the time of his coronation. Of these two one must be true, either that the king must be above the parliament, that is the positive laws of the kingdom, or else not an absolute king, and I hold it incontrovertible that the king of England is an absolute king."^a The decisions of judges were influenced by this strange doctrine.

The clergy were well aware that their authority was derived from the king, and if they were the most strenuous assertors of his power absolute, it was from motives connected with their own aggrandizement. The convocation held in 1606, drew up a set of canons, and it may be sufficient to mention, that the tenets to which the bishops gave the sanction of their name, might have alarmed the most indifferent. The origin of government is not traced to popular election, but to the authority that a father has over his family; the power of kings is of God; that of the parliament, only of man; passive obedience in every case is inculcated. The character of the king was ill adapted to sustain his lofty pretensions; although a stranger, his conduct was generally at variance with the opinions or prejudices of his people; indeed, one effect of his learning was to heighten his contempt of public opinion. The English have been considered a loyal people, but few amongst them either loved or feared James, and his government exhibited a strange contrast with that of Elizabeth. Dignity was incompatible with his easy but passionate temper, with a character in which pusillanimity was the most conspicuous feature; accordingly, his parliaments became indifferent to his noisy threats, and it is not too much to assert that he compromised national honour, and disgusted his subjects, by his peaceful policy towards Spain.

The commons, during the whole of this reign, never lost sight of one great object—their country's freedom. The right of impeachment, which had fallen into disuse, was restored by their efforts; they asserted their privilege to debate on all matters of public concern, and resisted the authority of proclamations. The king had issued a proclamation, according to which certain buildings should be pulled down, but this was declared unlawful; in other words, a sovereign cannot, by a proclamation, create an offence where none had before existed.

The exclusive privilege of the commons to determine contested elections was put in this reign beyond the reach of controversy. Much, however, was still imperfect; others had to finish what was now commenced.

porary authority. The determination of the queen's council to proclaim his accession could give him no right to the throne. It might be shown that the choice of the nation was in his favour, although their choice was not expressed by suffrages, or any formal deed. It may be doubted, however, in a legal point of view, if the nation could exercise such a power in the present instance, because it was contrary to a provision in the will of Henry the Eighth, which had been ratified by a solemn act of the legislature. A king of England, with the consent of parliament, can make such statutes to limit the succession as

The nation were animated with the hope of freedom, this sentiment pervaded, with one exception, every order of the community, but the excepted order was the priesthood. The clergy, in their vain attempt to realize the dreams of their monarch, brought against them the hatred of the people; popish ceremonies were still retained, these were offensive to the greater number, and the law of uniformity, establishing one rule of faith throughout the kingdom, connected religious with civil liberty.

No concessions on the part of the prince to the great change in public opinion, the disputes between the crown and the commons, and the imprisonment of Coke, Selden, Pym, Mallory and Phillips, prepared the way for "the fatal contests, which marked with a line of blood the dynasty of the Stuarts."

Elizabeth is justly hated on account of her conduct to the unfortunate Mary, but James was guilty of the blood of another victim, the no less unfortunate although less celebrated Arabella Stuart; the state policy that influenced the two sovereigns was in both cases the same. A magnanimous prince would never have condemned the great Sir Walter Raleigh; his execution, and the proceedings during his long imprisonment, prove the timidity and injustice of the king. The best feelings of the nation were outraged at the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury; the weakness of the king was made manifest by the influence of his favourite, and to pardon Somerset was to participate in his crimes. These and other transactions shewed the necessity of limiting the power of the crown, and of hindering princes from perverting just laws. The subserviency and venality of judges may be ranked among the indirect sources of corruption. It would be incorrect to infer, from the penalty imposed on the great Bacon, that bribery was of rare occurrence; the sentence passed against him has been considered a harsh one, and it is certain that other judges, guilty of like offences, were more fortunate in their obscurity.

No period of English history has been more diligently examined than the reign of the first Charles, both on account of the great lessons it affords, and because it is intimately connected with the rise of freedom. But the events of this memorable reign are foreign to the nature of the present work; even to mention such only as are connected with the progress of the constitution, is incompatible with its limits. If liberty was the end in view, it may be regretted that other means were not employed to obtain it. If the royal prerogative was stretched beyond its just boundaries, little advantage could be gained by transferring arbitrary power from the king to the commons. Charles had recourse to the last argument of kings, but it was not until the commons had left him only the trappings of royalty, nor before the due influence of the upper-house was destroyed. It may then be doubted if any concessions, even a presbyterian establishment, or the abolition of episcopacy, could have effected a lasting reconciliation between the king and his people, such were the fatal effects of his insincerity and too great facility

may seem fit. An act, passed in the 35th year of Henry the Eighth, confirmed his last will, signed with his own hand. The succession was thus limited to the issue of his own children, and in default of them, to the descendants of his younger sister Mary, duchess of Suffolk, before those of Margaret, queen of the Scots. The descendants of Mary were alive at the death of Elizabeth." Hallam's Constitutional History of England, chapter vi.

^a Cowell's Law Interpreter, 1607.

But the triumph of the commons was of short duration ; independents succeeded presbyterians, and republicans yielded to a military tyranny, that was established in the government of Cromwell. Many causes contributed to these calamities, but the consideration of them belongs not to the present subject. While it is admitted that the people abused their victory, it cannot be denied that the declamations of churchmen, and the intrigues of courtiers, were attended with the worst effects. The king was thus persuaded of his right to absolute dominion, and to an uncontrolled power, not only over the temporal, but spiritual concerns of his people. To obtain what he believed his right, a policy, which has been often imitated in later times, was adopted. The offices, honours and emoluments of the crown were employed to turn aside the parliamentary leaders from the cause of the people, and men not actuated by more elevated views, whose chief motive was selfishness or worldly aggrandizement, were easily made to support an authority in which they participated. An unjust sentence and an ignominious death have been urged to extenuate the infamy of Strafford. The excesses of the commons may be regretted ; their services need not be forgotten. Ship-money was declared illegal and arbitrary, the sentence against Hampden was cancelled, the exclusion of the forest laws was condemned, and patents for monopolies were annulled. Later proceedings are worthy of admiration ; a bill was unanimously passed by both houses for the suppression of the Star Chamber and High Commission Courts, and by the same bill the jurisdiction of the Privy Council was regulated, and its authority abridged. Other arbitrary courts were abolished, and the king, at the request of his parliament, instead of patents during pleasure, gave all the judges patents during their good behaviour ; an improvement of the greatest importance towards the impartial administration of justice, and the exclusion of the influence of the crown from the ordinary courts of law. It would have been fortunate had the commons been satisfied with these and other triumphs of a like nature ; but moderation was not the virtue of a period in which religious zeal was associated with extravagant notions of liberty. It was evidently the design of the ruling party to subvert the constitution, not to reform or improve it by enforcing ancient and wise laws, and by cancelling others of a different description and a more recent origin ; not to limit, but to abolish monarchy.

The offers made by the commons were such as no English king could receive with honour. They are contained in nineteen propositions of which the following are the most remarkable. The privy council and officers of state, it was proposed, should be approved by parliament, and take such an oath as the two houses might prescribe. No vacancy in the council could be supplied during the intervals of parliament without the assent of the majority, and an election thus made, required for its ratification the subsequent assent of both houses. The education and marriage of the king's children were to be under parliamentary control. Popish peers should not be permitted to vote. The church government and liturgy should be reformed according to the wisdom of both houses. The regulation of the militia should be committed to parliament ; the command of all fortified places should be intrusted to such persons as parliament

appointed. All peers made in future were not to sit in parliament unless with the consent of both houses.

To these propositions it was not doubtful that another would be added ; according to the right meaning of the old coronation oath, the king, it was maintained, must give his consent to all the bills which were passed by the two houses. It is not wonderful that Charles refused to divest himself of his crown, for he must have done so had he accepted such conditions ; no prince of any spirit could, in his situation, have acceded to such terms, but the commons thought what they had already obtained, insecure without farther concessions. The high notions Charles entertained of his prerogative, notions inherited from his father, prevented him from giving due weight to public opinion ; he encroached continually on his subjects' rights, while he may have thought perhaps that he was defending his own ; hence the belief in the necessity of a republic or nominal monarchy. But while it was determined to have recourse to arms, royalists and republicans were little aware of the calamities of a civil war. The probable consequences of the contest, however dangerous to liberty, were not regarded ; chimerical notions of freedom are akin to fanaticism, and the blood of the nation was spilt to elevate a soldier of fortune, and to establish a military power, to which unhappily the king fell a victim, and which, in this as in every other instance, proved incompatible with freedom. The long struggle between the king and his people was not marked by the same cruelty or the same treachery, that disgraced the annals of France during the wars of the League. As to the general calamities of the contest, it may be sufficient to remark that from the year 1642 to 1649, commerce was obstructed, while property and life were endangered by constant skirmishes and frequent sieges. Agriculture was interrupted, for there was hardly a county in England that was not at one time or other the scene of devastations, and to add to the misery, capitulations were violated, and mutual faith was disregarded by both parties.^a

It would be incorrect to suppose the nation guilty of the crimes that followed the civil war ; there was no longer any freedom in England, when the king went through the mockery of a trial, and perished on the scaffold. Occasion has been taken, in a former part of this work, to mention the causes that led to the death of Louis the Sixteenth. Anarchy and misrule in France were accompanied with the abolition of Christianity, and, according to some writers, the prevalence of infidelity accounts for the worst crimes that were committed during the French Revolution. Very different notions prevailed in England ; very different were the motives that induced the regicides to condemn Charles. It was imagined that the sovereign ought to die to expiate the sins of the war, that the sins of the people should be borne by him and not by them. Ludlow quotes the following passage from the book of Numbers ; " Blood defileth the land, and the land cannot be cleansed of the blood shed thereon, but by the blood of him that shed it. And, therefore, I could not consent to the counsels of those who were contented to leave the guilt of so much blood on the nation, when it was most evident that the war had been occasioned by the invasion of our rights, and the open breach of our laws and constitution on the king's part.^b " As

^a Hallam, volume 2d.

^b Ludlow's Memoirs, vol. 1st, 267.

for Mr. Hutchinson," says one of the best writers of the period, "although he was very much confirmed in his judgment concerning the cause, yet being here called to an extraordinary action, whereof many were of several minds, he addressed himself to God by prayer, desiring the Lord, that if through any human frailty, he were led into any error or false opinion in those great transactions, he would open his eyes, and not suffer him to proceed, but that he would confirm his spirit in the truth, and lead him by a right enlightened conscience; and finding no check but a confirmation in his conscience that it was his duty to act as he did, he, upon serious debate, both privately and in his address to God, and in conferences with conscientious, upright, unbiassed persons, proceeded to sign the sentence against the king."^a Such, in all probability, were the real sentiments of Ludlow and Hutchinson, the most virtuous among those who decided the fate of Charles. It was necessary for Cromwell to act in the same manner that he might regain his influence over the army, and that he might render it subservient to his ambition; skilled in concealing his real motives, those which he alleges, indicate the infatuation, and the strange fanaticism, that prevailed. "Should any one have voluntarily proposed to bring the king to punishment, I should have regarded him as the greatest traitor; but since *providence* and *necessity* have cast us upon it, I will pray to God for a blessing on your counsels, though I am not prepared to give you any advice on this important occasion. Even I myself, when I was lately offering up petitions for his majesty's restoration, felt my tongue cleave to the roof of my mouth, and considered this supernatural movement as the answer which heaven, having rejected the king, had sent to my prayers."^b The judges of Louis were nowise actuated by religious scruples; so far their opinion was participated by the people, who embraced a system of which the ceremonies were borrowed from the Greek mythology. A debasing superstition, and a perverted religion, inconsistent with moral rectitude or common justice, influenced the judges of Charles; their notions were those of the ruling party; those who adopted better sentiments or a milder creed, were ranked among the vanquished royalists. The dissolution of the monarchy and the English constitution succeeded the death of the king. The commons voted that kingly power should be annulled, because it was "unnecessary, burthensome, and dangerous;" the house of peers was considered "useless and dangerous," and on that account it was abolished. A new great seal was made with the date on one side, while on the other the assembled commons were represented, and the following inscription was engraved: IN THE FIRST YEAR OF FREEDOM BY GOD'S GRACE RESTORED. The care of the great seal was committed to certain persons, who were denominated the conservators of the liberties of England. The king's statue in the exchange was pulled down, and the following words were inscribed on the pedestal: *Exit Tyrannus Regum ultimus.*

If to gain freedom were the cause of the civil wars, the end was not attained after their termination. The English government, from the death of the king to the year 1658, was first changed into a military oligarchy, and afterwards into a despotism. Although disturbed by seditions and intrigues of which the object was to rid the

nation of a tyrant, and at other times to restore the house of Stuart, it has held together after the battle of Worcester by an army of forty-five thousand men, and many were compelled to swear fidelity to the commonwealth. The government of Cromwell, it is undeniable, could not have been secure a single day without so great a military force; but even the army was not the sole instrument by which his power was wielded. It enabled him in 1656 to exclude many members from the house of commons, and to mould it to his will. A military guard demanded a certificate from the council before any member could obtain admission. So novel a proceeding excited unusual disapprobation, but to the remonstrances of the excluded members, it was answered that the qualifications of members were vested in the lords of the council, who had exercised their right according to the best of their judgment. The most revered institutions were abolished, and to condemn men, who would not have been condemned by jurymen, the use of juries was dispensed with in the new high court of justice. It is needless to add that such a tribunal was contrary to law, and to the very oath that Cromwell had taken; prisoners protested against the legality of the court, ancient statutes were quoted, and the words *Magna Charta* were pronounced in vain. One individual, believing that to defend himself was to betray the liberties of his country, remained silent, but his silence hastened his fate, it was considered a confession of guilt. Not only were juries abolished, but the accused were not allowed the benefit of counsel. The court was "of sufficient counsel to the prisoner and the commonwealth," but men declared it was of counsel for the commonwealth and against the prisoner. In some instances, however, this was not the case; more than one judge had the boldness to decide justly, while others chose rather to resign their office than to pervert the laws. Although it was declared high treason by a new act to assert that the government was tyrannical, unlawful or unjust, many were not deterred from expressing their real sentiments; Cromwell was generally called an artful hypocrite, and a dissembling villain, while the republicans deplored that they had fought for a worse tyrant than Charles Stuart.

The decimation of the property of the royalists was an act of tyranny without a parallel in the history of the Tudors. England was divided into eleven military governments under as many major-generals. These persons were authorized to raise forces within their jurisdictions, to exact the decimation and different taxes, to suppress tumults and insurrections, to disarm catholics and cavaliers, to inquire into the conduct of ministers and schoolmasters, and to imprison all dangerous and suspect persons. The powers, such a commission conferred, great as they were, appeared too limited to these military prefects; their rapacity more than their hatred against the royalists excited them to acts of injustice; they took care to make it less, and as many as had remained neutral were ranked with the proscribed. The fruits of the civil wars were now apparent, and bitter disappointment succeeded the hopes of the republicans; if the Star Chamber had been abolished, a more iniquitous tribunal was established in its place; if illegal taxes had

^a Hutchinson, page 303.

^b Parliamentary History, vol. xviii.

been resisted, others infinitely more onerous were imposed. It required but little reflection to conclude that the property and the lives of men were insecure, while the Protector could erect a high court of justice, and divide the country into prefectures. The "good old cause" was thus connected with dismal associations, and the friends of royalty were increased; many remembered ancient and better institutions, and forgot, under the actual despotism, the abuses which had led to their subversion. If the sense of the nation could have been taken, it might have been shown that not an individual out of a thousand was friendly to the new government. Had the moral qualities of Cromwell at all corresponded with his intellectual faculties, he might have been as much loved as he was hated by his countrymen. Extraordinary precautions, movements concealed from the nearest attendants, fears of assassination, and sleepless nights, proved him not ignorant of the execration in which he was held. The history of the commonwealth and the protectorate may be distinguished by national greatness, and by the increased importance of England among European powers, but it forms a dark era in the history of the constitution.

It was not before the restoration that any advantages were gained from the civil wars; many, who had exposed themselves to the dangers, lived not to enjoy the fruits of the contest. If the individual who placed Charles the Second on the throne, had entered into conditions to abridge the royal authority, and to extend the rights and privileges of the people, he might have added immeasurably to his own fame, rendered the government more secure, and prevented perhaps the subsequent exile and misfortunes of the Stuarts. The monarchy, it is admitted, was milder during the reign of the second Charles than in the time of preceding kings, but it was owing to the efforts of upright men and resolute patriots, not certainly of General Monk, who had it in his power to confer the greatest benefits on his country. The anomalies introduced after the civil wars survived not the usurper, the concessions made by Charles the First were not rendered nugatory by alarming innovations, and government began to assume the character which it now bears. Royal proclamations were seldom issued, the Star Chamber was anew abolished, and the right of Habeas Corpus was enforced. It must be confessed, on the other hand, that many acts of injustice were perpetrated; the condemnation of Sir Henry Vane was a violation of a solemn promise; the sentences passed against Sidney, Russel and others, marked the latter part of the reign with a character of despotism; the deaths more than the lives of these patriots strengthened the cause they maintained. It is incorrect, therefore, to conclude with some writers that "the constitution had arrived at its full vigour, that the balance between prerogative and liberty was happily established." The next reign^a affords the best refutation to such a remark; it may be sufficient to observe that attempts to exercise the dispensing power, to repeal the test laws, and to establish catholicism, ended in the final expulsion of the Stuarts. William of Orange, the son-in-law of James, and one of the greatest princes that appears in modern history, continued a watchful observer of these violent measures. To preserve the rights

and privileges, which it was the open design of the king to destroy, seven persons, eminent from their rank and influence, invited William to land in England.^b The invitation was accepted, and the revolution of 1688 was achieved. No event of a like nature has been attended with fewer calamities, or followed with greater advantages; it rendered the different kinds of government, which are blended in that of England, more secure, and at the same time, independent of each other; the constitution acquired a degree of stability which it had not obtained since the Norman conquest; it took away every pretext for the destructive contests between kings and their subjects, contests equally fatal to civil liberty, whether they terminated in the death of the monarch, or in the oppression of the people; since the same period the chances of faction have been diminished, it is no longer apt to be confounded with party. The English monarchy can hardly be said to have been united with free institutions before the revolution, otherwise the indefeasible right of kings, and their absolute prerogative, could never have been so boldly maintained; parliament, it was insisted, owed its existence to the sovereign; it might be destroyed by the same power that called it into being. The great practical difficulty in the science of government was now overcome, and Parliament became an inseparable part of the government; whatever may have been the right of other kings to the throne, whatever sophistry may have alleged, William the Third and his successors could claim only a parliamentary title. The influence of public opinion on government is often as beneficial as positive enactments; it is now very powerful in England, but it was not so before the same period.

The conditions by which the throne is held, are partly enumerated in the declaration of rights, which was presented to William before both houses of parliament by the Marquis of Halifax, the speaker of the lords. To suspend laws or the execution of laws by regal authority, without consent of parliament, is declared to be illegal. The pretended power of dispensing with laws, as it hath been exercised, is contrary to law. The commission for erecting the court of commissioners for ecclesiastical causes, and all other commissions and courts of the like nature, are illegal and pernicious. To levy money for the use of the crown by pretence of prerogative without consent of parliament, is illegal. The right of the subject to petition the king is confirmed; all commitments for, and abstractions against the exercise of this right, are illegal. The raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with consent of parliament, is illegal. The elections of members of parliament ought to be free; the freedom of speech or debates or proceedings in parliament ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or in any place out of parliament. Excessive bail ought not to be imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted. Juries ought to be duly impannelled and returned, and jurors that pass on men in trials of high treason ought to be freeholders. All grants and promises of fines and forfeitures of particular persons before conviction, are illegal. Lastly, parliaments ought to be frequently held, in order that all grievances may be redressed, and that the laws may be amended, strengthened and preserved. Such

^a James II.

^b These persons were the Earls of Danby, Shrewsbury and Devon-

shire, Lords Delamere and Lumley, the Bishop of London, and Admiral Russel

are some of the conditions which were afterwards more solemnly confirmed in the bill of rights, and which have served as the basis of the later improvements in the English constitution.

That the money voted by parliament should be appropriated to specified purposes had been considered the practice of government in the reign of Charles the Second; it was not, however, strictly followed; the house of commons that sat in 1685, betrayed their trust to gratify the king, and boasted of not having appropriated their supplies. The same practice has been invariably adhered to since the revolution; it has given the commons such a control over the executive power that no administration can subsist without their concurrence; the naval and military forces are placed at their disposal, for by refusing the supplies, neither the one nor the other can be maintained. It is obvious too, from what has been remarked, that no longer period than a twelvemonth can intervene between the sessions of parliament. In war or during any emergence, considerable sums may be raised by a vote of credit, and the crown may have perhaps applied them during the intervals of parliament to different purposes than those for which they were granted. It has sometimes happened that the annual sums appropriated for the public service are inadequate to the charge of it. The means thus obtained of corrupting the commons, and increasing the influence of the crown, have in some periods given rise to abuses against which no provision has been devised; they are not, however, of a permanent character, for if sanctioned by one parliament, it does not follow that they must be so in another, and they are not likely to excite reasonable apprehensions so long as there is an urgent necessity for public economy in every department of the state.

The long duration of the second house of commons in the reign of Charles the Second, was not forgotten after the revolution; if the king were enabled to lengthen the existence of a parliament to an almost indefinite period, the connexion between the people and their representatives, it was feared, might be destroyed. It was not likely that an evil from which so much inconvenience had been felt, could be tolerated in the changed state of public opinion, when liberal notions prevailed, and when the people recollected that they had changed the line of succession on account of the misgovernment of their rulers. The bill for triennial parliaments received the royal assent in 1694, six years after the landing of William. It declares that parliament shall cease and determine three years from its meeting, and provides against the intermission of parliament for a longer period. The last clause is also mentioned in an act of Charles the Second; in practice it was unnecessary, since the appropriation of the revenue, and the mutiny bill, which is always passed for a limited time, and without which a standing army is illegal, render the intermission of parliament for a much shorter period than three years, incompatible with the government of the state.

The law was changed in 1717, and the duration of parliament was extended to seven years. The new bill was introduced for temporary purposes by the ministry of the day; it has continued in force for more than a hundred years, and has been attended with important advantages. Great corruption still prevails during elections; but in consequence of this change the people are less habit-

uated to them, and their demoralizing influence is necessarily diminished. It is the chief duty of a member of parliament to watch over the liberties of his countrymen; but if he were not independent of the people, the democratic part of the constitution might be liable to such defects as those, which were so conspicuous in the most celebrated republics of antiquity.

It was attempted in the same reign to restore the early laws relative to treason; their spirit, although obvious, and their meaning, although definite, had not defended them against the interpretations of corrupt judges. The statute is remarkable in some respects, since different offences which have no connexion with treason, are included in it, and no mention is made of an intention, or even actual preparations to make war against the king. If the law of treason had always remained so defective, it might have been as dangerous to the safety of the government as if it had depended on the will of the prince, or the subserviency of the judge. The omissions, however, were supplied, and the limits of the monarchy, in as much as they relate to this subject, were determined at a comparatively recent period. The 57th of George the Third, now the law of the land, supersedes the famous statute of Edward the Third.

The liberty of the press, in as much as it consists in the exemption from a censorship or a licenser, was confirmed in the reign of William the Third. The licensing act, it is true, expired in 1679, but it was renewed for seven years in 1685, and, at the end of that period, it continued in force during the greater part of 1693, when it was finally abolished. It must not, however, be inferred, that the press was as free as it has since become; some time elapsed before men were allowed to express their opinions fully on public affairs; to write against a ministry of the day was included in the number of libels, for any attempt, by means of the press, to bring the servants of the king into discredit, was thought, in some degree at least, to extend to the sovereign. Ministers thought it better to answer than to prosecute their adversaries, the greatest men of the time defended or opposed by their writings the measures of government, and the public character of statesmen became gradually a fair subject of discussion.

Another important advantage connected with a free press was acquired at a later period. It is still supposed that the deliberations of the two houses are secret, and it is competent for any member to insist on the exclusion of strangers, not for any particular reason, but that a standing order for the purpose may be enforced. It has more than once been considered a high breach of privilege to publish the speeches or proceedings in the lower house of parliament; for such offences different persons have been committed, and it is still deemed irregular in any member of the commons to allude to the reports in newspapers, unless it be on account of a breach of privilege. While the people were ignorant of what passed in parliament, it sometimes happened that abridgments of the debates were published, and on some occasions, for the sake of popularity, entire speeches were printed, and circulated by the members who delivered them. It is undeniable, however, that after the accession of George the First, a register of the debates was annually published, until the year 1737; after that period, they appeared monthly, in a less abridged form, in the London and Gentleman's Magazines. It is almost

superfluous to remark that the presence of strangers must have been tacitly sanctioned before such works were published. It was not then customary to prefix the names of members to their speeches, but merely the initial letters, and in this way it was imagined the breach of privilege might be evaded. The practice, however ridiculous, was not wholly abolished during the American war. From that time until the present, successive improvements have been made in the method of reporting debates; the art of short-hand writing has probably attained the utmost degree of perfection of which it is susceptible, and the speeches of the different members are now regularly printed a few hours after they are delivered.

It is impossible to estimate too highly this great advantage resulting from a free press; it forms a new and powerful connexion between the people and their representatives; to the former the conduct of public men is thus made known, and it is thus that they judge if those entrusted with their rights, are worthy of their confidence. The same custom accounts in some degree at least for the great influence of public opinion in England, an influence which it would be vain to attribute wholly to the diffusion of wealth and knowledge among the middling ranks. This important privilege has only been established by usage, and that too from no remote period, but it could not be destroyed without the worst consequences; indeed if it were possible to shut the doors of parliament against strangers, no more effectual means could be devised by a tyrant or an usurper to subvert the British constitution.

Such were some of the later benefits that sprung from the revolution; the more immediate consequences, it has been shewn, were equally salutary; the notions concerning the absolute right of kings had led to acts of tyranny on the part of the prince, and to resistance on the part of the people; such notions it was impossible longer to entertain; the crown had been given by the people to William of Nassau, and to the gift conditions were annexed. The theory of an original contract had been adopted by parliament; it was decided that it had been violated by James, and that in consequence the throne had been abdicated. An approximation was thus made to the truth, that the power of kings is committed to them for the happiness and welfare of their people. Although this principle was not expressed by parliament, it appears to have been afterwards sanctioned by their proceedings, and in particular by the act of settlement. It was considered unnecessary at the revolution to extend the line of succession beyond the descendants of Anne and William; the former became a few months afterwards the mother of a son, so that the provisions, which had been already made, were not thought in any way too limited. It was manifest, however, in the year 1700, that the first act of settlement could not extend beyond the life of the king and the princess of Denmark; under such circumstances the necessity of a new one became imperative. The people had to exercise a second time a most important right, that of choosing their monarch; in the first instance it had been preceded with revolution and the deposition of a king; in the second, the government was established, and the chances of civil war were remote. It was solemnly determined by parliament that the princess Sophia, the wife of the elector of Hanover, and her descendants, should succeed to the throne of England. The

connexion between that princess and the house of Stuart was certainly the cause of this resolution, but neither herself nor her descendants could claim their new dignity from any hereditary title. Had the nearest relatives of the Stuarts succeeded to the crown of England, it must have first devolved on the duchess of Savoy, the daughter of Henrietta of Orleans, and on several members of the Palatine family; but these had abjured the reformed faith. The genius and the research of Gibbon have been employed in illustrating the house of Brunswick, a house which yields to none in antiquity or in renown; although connected with Cerdic, the Conqueror, the Edwards and the Henries, its right to the throne rests on the act of settlement, a parliamentary title, which necessarily presupposes the supremacy of the legislature.^a

It is superfluous to enumerate the conditions, which were annexed to the Hanoverian succession; all of them are of a liberal tendency; some made for temporary purposes, have been since abolished; it may be regretted, however, that another was not added, by which the king of England must have renounced the electorate of Hanover.

The benefits which were derived from the revolution, were confirmed by the act of settlement, and the constitution was established. An end was put to the long contest that, with some intervals, lasted for ages between the sovereign and the people. Although the government, since the admission of the commons into the legislature, may have been nominally divided into three kinds, its real character was that of a monarchy, and the power of the crown was above the power of the nobility and the people. The conqueror and his successors, to the end of the sixteenth century, may bear a comparison in many respects with the princes of the Capetian race. The Stuarts aimed at arbitrary power, and sought by illegal means to rule without parliament, to elude the restraints on their authority, and to govern "after the French method." It would be incorrect to suppose that all the great advantages obtained at the revolution were felt immediately after it; the divisions in England, and the state of Europe at the time, seemed to justify decisive, and to palliate arbitrary measures.

The personal qualities of William, and his consummate skill in the details of government, rendered many of the conditions irksome; he is said to have been his own minister, and it must be admitted that he was better fitted to be so than most men in his dominions. A great prince is dangerous to a limited monarchy; but that the constitution was not shaken, while so many circumstances concurred to subvert it, may be considered a proof of the spirit by which the people were actuated.

It is undeniable that important changes have taken place, some of them greatly increasing the power of the executive government, and others of so opposite a tendency as to render it difficult to estimate their counter-acting effects. It has been urged, not without reason, that an excess of power, similar in some respects to that wrested from the crown at the expulsion of the Stuarts, has been gradually transferred to the aristocracy, and that it is not sufficiently restrained by the king or the people.

The great territorial proprietors may be classed with the aristocracy, and their united influence has too often

^a Hallam, *Idem*,—ibid.

prevailed in the lower house of parliament; but it is more reasonable to believe that the evil may be remedied, than that it is of such a nature as to endanger permanently the rights and liberties of the people.

Although the origin of parties may be referred to an earlier period, their increased importance forms a remarkable feature in the history of England since the revolution. The government of the country has been committed nearly two centuries to whigs or tories; under one or other of these denominations, the members of parliament, and almost all those who set any value on their political privileges, may be classed. It is of consequence, therefore, to ascertain their distinctive principles; this, however, is not easily done, both on account of the latitude with which the meaning of the terms is received, the variations they undergo, and the factions that have used them for unworthy purposes. While the number on either side is so great, there must be many whose principles sit loosely on them, and it requires but a superficial acquaintance with history to be convinced that the attainment of power has too often been the leading motive of political conduct.

It would be unfair to derive the distinctions between the parties from such examples. The tory and the whig are equally attached to the constitution; the one is not a friend to unlimited monarchy, the other is not a republican. The one believes the constitution perfect, and wishes to preserve it unchanged; the other considers the welfare of the community, and the public good, of paramount importance. The tory has been naturally averse to innovation; the whig, for such purposes, not unfriendly to it. The one opposes whatever may tend to endanger the prerogative; the other resists every encroachment on the liberties of the people. The tory is distinguished by his zeal for the established church; for its sake in past times catholics were persecuted, and unjust restraints were imposed on dissenters; the cause of the church has been sometimes confounded with the cause of loyalty, a fact which accounts in a great degree for the slow progress of religious liberty in England.

It is natural to infer that tory principles are likely to prevail among the hereditary aristocracy, an order which derives its brightest lustre from the crown. It is equally certain that whig principles are more comprehensive, more philosophical, and more consonant with the purposes of civil society, the progress of improvement, and the temporary nature of human institutions. It is fortunate that they have been counteracted by each other: from the excess of the one, too rapid innovations might ensue, while the tendency of the other is to retard improvement.

If civil liberty was established at the revolution, the commencement of religious liberty may be dated from the same epoch. By the toleration act, the first act of William and Mary, all their majesties' protestant subjects, dissenting from the church of England, were exempted from penalties, and permitted the free exercise of their religious duties, provided they took the oath of allegiance. The same indulgence was not conferred on the catholics; the memory of their past conduct was fresh in the minds of men, and the guilt of it was exaggerated by their fears or hatred. It must be confessed that from the reign of Elizabeth to the time of William, the government had been endangered by their conspiracies or plots; in some of them the end was to assassi-

nate the monarch, in others to bring in a foreign army, in all to subvert the liberties of Englishmen. New restraints were imposed on the catholics; it was the object of the legislature to exclude them from every dignity, to destroy their political existence, to keep them poor and ignorant, in a word, to make them helots in a free community. The consequence of such policy, it is unnecessary to add, increased the chances of conspiracies and revolts. The effects of it are still apparent in the present state of Ireland, and in the degraded condition of its inhabitants. Some of the restrictions thus imposed, were taken away at different times, but it is not more than a year or two since they were all removed, and the person who has so much extended the military glory of England, may claim the merit of having brought about an act of justice, from which it is not unreasonable to look forward to the most beneficial results.

Thus, it appears, that the revolution is the era of many improvements in the English constitution; from it the doctrine of the responsibility of ministers may be derived, a doctrine which is now fully established, and which, so long as it continues in force, may be the best guarantee of the dignity of the crown, and the liberties of the people.

But increased resources, extended commerce and great diffusion of wealth form perhaps the most remarkable features in the later period of English history. The long and expensive wars of William and Anne must have contributed to diminish the resources of the nation, but it recovered in the prosperous and peaceful reign of George the Second; during the repose which was then enjoyed, the country increased in strength, and was enabled to undertake the gigantic efforts, which have been accomplished in our own times. If this be the fact, and it is not doubted, it follows as a necessary consequence, that additional influence must have been acquired by the middling ranks. Other effects may be attributed to the same cause, and a very remarkable one has been mentioned by the ingenious Mr. Hallam. "The smaller boroughs, which had been from the earliest time under the command of neighboring peers and gentlemen, or sometimes of the crown, were attempted by rich capitalists with no other connexion or recommendation than one, which is generally sufficient. This appears to have been first observed in the general elections of 1747 and 1754; and although the prevalence of bribery is attested in the statute-book since the revolution, it seems not to have broken down all flood-gates till near the end of the reign of George the Second. The sale of seats in parliament, like other transferable property, is never mentioned in any book that I remember to have seen of an earlier date than 1760."^a

The widely scattered provinces and colonies under the British government have been described in a different part of this work. The dominion of England, it has been shown, is acknowledged in every quarter of the globe, while every nation that has made any advances in civilization participates in its commerce. Every coast is visited by English mariners, in every land the influence of England may be traced, and the products of its industry are seen in the most barbarous countries. It might be readily supposed that colonies so remote from each other, and above all from the mother country, might

^a Hallam, Chap. xiv

hasten its decline. These circumstances, on the contrary, prove additional elements of strength, and the distance between the different stations renders any union among them impracticable. Many ships are at all times necessary to keep up the intercourse with the seat of government, or rather to supply the wants of trade, and to carry the products of British industry to the points from which they are diffused over so vast a surface; the same ships serve on any emergence to repel aggression, and to secure the means of defence. The naval resources of England are proportionate to her commercial greatness; no nation can oppose the one; it has no rivals in the other. Secure from danger, and fearing no competition, the restrictions in the navigation acts, originally introduced to protect the trade of the country, have been repealed; England claims only from others the same liberty that they enjoy. But this commercial greatness, without example in the history of any other country, may give rise to higher considerations. The elements of civilization, if they may be so termed, are thus transported from England to the remotest limits; from the same centre, knowledge is diffused, and free institutions are gradually established. Already has one colony assumed a high rank among nations; whatever may be the future greatness of the American republic, it is reasonable to infer from its present state, that it must exert a beneficent influence over the destinies of the new world. The mother country too has gained by the independence of the settlers; the sphere of her activity has been enlarged, and additional outlets have been opened for her products. England pursues the same career, and is still founding free states for future generations. No other nation has given the same encouragement to industry, and the same extension to commerce; none has so much contributed to promote freedom, and to enlighten mankind in every quarter of the globe. It belongs more particularly to the present subject, to describe the country of which the influence is so widely diffused, and to examine the physical and moral causes that have contributed to its greatness.

However numerous the natural advantages of England for commerce may be, it is certain little was added to them by art until a recent period. No canal was formed, no artificial channels were cut, before the year 1756, and this fact appears the more remarkable, if the increased wealth of the country be taken into account, and if it be considered that the rivers, although in general ill fitted for the means of communication, are admirably adapted to facilitate such works.

It was known that goods might be conveyed by means of canals for a fourth part of the sum expended on them by the ordinary method, and consequently that many natural products as well as other articles, which, from their remote situation, or different causes, were comparatively of little value, might be brought within the sphere of commerce. The length of Great Britain from north to south, being much greater than its mean breadth from east to west, the best way of avoiding the long and, in some places, dangerous circuit of the coasts, was to connect, by means of canals at the most convenient positions, the eastern with the western shores. The dilatoriness of the English seemed the less excusable, because the French preceded them in this branch of industry, which had proved a source of wealth to the inhabitants of Lombardy, Belgium and Holland.

Although the English were so long in beginning such undertakings, Great Britain is now better provided with canals than any other country, and in none are they so extensive in proportion to the surface. It is unnecessary at present to enumerate them, or to enter into any details concerning their history.

The most important run from east to west; they are grouped round Manchester, Liverpool, London, Birmingham, Hull and Bristol, so that these wealthy and industrious towns are thus connected with each other, and with the fruitful country that separates them. By means of these works, the manufactures and the various products, which emanate from the same towns, are quickly and cheaply conveyed to the numerous places for which they are destined. It might be shown that within a period not much longer than half a century, canals have been made by which opposite seas are united, by which basins, separated by lofty heights, are joined together, and by which ports communicate with fruitful plains and rich mines.^a The length of these navigable ways is more than 2500 miles, while the territory they traverse is less than a sixth part of France.

The same remarks that have been made on the canals, are applicable to the roads; the greater number and the improved method of making them date from the middle of the last century. It results from the ingenuity and practical skill of English engineers that travelling is easy and rapid, that animal force is employed to much advantage, and that heavy loads are dragged by fewer horses than in other countries, while light carriages are impelled with greater velocity. These advantages, however great, are of secondary importance; the roads in England are not only better, they are more extensive in proportion to the surface than in any part of Europe. Those who are aware of all the benefits arising from improved means of communication, can best appreciate how much they contribute to promote commerce and diffuse wealth. England contains 20,000 leagues of roads, 1500 leagues of canals, and 1200 leagues of rail-roads; France, which is so much more extensive, has only 3500 leagues of roads, 500 leagues of canals, and 40 leagues of rail-roads.

Numerous works have been raised within the same recent period along the coasts; piers, moles, breakwaters and lighthouses have been erected to afford an easy access and a safe shelter to ships, and to facilitate the means of carrying on an immense trade, which consists in the exportation of the various products of English industry, and in the importation of the products of every quarter of the globe. In this trade 168,000 seamen are employed, while the number of merchant vessels amounts to 22,500, and their tonnage exceeds two millions. Some notion of the resources of Britain may be inferred from the fact that, within the last seventy years, more than £30,000,000 have been expended on roads, more than twice that sum on canals and rail-roads, and as much on works along the coasts. The increase in the value of land within the same period is well known; it appears as if the sums expended for the purposes already mentioned, had been laid out in improving the soil, and it is difficult to suppose that agriculture could have otherwise been brought to such perfection, and that land could have been rendered so productive.

^a Baron C. Dupin, Force Commerciale de la Grande Bretagne, Chap. 6.

The inventions of great men, and the application of science to the useful arts, have increased to an almost indefinite extent the productive power of industry, and rendered it proportionably independent of the labor of man. The machinery now used in a single branch of industry, namely, in manufacturing cotton, has enabled one individual to perform the work of a hundred and fifty. It appears from the lowest computation, that 280,000 persons are employed in the cotton manufactories, while according to the highest, the number amounts to 350,000; but by the aid of machinery, they are enabled to accomplish what must have required, less than a century ago, the labor of at least 42,000,000 or at most 52,500,000 persons, or in other words, about three times the present population of Great Britain. The wages of 42,000,000 of men, at the rate of a shilling a day, amount to £756,000,000; but the actual wages of all the individuals engaged in manufacturing cotton, and the expenses attending the various works, including the interest of the capital laid out in erecting them, are much less than £56,000,000; consequently the saving effected by means of machinery in this department of industry alone, is more than £700,000,000. It is hardly necessary to add that the power employed in the cotton manufactories in Britain, is greater than that in all the manufactories of Europe. Occasion shall be taken in the subsequent chapters to examine more fully the great resources of the

island; to enter into all the minute details would greatly exceed the limits of the present article. To increase the productive energy of their country, the English have availed themselves of the ingenuity of every nation. A single instance may be mentioned; the celebrated Mr. Watt happened to be in Paris, when Berthollet discovered the singular property which chlorine possesses, of destroying vegetable colours, and proposed it as a substitute for exposure to the sun in bleaching. This great discovery was applied to the useful arts in Lanarkshire and Lancashire, before it was introduced into many parts of France, and the same individual who invented the steam-engine, had the good fortune to confer a second obligation on his country.

Many other changes have taken place within the same period; the streets in almost all the towns are now illumined with a brilliant light,^a and the inhabitants are no longer dependent on the produce of the Greenland fisheries; an immense improvement has been effected by the use of steam-boats, and another, which may be attended with still greater advantage, is now in progress; rail-roads and steam-carriages are likely ere long to be common, and thus the rapid and cheap conveyance of goods may ensure the success of British industry over all its rivals.

^a Gas light.

BOOK CLIII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—England and Wales.—Second Section.—Physical Geography.—Extent.—Climate.—Coasts.—Rivers.—Mountains.—Productions.

THE southern and larger portion of Great Britain, comprehending England and Wales, is situated between 50° and $55^{\circ} 45'$ north latitude, and $1^{\circ} 50'$ east, and $5^{\circ} 40'$ west longitude. Bounded on three sides by the sea, it is contiguous on the north to Scotland. St. George's Channel washes it on the west, the German Ocean on the east, and the English Channel on the south. The figure of the same country bears some resemblance to a triangle; a line drawn from Berwick to the South Foreland represents the eastern side, the western is formed by another line commencing at Berwick, and terminating at the Land's End in Cornwall, while the base extends from the South Foreland to the Land's End.

Early geographers differ widely concerning the superficial extent of England, some believing it not to be more than twenty-eight millions of acres, and others making it amount to forty-six millions nine hundred and sixteen thousand. According to a traditional opinion, perhaps more ancient than any other, the extent of South Britain was supposed equal to twenty-nine millions of acres. The data from which this opinion was derived, are not known; even the period in which it was formed cannot be ascertained. Because it accords nearly with the extent of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, it has been inferred that it dates from so remote an epoch. Although the branch of science on which mensuration depends, was not then known to the rude inhabitants of Britain, other means might have enabled them to arrive at tolerably correct results. The mode in which the revenues of the Anglo-Saxon kings were collected, might afford sufficient materials for the calculation, in as much as it is better adapted for such a purpose than any other method that has been since employed; besides in Domesday-book, remarkable for great minuteness and accuracy, continual reference is made to a more ancient register of the same kind. The correctness of the measurement does not appear to have been doubted before the seventeenth century; since that period the subject has attracted the attention of numerous writers, such as Gerard Malines, Sir William Petty, Gregory King, the celebrated Halley, Grew, Templeman, Mr. Arthur Young and many others. The data necessary for such a task were wanting, and the calculations differing widely from each other, afforded a convincing proof of their inaccuracy.

Other errors of the same sort might be still believed, had not the trigonometrical survey been undertaken by direction of government; in the course of it the maps,

not only of the whole country, but of the different counties, were discovered to be incorrect, and the distance between the South Foreland and the Land's End was found to be less by about half a degree than the distance formerly laid down. The difference between the parallels of latitude of Greenwich and Paris, it was ascertained, is equal to 963,954 feet, or 182.567 miles, which corresponds with $2^{\circ} 38' 26''$. Thus, the length of a degree of the meridian, in latitude $50^{\circ} 10'$, amounts to 69.14 miles. The difference of longitude between Greenwich and Paris is equal to $2^{\circ} 19' 51''$, or, in time, $9^m 19'' 4'''$. It may be mentioned that a line drawn across the English Channel, from the South Foreland to Blancnez,^a is equal to 20.025 miles; such is the breadth of the natural barrier which has secured Britain against foreign aggression. A remarkable example of the accuracy to which practical geometry had attained, was afforded in the course of the survey. In two distances deduced from sets of triangles, measured by General Roy in 1787, and by Colonel Mudge in 1794, the one of 24.133 miles, the other of 38.688, the two agree within a foot as to the first distance, and within sixteen inches as to the second. Formerly, the calculations, or rather the conjectures, concerning the area of England and Wales, were of such a nature that no reasonable confidence could be placed in them; now, the extent of the country may not only be better determined than that of any other, but with a degree of accuracy more than sufficient for the purposes of geography.

It is vain to compare the climate of England with that of other countries in more favorable latitudes. If the genial influence of the sun is never long felt, it may be attributed to a situation in the northern part of the temperate zone, while the chilly and damp weather of so frequent occurrence may be accounted for by an insular position and other causes that may be afterwards mentioned. Stinted as it is of the light of the sun, and exposed to frequent rains or blasting winds, the soil does not yield those vegetable treasures which appear in such luxuriance in tropical climates, and which, almost without any labour, satisfy the wants or luxuries of indolent inhabitants. England, it has often been remarked, is better adapted for the growth than the ripening of the productions of the earth. Extreme cold is not felt in winter, and the summers are seldom oppressive; hence an appearance of verdure that continues in a greater or less degree throughout the year, vegetation not being destroyed by the winter's cold, nor wholly parched and withered by the summer's heat. No charm in the rural

^a Blanc-nez (The White Cape,) a promontory 4 miles west of Calais. The name is corrupted by English sailors into Blackness.—P.

districts is comparable to their perpetual verdure, none is more characteristic of England; the English themselves may be insensible to it from custom, foreigners can appreciate it better. To enjoy such scenery, one must visit the country in summer or in autumn, for even in the fruit season, the freshness of spring is apparent, and the flowers exhale the sweetness of their early perfume.^a

The theoretic arrangement of the seasons, so well adapted for the southern latitudes, is not equally applicable to the climate of Britain; on the continent their commencement and duration may be predicted with sufficient precision, while in England the weather is so variable, and all the seasons are so much intermixed, that it is very difficult to determine the periods of their arrival and departure. According to a common opinion, December, January and February are the winter months; the three following form the spring, while the summer begins in June, and continues to the end of August; September, October and November are the autumnal months. It must not however be imagined that the seasons are confined to their respective months; something like the spring appears occasionally in January or February; the air is mild, buds are seen on the hedges or the trees, and the songs of the birds enliven the woods. But these gleams of a warmer sunshine are soon dissipated, winter resumes its horrors, and the intervals of fine weather are not longer than what the French call *un été de St. Martin*, or Martinmas summer. Those who have paid most attention to such subjects, and who have observed with the greatest attention different indications or probable signs, confess their ignorance of any by which the severity or mildness of an English winter can be foretold. It is known, however, that frost seldom sets in before Christmas; however severe the season may be, it is much milder than in continental countries under the same parallels. The sea-ports of Holland and Germany are every winter blocked with ice, while those in England are always open.

^a Baron C. Dupin, Force Commerciale de la Grande Bretagne.

^b Milton's Ode to May,* although the production of his younger years, is an ode of uncommon beauty, but it is not descriptive of what May is in England.

* Song on May Morning.—P.

^c Pinkerton's Modern Geography, vol. I. p. 70, 3d Edit.

^d Different maladies are produced or aggravated by the variableness of the climate; it is one reason of the frequency of pulmonary consumption, it increases scrofula, and it gives rise to catarrhs, rheumatisms and many other diseases. These remarks are generally applicable to the climate of Great Britain, but what has been called the mild region of England forms an exception; it is divided into four groups, of which the first includes the tract of coast between Hastings and Portland Island, the second extends from the last point to Cornwall, the third forms the district of the Land's End, and the fourth comprehends the country on the borders of the Bristol Channel and the estuary of the Severn.

The climate, with all its defects, has been extolled by many, among others by the celebrated Sir William Temple. Numerous instances of longevity are mentioned in his essay on health.—“I must needs add one thing more in favour of our climate, which I heard the king say, and I thought new and right, and truly like a king of England that loved and esteemed his own country; it was in reply to some of the company that were reviling our climate, and extolling those of Italy and Spain, or at least of France: he said, he thought that was the best climate where he could be abroad in the air with pleasure, or at least without trouble and inconvenience, the most days of the year, and the most hours in the day; and this he thought he could be in England more than any other country in Europe.”

It has been maintained that a considerable change to the worse must have taken place in the climate of Great Britain, because at an early period the vine was cultivated, and not without success. The arguments, or rather the alleged facts, on which this opinion is founded, may be briefly examined. The Isle of Ely was called the *Isle of Vines*

March, April and May, it has been observed, are the nominal spring, but there is certainly no month in which the weather is more unsettled or variable than in March; when it does not assume the character of winter, it is wet and boisterous, or accompanied with frequent storms of hail. The injury thus occasioned to agriculture, has probably given rise to the English proverb, “a peck of March dust is worth a king's ransom.” April, although a wet, is commonly a mild month, but the east winds prevalent in May, seem ordained to destroy the efforts of reviving nature, and to blast the hopes of the husbandman. Warmth, and genial breezes or refreshing showers, are the attendants of May in France, and all nature appears instinct with life. Constant disappointment has not convinced the English that the same month is very different in the two countries.^b It has been often said that there is no spring in England: the saying is true, if by spring is meant a succession of fine weather, constantly improving and terminating in the warmth and luxuriance of summer; but intervals of spring, sometimes a week or two at a time, are not unknown over the whole country.

The cold easterly winds prevalent in May, are often felt in the early part of June; during their continuance, the two months cannot be classed under any of the seasons; they belong as much to winter as to summer. June, however, is much milder in the southern than in the northern counties. July, August and September are summer months throughout the country, but slight frosts have been felt even in August in the north, and during September in the south. October is the precursor of winter in the northern, and November in the southern counties. The weather then becomes disagreeable and unsettled, and it is in November that the dark fogs generally take place in London and the neighbourhood. Such are the seasons in England, and so great is their uncertainty that a writer of some celebrity^c does not hesitate to affirm it might be better to divide them into eight months of winter and four of summer, than according to the ordinary method.^d

by the Normans. It appears from the accounts in Domesday, that there were vineyards in different parts of England; that they existed at so early a period as the commencement of the eighth century is confirmed by the authority of the venerable Bede. The bishop of Ely used to receive three or four tuns of wine annually as tithes from the produce of the vineyards in his diocese. A piece of ground near London was withheld from a religious house by four successive constables of the tower, in the reigns of Rufus, Henry and Stephen, and converted by them into a vineyard “to their great emolument and profit.” The tithe on wine, it is said, was no uncommon article in the old accounts of the rectorial and vicarial revenues in Kent, Surrey, and other counties. The sheriffs of Northamptonshire and Leicestershire were allowed so much for the livery of the king's vinedresser, and other necessaries of the vineyard. The following extracts are taken from the church archives by the dean of Ely:—

Exitus Vineti	£2	15	3
Idem Vineæ	10	12	2½
Ten bushels of grapes from the vineyard	0	7	6
Seven dolia musti from the vineyard, 12 Edward II.	15	10	0
Wine sold for	1	12	0
Verjuice	1	7	0
One dolium and one pipe filled with wine, supposed at Ely			
Wine out of this vineyard	1	2	2
Verjuice from thence	0	16	6
No wine but verjuice made 9th Edward IV.			

According to the above valuable extract, verjuice only was sometimes obtained from the English vineyards; it is reasonable, therefore, to conclude, that they yielded at best but imperfect wines in the most favourable seasons. If sheltered spots were cultivated at present after the same manner, and with as much care, the results, in all probability, would be the same. It is incorrect, therefore, to derive any arguments on the deterioration of the climate from such facts. But there is reason to infer from registers of the weather that some change has

It may be readily supposed, that the climate in so extensive a country as England, is different in different places. In the north the fine season commences later, and is still more uncertain and of shorter duration than in the southern counties. The winters are not only more severe, but they continue a greater length of time; indeed, it is generally admitted that spring or summer begins a fortnight later on the north of the Mersey and the Humber, than in the south and the south-west. It is doubtful, however, that there is so much difference in the coldness or severity of winter in the northern and southern parts of the country. The autumn is shorter in the north, and frosty nights are of more frequent occurrence. The difference of the climate in the eastern and western counties, although not of the same kind, is not less remarkable than that between the north and the south. The weather in the west is much more humid and also milder than in the east; the difference depends on three causes, the vicinity of the western counties to the Atlantic Ocean, the prevalence of the westerly winds, and a ridge of hills that extends along the western side of the island.

The west winds are saturated with the vapours that rise from the Atlantic Ocean; these being intercepted in their passage across the range of hills, the aqueous particles are disengaged, but before the same winds reach the eastern part of the kingdom, their vapours are exhausted in the form of rain. The winds that blow from the continent on the east are much colder, and fewer vapours are collected in their passage to England. The temperature of the ocean, it is well known, is more equable than that of the land, milder during winter, and cooler in the summer. The western part of England being exposed to the winds from the Atlantic, the winters are wet but not severe, and snow seldom lies on the ground any length of time. The same causes account for the genial climate of the south-western counties; the proverbial mildness of Devonshire and Cornwall depends in a great degree on their exposure to the winds from the Bristol and English Channels.

It has been proved by careful observers that the south-western coasts are much more exposed to rain than the south-eastern side of the island. It is now more than a century since the quantity of rain which fell at Townley in Lancashire, was measured and compared with the quantity that fell at Axminster in Essex. It was ascertained that the annual quantity at Townley during a period of six years from 1700 to 1705, inclusive, was equal to forty-two inches and a half, while that at Axminster amounted only to nineteen and a half. It appears from observations made in Rutlandshire that the mean quantity of rain which falls in the county, is twenty inches and a half. It is known that 36.98 inches were the average quantity that fell at Selbourne in Hampshire, between the years 1780 and 1786.

Devonshire, it cannot be doubted, is much moister, and the actual quantity of rain much greater than in the southern and south-eastern counties; still in 1731, the rain measured only 17.266 inches, in 1741, 20.344, and in 1743, 20.998.

It appears from a meteorological journal kept by Major Rooke, that the quantity of rain, which fell in

taken place within the last sixty years, that the winters are in general milder, and the summers colder and more humid than formerly.

^a Less than the mean.

London in 1798, was 26.22, at West Bridgeford in Nottinghamshire, 27.22, at Lancaster, 48.19, and at Kendal, 60.85. The average gauge of rain at Sheffield is 33 inches, nearly the mean between that of Lancashire and the eastern coast.

The annual rains in the midland counties are nearly equal to the mean of those in the east and west, or more correctly, they do not amount to so great a quantity.^a Thus Derbyshire, although a mountainous district, is much less exposed to rain than Lancashire, Staffordshire, or even Shropshire. It appears, indeed, from a register kept during fourteen years at Chatsworth in Derbyshire, that the following was the average quantity of rain, which fell in each season:—in spring, 4.959, in summer, 7.547, in autumn, 8.181, and in winter, 6.686. In that part of Derbyshire, therefore, most rain falls in autumn, and least in spring; the same remark is applicable to Liverpool.

The average quantity of rain increases as we advance northwards on the western coast. In Liverpool it is ascertained to be equal to 34.41 inches, while at Lancaster it amounts to 40.3. In the last place too, the greatest quantity falls in the autumn, or perhaps during the months of July, August and September.

The counties in the neighbourhood of London are not exposed to much rain. The observations in this part of England may not have been made with sufficient accuracy, nor may they have been continued a sufficient length of time; but in one place, at Youngsbury near Ware in Hertfordshire, about twenty miles from London, a register was kept during five years; there the annual fall in 1787, was equal to 23.664 inches, in 1788, to 17.676, in 1789, to 29.493, in 1790, to 22.970, and in 1791, to 24.200.^b A tolerably correct notion of the annual falls in the neighbouring counties, may be inferred from these results; at all events, the difference, if it be great, must be attributed to local causes.

Some conclusions may be deduced from the above details. The greatest quantity of rain falls near Kendal, where the annual average exceeds sixty inches. Although the southern parts of the western coast are less liable to rain than the northern, it is doubtful if the rule be equally applicable to the peninsula of Cornwall, and the west of Devonshire. More rain falls in the north-eastern than in the south-eastern counties; still in both, the climate is much drier than in the western part of the island. Norfolk is probably the county in which the least rain falls during the year. July, August, September and October are the wettest months in the western; November, December and January, in the eastern counties.

It is very difficult to determine with any thing like accuracy, the quantity of rain that falls annually in England and Wales; a sufficient number of experiments have not been made in different places, and the mean of all the observations cannot be considered applicable to the whole surface. Dr. Halley supposed the annual quantity equal to twenty-two inches, but Mr. Dalton fixed it with greater probability at 31.3.^c The same philosopher concluded from a series of experiments, that five inches of water fall annually throughout the country in the form of dew; hence taking thirty-one inches for rain, and five

^b See the article England in the Encyclopedia Edinensis [Edinburgh Encyclopedia.]

^c See Mr. Dalton's paper in the Manchester Transactions for 1798

for dew, and supposing the whole extended over the surface of England and Wales, it is equal to twenty-eight cubic miles, or 11,500,000,000 tons in weight.

In England, the warmest months are July and August, and a greater degree of cold occurs commonly about the end of December, or beginning of January, than at any other period of the year. The thermometer, it has been ascertained, rises higher in the immediate vicinity of the metropolis than in any other part of the island. The north-eastern districts are exposed to the greatest degree of cold, but the difference of temperature in winter is not nearly so great as the difference during summer in the northern and southern counties. The mean range of the thermometer has been determined in different parts of the island. The mean temperature at Liverpool, during a period of twenty-five years, was 53° of Fahrenheit at noon, the greatest degree of heat 86° , and the lowest 22° . The greatest range of the thermometer at the same place is 64° , and the mean annual range, 46° . At Dover the mean heat is 57° ; the highest degree observed between the years 1790 and 1793, was 86° , and the lowest, 16° ; the greatest range, 70° , and the mean annual range, 51° . The mean height of the thermometer at Lancaster during seven years was $51^{\circ}.8$ at two o'clock in the afternoon, and $45^{\circ}.6$ at ten o'clock at night; the mean heat, noon and night, $48^{\circ}.7$, the highest 82° , and the lowest 18° .

It appears from a series of observations, made at the Royal Society from 1772 to 1780, that the mean annual temperature is $51^{\circ}.9$, and the monthly temperature as follows: January $35^{\circ}.9$, February $42^{\circ}.3$, March $46^{\circ}.4$, April $49^{\circ}.9$, May $56^{\circ}.61$, June $63^{\circ}.22$, July $66^{\circ}.3$, August $65^{\circ}.85$, September $59^{\circ}.63$, October $52^{\circ}.81$, November $44^{\circ}.44$, and December $41^{\circ}.04$. The greatest cold is 20° , and the greatest heat 81° ; the former occurs generally in January, and the latter in July.

Dr. Young remarks, that the mean temperature of the six winter months from October to March at London, is $43^{\circ}.5$, while it is $45^{\circ}.3$ at Dawlish on the south coast of Devonshire, and so high as 59° at Ilfracombe on the Bristol Channel. The temperature in the most sheltered parts of Devonshire, during winter, is $1^{\circ}.5$ above that of London; in the coldest months, it is $4^{\circ}.5$ higher at Penzance than in the metropolis.

It would be incorrect to infer from these observations on the climate of England, that extremes of cold or heat are unknown in the country. A degree of cold has been felt in some years, that is of rare occurrence in more northern parallels, in countries more remote from the sea. In the years 1794, 1798, and 1813—14, the thermometer, it is said, fell to five degrees above zero; it is certain that in the last of these years it was within 8° of the same point. The heat, on the other hand, is sometimes excessive; in the summer of 1808, the thermometer rose higher than 89° in many places round London. It happens sometimes in the southern districts, if the sun shines bright, and the weather is serene or unclouded, a few days or even hours in summer, that the temperature becomes suddenly as warm as in the south of France or even Italy; but these moments of a

more genial climate are commonly succeeded by cold weather, storms of hail, or violent showers.

It has already been observed that the west and south-west winds are most prevalent in England; their constancy may be attributed to the situation of the island, and its exposure to the Atlantic Ocean. The same winds are also the most violent, not only in the western, but also in the midland and eastern counties. The trees in every part of the country have an evident bending in the same direction, and no other proof of the violence and constancy of these winds can be more satisfactory. The east and north-east winds are, next to the west and south-west, perhaps the most regular; it seldom happens, however, that they blow violently any length of time. The north-west wind is not of common occurrence, but the most rare of any is that which proceeds from the south. In the summer season, and in calm weather, the wind veers frequently to different quarters in the same day, or even in the course of a few hours. Near the sea-coast, during the same season, and in this sort of weather, the wind at break of day blows from the land; at noon, or a little before it, it changes to the direction of the sea, and becomes again a land wind in the course of the evening. A wind not unlike the Italian sirocco is sometimes felt in England, but the change of temperature is comparatively inconsiderable. Occurring commonly in April or May, the medium height of the thermometer being about 45° , the barometer falls, the winds, before variable, continue stationary at south-west or south, and the thermometer rises suddenly to 65° ; no sooner, however, has the wind ceased, than it descends again to the usual level.

The following facts are deducible from the observations which were made by order of the Royal Society. In the vicinity of London, the south-west wind blows more frequently every month in the year than any other, particularly in July and August: the north-east wind prevails during the months of January, March, April, May and June; it occurs most rarely in February, July, September and December: the north-west wind is most frequent from November to March; it is less so in September and October than in any other months.

It follows from the careful observations made by Mr. Hutchinson at Liverpool, that the south-east wind is most common in that place, a fact at variance with the general remark that has been made on the prevalent winds in England.^a Dr. Darwin attributes this remarkable deviation to an atmospheric eddy, produced by the situation of the town; there can be no doubt that it is occasioned by local causes. As to the connexion between the height of the barometer and the different winds, it is well known that in England, nay, in every part of the island, the mercury rises higher when the wind proceeds from the north or east, or from any point between these quarters, than when it blows from the south or west, or from any point between them. Thus it often rains during a north or east wind, when the barometer remains at a height, which would be considered an indication of fair weather with a west or south-west wind.^b

^a In the course of the year, and on an average in the same part of the country, the south-west winds blow 112 days, the south-east 32, the north-east 58, the east 26, the north-west 50, the south 18 days, the west 53, and the north 16 days.

^b The author of the article England in the Encyclopedia Edinensis [Edinburgh Encyclopedia] has collected the results of most of the observations concerning the climate; to mention them might lead to too long details

The coasts, an important feature in the geography of a maritime country, may be briefly described. The western coast is formed on the north, by Cumberland, Lancashire and Cheshire, by Flintshire, Denbighshire, Caernarvonshire, Anglesea and Merionethshire in North Wales, and by Cardiganshire and part of Pembrokeshire in South Wales. The remaining portion of the Pembrokeshire coast, and those of Caermarthenshire and Glamorganshire, bound the Bristol Channel on the north, while Somersetshire and the northern coast of Devonshire confine it on the south; lastly, the northern coast of Cornwall forms the extremity of the western side of the island.

The Esk separates Scotland from England at the extremity of the Solway Firth,^a which is bounded in many places by a marshy shore. The coasts of Cumberland and part of Lancashire form a sort of semicircle from the mouth of the Eden to the Isle of Walney. Between the two last places, and on the south of the Derwent, the small bay of Whitehaven is sheltered by naked hills and by the white rocks from which its name has been derived. Not more than six miles from Whitehaven, the promontory of St. Bees Head, the resort of numerous sea-fowl, protrudes into the sea.

The rugged and indented coast of Lancashire may be divided into three parts; the first comprehends the space between the Dudden and the Ken, which separate it from Cumberland and Westmoreland; the second extends from the Ken to the Ribble; and the third from the Ribble to the Mersey, which separates the county from Cheshire. The coast of Furness, the first of these divisions, is nearly equal to thirty miles in length; the long and narrow isle of Walney, which appears to have formed at one period part of the Lancashire coast, now serves to protect it against the impetuous waves of the Irish Sea. The broad estuary, which separates Furness from the rest of the county, is sometimes forded at low water, but not without danger. The Dudden, the Ken, the Lune and other streams discharge themselves into the deep bay of Morecambe, opposite the town of Lancaster. The second part is flatter than the first; a marshy tract almost encloses Poulton, and the coast beyond it, is indented by the estuary of the Ribble.

The Romans gave the name of the *Port of Lancashire* to this part of the coast, which appears to be much changed since their time. "Tradition," says Mr. Whitaker, "the faithful recorder of many a fact, that history has forgotten, speaks confidently of the cause, ascribing the final ruin of Ribchester to the overwhelming violence of an earthquake. And nothing but such an accident could have originally changed the nature of the estuary, once the most remarkable in the county, or have thrown out that large and broad barrier of sand, which crosses the entrance, almost chokes the inlet into the tide, and contracts the original breadth of the navigable channel from the majestic extent of eight or nine miles, to the narrow span of a hundred yards." The last part of the Lancashire coast between the Ribble and

^a This is not correct. The boundary from the head of Solway Firth, is first formed by the Sark, a small river entering the Firth to the west of the Esk; then by a line drawn eastward from the Sark to the Esk; then by the Liddel, an eastern branch of the Esk; and lastly, by Kershope Water, a southern branch of the Liddel.—P.

^b Penmaenmawr^r is a promontory, 1550 feet high, projecting into

^c Welsh, *pen*, head; *maen*, stone or rock; and *mawr*, great.

the Mersey is nowhere bold or lofty, and it becomes gradually flatter towards the southern extremity.

The short line of coast in the county of Chester, may be compared to a headland stretching a considerable way into the Irish Channel; the Mersey and the Dee form the northern and southern boundaries. The coast of Flintshire extends between the last river and the Clwyd; it is in general low and marshy, but in some places, particularly in the neighbourhood of Holywell, the hills rise a considerable height above the sea. The county of Denbigh begins beyond the Clwyd; although rich in lead mines, and famed for its manufactures, it has no convenient port; it terminates in the peninsula and cape of Great Ormes Head at the mouth of the Conway, the boundary between Denbighshire and Caernarvonshire. The long line of coast in the last county is bold and lofty, broken by precipices, and indented by bays. An excellent road has been cut across the once inaccessible height of Penmaenmawr, which rises near the middle of an extensive inlet between Aberconway and Bangor.^b At the last place commence the Menai Straits, a narrow channel, which changes the character of the coast by separating Wales from the Isle of Anglesea, sometimes appearing as motionless as a lake, and at other times, flowing majestically from north to south.^c

The small island of Holyhead, on the west of Anglesea, at the entrance of St. George's Channel, is well known on account of its port, admirably adapted to afford shelter to ships on their way from the north or south. Hundreds of vessels unable to run out to sea from contrary winds, are sometimes detained in the harbour; they have been seen setting sail at the same time, as soon as the wind has changed in their favour. Returning to the Welsh coast, we observe no harbour of any consequence in the bay of Caernarvon, or the sweep from the southern extremity of the Menai Straits to the promontory of Bronhy-Swil, on the east of which are the roadstead of Aberdaron, and the gulf of Hell's Mouth. Beyond these places, the Caernarvonshire coast turns to the north-east, and reaches the limits of Merionethshire, a county in which the population, relatively to the surface, is less than in any other in Wales.

Cardigan Bay, the largest of any on the western side of the island, extending from the abrupt angle at Aberdaron Point to the north of St. Davids, washes North and South Wales. The coast of Merionethshire, part of the same bay, is wild and rugged: Harlech Fort defends a good anchorage, and Barmouth, the only port in the county, is situated at the mouth of the Avon, on an arm of the sea, into which other rivers and streams are discharged. The coast of Cardiganshire fronts the west, a considerable way below Aberystwith, and afterwards diverges gradually so as to front the north. The line of coast in this county is nearly equal to forty miles; it has been much exposed to the encroachments of the sea; once covered with numerous towns, a few wretched villages are all that can now be seen.

The bold coast of Pembrokeshire is bounded by nu-

the eastern entrance of the Menai Straits, about half way between Aberconway and Bangor. A road winds round it, on a ledge of rock.—P.

^c The Menai Straits—sometimes appear land-locked, like a lake, and at other times assume the form of a large navigable river, flowing with several curves, nearly in a direction from north to south. (Ed. Enc. art. England.)—P.

merous hills, or by steep and precipitous cliffs, and is cut in many places by different bays. The first of any consequence is that of Aberkikar, formed by Kenmaes-Head on the north, and Pendroy on the south. The last promontory is the northern boundary of Newport Haven, which stretches towards the south-west to Dinas-Head. A larger bay, that of F'isguard, cuts deeper into the land, and is limited on one side by Dinas-Head, and on the other by Pen Anglas. The coast beyond it, bending towards the south-west, winds round Strumble Head, and continues in a south-south-west direction to Cape St. David. Having doubled the last cape, we enter St. Bride's Bay, of a semicircular form, open on the west, and prolonged on the south by several small islands.

On the south-east of these islands, and at no great distance from them is situated Milford Haven, enclosed by lofty mountains, sinuous, penetrating far into the land, and of a sufficient depth to receive the largest ships. In time of war, Milford Haven is of importance as a naval station; in time of peace, it is equally so for the purposes of commerce, as a place of shelter from storms or contrary winds, to the merchant vessels that depart from or return to the Bristol Channel. The Dugledy and the Cleddy, which are navigable to Haverford and Narbeth, fall into the same bay; it thus affords an outlet to the produce of the coal mines and chalk pits in the vallies watered by these rivers.

Leaving Milford Haven, and pursuing an easterly course into the Bristol Channel, the coast of South Wales continues rocky and broken by natural cavities to the entrance of Caermarthen Bay, bounded on one side by the rock on which the small port of Tenby is built, and on the other by Penryhn Gwye point, the extremity of Gower, a remarkable headland of Glamorganshire; its limestone cliffs tower above the sea, and a great quantity of lime is obtained and exported from it to the English counties on the other side of the channel.

The bay, the peninsula and town of Swansea are situated on the east of Gower, nearly midway between Tenby and Bristol. The town, a convenient port, is built near the mouth of the Towy, and in the neighbourhood of its banks, coal, iron-ore and limestone are obtained. The Bristol Channel is so much contracted beyond the peninsula of Swansea, that all the heights on the opposite coasts of Devonshire and Somersetshire may be distinctly seen from the bay of Glamorgan.

The province of Wales abounds in coal, iron-ore and other valuable minerals; their conveyance to the coasts is facilitated by artificial communications, by rail-roads, canals and other works, in the construction of which much ingenuity has been exerted, and many natural obstacles have been surmounted. It is by the same means that the copper and tin ore dug in Cornwall are conveyed to the extensive founderies near the rich coal mines in Wales.

Of the Monmouthshire coast, it may be remarked that one part is low and marshy, while the other in the neighbourhood of the Wye is rocky and precipitous.

The Bristol Channel enters an extensive bay on the coast of Somersetshire, of which the curved and indented outline is nearly equal in length to sixty miles. The Axe and the Yeo convey their streams to the same coast; the former ascends to Glastonbury; the latter passes by Bridge-

water and Langport. Beyond the Yeo, the coast turns to the west, and in this part of it is situated the small port of Watchet, formerly famous for its herring fisheries, now better known for a species of alabaster, which is converted into hydraulic lime. Continuing our journey westwards, we pass along a rocky and rugged shore, to the safe and commodious port of Minehead, of which the trade has ceased, since the herring has disappeared from the neighbouring sea. Beyond the last place, the northern coast of Devonshire joins that of Somersetshire; the port of Ilfracombe is defended by a semicircular range of hills, which add greatly to the beauty and salubrity of its situation: it is visited by strangers in the bathing season, and it carries on a regular intercourse with Bristol, Swansea and Milford. The coast turns to the south from Ilfracombe to the mouth of the Taw in the bay of Barnstaple, in which the small town of Bideford may be remarked for the industry of its inhabitants; they carry on a great coasting trade with Ireland and Scotland, convey to Wales the produce of the mines in Devonshire and Cornwall, and send a considerable number of vessels to the fisheries on the banks of Newfoundland. The promontory of Hartland Point forms the southern extremity of Barnstaple Bay; at no great distance from it, the northern part of the Cornish coast, the last on the western side of England, commences. A long and broken shore extends from Beedshaven to St. Ives, between which and the Land's End, the most westerly point in the island, no harbour of any consequence can be mentioned. Some statistical results, relative to the population of the western coast, may be subjoined.

	Population.	Square miles.	Inhabitants per square mile.
Cumberland and Westmoreland . . .	211,700	2241	94
Lancashire and Cheshire . . .	1,349,500	2382	468
Wales—western part of . . .	369,850	3331	111
Counties on the Bristol Channel . . .	2,392,400	4146	160
Total	4,323,450	12,600	189

The southern side of England is bounded by the southern coasts of Cornwall and Devonshire, by the coasts of Dorsetshire, Hampshire and Sussex, and by part of Kent.

Doubling the Land's End, and passing between the main-land and the Scilly Isles, we enter the bay of St. Michael, on which are situated the three ports of Penzance, Marazion and Helston. The same bay affords, in the event of storms or contrary winds, a safe retreat to the ships that return to or depart from England. It terminates on the east near the promontory of the Lizard,* which may be mentioned as the southernmost point in Great Britain, being somewhat below the fiftieth degree of latitude. The shore is irregularly indented from the same point to the southern extremity of the Ram Head, that fronts the coast of Devonshire. Several bays and havens lie on this part of the coast of Cornwall, among others, Falmouth Haven, the estuaries of the Fowey and the Looe, and lastly, that of the Tamar, where the harbour and sound of Plymouth, one of the first military ports in England, pass between the counties of Cornwall and Devon. The harbour is formed by the junction of the Plym and the Tamar at their confluence with the

* Lizard Point.

sea. The Eddystone rocks are irregularly scattered about the distance of twelve miles from the middle of Plymouth Sound. Exposed to the tremendous swells from the Bay of Biscay and the Atlantic Ocean, the waves break over them with great violence, and the number of shipwrecks might be still as great as formerly, were not vessels warned of their danger by a light-house, which attests the skill and ingenuity of the late Mr. Smeaton.

Start Point and Forward Point are the boundaries of the spacious and safe bay of Dartmouth. The harbour of the same name is defended by a fort and two batteries; it may contain five hundred ships. Torbay, about five miles to the north-east of Dartmouth, is not less than twelve miles in circumference; as it affords a secure retreat against westerly winds, it has become a *rendezvous* to the royal navy. The coast is protected by a natural rampart of rocks, crowned by thick woods and lofty trees. The clefts in the rocks are very large; Kent's hold,^a one of the most remarkable, is a wide cave about six hundred feet in length. The small river Teign and the Exe enter the English Channel on the north-east of Torbay; from the mouth of the last river, the shore turns gradually towards the south,^b and unites at Lyme-Regis with that of Dorsetshire. The shore fronts the south-west at the last place,^c and stretches as far south as Portland-Bill.^d Thus Start Point and Portland-Bill may be considered the western and eastern extremities of a large gulf, in which are included the numerous small bays between them, and the greater part of the Devon and Dorset coasts. A safe road for ships is situated on the north of Portland, but the southern point or Portland-Race, so called from the rapid currents produced by the tides, is perhaps more dangerous than any other part of the Channel. Having passed Portland-Race, we enter the bay of Weymouth on which the town of the same name is built, and only separated from Melcombe-Regis by a bridge over the Wye.^e The harbour is completely sheltered by the surrounding hills, which by opposing a barrier to the north winds, add considerably to the mildness and salubrity of the climate. The bays of Swanwich^f and Studland are situated on the same coast, on the north-east of Cape St. Albans;^g the spacious haven of Poole communicates with the latter; as its entrance is very narrow in proportion to the width, that circumstance accounts sufficiently for the stillness of its waters. Peverel-Point forms the eastern limit of the county,^h and at no great distance from it, is seen the Isle of Wight, which from the mildness of its climate, and the richness and variety of its vegetation, may be considered one of the finest situations in Great Britain. It is twenty-two miles in length and more than twelve in breadth; bounded by four sides that are almost rectilinear, the two northern front England, and the two others, the open sea. It thus affords shelter to the flourishing ports and the excellent anchorages on the opposite shore.

To judge from the appearance of the rocks on the island, and from the projecting point of Hurst Castle on the opposite shore of Hampshire, it is by no means improbable that the Isle of Wight and the mainland were

once united. The natural causeway on which Hurst Castle stands, runs two miles into the sea, and approaches within a mile of the island. The tide rushes with great violence through the strait thus formed, and the depth of the water is not less than twenty-eight fathoms. The bold ledges on the side of the island may be attributed to the impetuosity of the waves, but the opposite coast is in many places undermined by the water which the tide collects into a smooth and sequestered bay.

The Avon descends by Christchurch to the Hampshire coast. The bay of Christchurch is formed by the streams of the Avon and the Stour, which join each other a short way below the town. As the promontory of Hengistbury Head, its western limit, appears when seen from the sea to be connected with the town, it is generally known by the name of Christchurch Head.

Southampton Water or Trissanton Bay, a remarkable inlet on the same coast, extends in a north-westerly direction from Calshot Castle to the distance of ten miles; large vessels can sail to its head. The shores of the inlet are varied by picturesque scenery and romantic sites; on one side they terminate in the New Forest, on the other are the majestic ruins of Netley abbey.

Further east, the coast of Hampshire fronts the south-west, and that part of the Isle of Wight, where the river Medina throws itself into the channel. The well known road of Spithead, the common rendezvous of ships of war and merchant vessels on their departure for long voyages or distant expeditions, lies between the Isle of Wight and the entrance to Portsmouth harbour.

The coast of Sussex begins on the east of Portsmouth harbour, and is indented by a large basin or inlet, in which several small islands are situated. The port of Chichester is formed by a branch of the inlet, and a flat shore extends beyond it to the headland of Selsea Bill. Although some rocks are scattered in different directions near Bognor, the coast continues low and apparently almost level with the sea, to the neighbourhood of Little Hampton. The South Downs form a better defined barrier; approaching gradually to the shore, they are broken by the lofty cliffs, which terminate in the bold promontory of Beachy Head, the highest of any on the southern coast of England, dreaded by mariners on account of numerous shipwrecks, and pierced by several caves to which the sea finds a passage. A sandy shore stretches from Beachy Head to Hastings Rock, but the port of Hastings lies between two cliffs. On a capacious bay near the eastern extremity of the county, are the once frequented ports of Winchelsea and Rye; the sea has now receded from the one, and the other is so much encumbered with sand as to admit only very small vessels. The long coast of Sussex, upwards of seventy miles in length, is bounded on the east by Dungeness, the extremity of Romney Marsh.

The part of the Kentish coast next to Sussex, is low, flat and sandy; a hilly district extends beyond Sandgate, passes from the interior of the county to the shore, and ends in the chalky cliffs that are familiar to the readers of Shakspeare. Part of the same range forms a sort of curve, and recedes a short way from the shore; the town

^a Kent's Hole. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b So as to front the south.—P.

^c The shore fronts the south-west from a little east of Lyme-Regis to the Bill of Portland.—P.

^d The Bill of Portland.

^e The Wey.

^f Swanage Bay.

^g St. Albans Head.

^h Peverell Point is the eastern extremity of the county (Ed. Enc.)—rather of the Isle of Purbeck, fronting the Isle of Wight, and on the south side of the entrance of Swanage Bay.—P.

of Dover is situated below it, and occupies almost all the space between the cliffs and the sea. The same chalky range, broken in different places by intervening hollows, stretches to the South Foreland, which may be considered the eastern extremity of the southern coast, for beyond it the shore recedes and fronts the east, leaving a large space that appears to have been abandoned by the sea.^a To complete the survey of the same part of England, it may be necessary to subjoin a table of its superficies and population.

Counties.	Population.	Square miles.	Inhabitants per square mile
Cornwall (a half) . . .	131,300	663	198
Devon (a half) . . .	223,950	1,289	173
Dorset	147,400	1,005	147
Hants	289,300	1,628	177
Sussex	237,700	1,463	162
Kent (two fifths) . . .	134,600	615	248
Total	1,164,250	6,663	Mean 172½

The eastern side of England is formed by part of Kent, and by the coasts of Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Lincoln, Yorkshire, Durham and Northumberland.

The Downs, a much frequented road for ships, particularly in time of war, front the port of Deal, and are not less than six miles in length from the South to the North Foreland.^b The dangerous Goodwin Sands lie off the port of Deal, and extend to the neighbourhood of the North Foreland; a vessel is always moored on them, and lights are constantly burning to warn mariners of their danger.

The Isle of Thanet, part of Kent, separated from the rest of the county by the narrow channel of the Stour, is about ten miles in length from the North Foreland to Sarr Bridge, and eight miles from Westgate to Sandwich Ferry. It has undergone great changes; now hardly a peninsula, it was an island in the time of the Romans, and at the same period, the sea between it and Kent,^c was four miles in breadth. Such was the greatest distance between the island and the mainland; on the southern side it was not more than two, and at Sarr or the port, it did not exceed a mile and a half. The South met the North Sea at the same place, which was called *Northmutha*, the mouth or entrance of the latter.^d An accustomed passage to London by sea, at so late a period as the middle of the fourth century, lay between the Isle of Thanet and the mainland of Kent. The breadth of the passage was considerably diminished in the time of the venerable Bede, who says it was then only three furlongs wide, and so shallow as to be fordable at two places. It afforded, however, a passage for small vessels about the period of the Norman conquest; at last the inhabitants observing that the tide flowed no longer with any rapidity, began to erect dikes, and brought about the present change. Formerly separated from the mainland by the channel of the *Portus Ritupensis*, it is now at most a river isle, having the Stour-Wantsome on the

south, the Mill-stream on the south-west, and the Nethergong-Wantsome on the west; the rest of Thanet fronts the sea as before. The junction was thus effected, and the sea, impeded in its course, threw up immense quantities of sand; in this way, *Estanore* on the eastern shore was formed, being originally an island, which the monks united to Thanet by means of a causeway.

The Kentish coast becomes marshy as it descends the Swale, a narrow arm of the sea, which bathes the Isle of Sheppey.

It turns eastwards^e to the entrance of the Medway into the Swale, and on the north of the last place are the projecting fort of Sheerness, and the mouth of the Thames. The last river discharges itself into the sea between the North Foreland in Kent, and the Naze, a hooked promontory in Essex, or more definitely, between Sheerness in Kent, and Leigh in Essex.

The coast of Essex, the most southern of the three maritime counties, that form the peninsula between the Thames and the Wash, is bounded on the south by the Thames, and on the north by the Stour. Essex, Suffolk and Norfolk form a continuous tract of great extent, undistinguished by any considerable eminence or ridge, but sufficiently elevated in most places to be dry, arable and productive. The Crouch, the first river north of the Thames, on the Essex coast, enters the sea at Foulness; it may be mentioned on account of the oysters, which are taken at its mouth, and which are considered superior to any others in England. The coast runs northwards from the mouth of the Crouch to the distance of about ten miles, where the fine bay formed by the Blackwater, is enlarged by a great number of small streams, and by the Chelmer, which has been rendered navigable to Chelmsford.

The Colne, which communicates with the northern shores of the same bay, is now navigable for ships to Wivenhoe, and for smaller vessels to Colchester. A more important bay, on the northern confines of the Essex coast, receives the waters of the Stour and Orwell, the former of which is navigable to the distance of twenty-eight miles. Harwich is built on a peninsula at the mouth of the Stour, and the packet boats to Holland and Belgium set sail from its harbour. More than once during the great struggle between the English and the Dutch, a hundred men of war, and three hundred merchant vessels, have been moored at the same time in the spacious haven of Harwich. The greater part of the Essex coast is low, marshy and exposed to the encroachments of the sea. According to tradition the outlets of the Stour and Orwell were formerly situated on the north of Landguard Fort, and the Fleets, as they are now called, formed part of the channel.

The waving shore of Suffolk is chiefly composed of loamy cliffs, continually falling down, and occasioning great changes on the coast, so that whole towns and villages have been destroyed by the sea. The small town

^a Between the North and South Forelands, the shore fronts the east. Off the coast lie the Downs, and beyond them the Goodwin Sands, supposed to have been originally a part of Kent, and submerged about the end of the reign of William II. Near the South Foreland, the chalk cliffs recede from the coast in a direction west by north, and leave a low tertiary tract between them and the chalk of Thanet.—P.

^b Between the North and South Forelands are the Downs. They extend about six miles. The Goodwin Sands extend N. N. E. and

S. S. W. about 12 miles. (Ed. Enc.) The South Foreland is in lat. 51° 12' N., long. 1° 25' E. The North Foreland, in lat. 51° 25' N., long. 1° 29' E. The Downs begin near the S. Foreland, and lie off the port of Deal.—P.

^c On the south-west side.—P.

^d The North Sea entered at what was, from this circumstance, called *Northmutha*, or North-Mouth. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e So as to front the east.—P.

of Felix Stow^a is situated to the north of Harwich Bay at the mouth of the Deben, which is navigable to Woodbridge, a distance of ten miles. The Alde and the Blyth are only navigable a few miles: Orford, near the mouth of the former, was once a flourishing port; it is now wholly blocked up by sand and alluvial deposits. Aldborough, situated, as its name imports, on the same river, has on the contrary been almost washed away by the sea. The Suffolk coast stretches due north from Orfordness to Southwold; the last place is built at the mouth of the Blyth, on Solebay, which was formerly bounded by Eastonness, and another cape to the south-east of Dunwich, but these limits have been removed by the waves. The picturesque town of Lowestoff, near the northern extremity of the coast, may be remarked on account of its position on the most eastern promontory in Great Britain. The sea coast of Norfolk is formed either by clayey cliffs, continually a prey to the ocean, or by low sandy shores, overspread with loose pebbles, and rising in many places into a kind of natural bank, covered with sand that is held together by the roots of the sea reed grass. Behind these sand-hills are salt marshes of considerable extent, occasionally inundated by the tides, which find an entrance through gaps between the hillocks. Hunstanton Cliff, at the mouth of the Wash, is the only rocky eminence on the coast. Various ports are formed on the northern side by creeks and bays, but they can only admit small vessels. Sandbanks, the dread of the coasting mariners, and the occasion of numerous shipwrecks, lie off the coast; of these the most remarkable run parallel to the coast of Yarmouth, and form the celebrated Yarmouth Roads, a place of great resort for ships; they may ride there in security, although the entrance is difficult and dangerous.

A great part of the Norfolk coast fronts the north, and bounds on the south the gulf of the Wash, which receives the waters of many streams and rivers. The same gulf serves as a limit between Norfolk and Lincolnshire. The coast of Lincolnshire, like that of Holland, is protected by dikes against the waves. It is distinguishable by churches, not by hills, being so low as to be seen only a short way from the land. The sea has made encroachments in some places, and the remains of forests have been discovered under the water; in others, fruitful tracts have been gained by its recession. Former ports are now either obstructed with sand, or wholly deserted by the ocean, a circumstance which has been adduced by some writers to account for the decay of trade in this part of England. The Lincolnshire coast is upwards of a hundred miles in extent; it stretches first to the north-east, and then inclines westwards to the mouth of the Humber, which separates it from Yorkshire.

The river Humber, as it is commonly called, is a large gulf or arm of the sea, at the mouth of the Ouse, enlarged by the Trent and its numerous feeders, and by all the streams from Yorkshire.^b The extremity of Holderness or Spurn-Head, a long and curved promontory,^c on which a light-house has been erected for the direction of ships, protects the mouth of the estuary. Sunk Island

consists of the sand, which has been deposited on the Yorkshire side. The sea has occasioned great changes in this part of the country. Headdon, a free port in the time of King John, and so populous as to contain three parishes, is now little better than a village with scarcely any harbour. The shore continues low and flat from the Humber to the neighbourhood of Bridlington Bay, which is sheltered by Flamborough-Head from the north-east and north-west winds. The character of the coast changes at the same promontory; snow-white rocks and lofty cliffs stretching far out at sea, serve as beacons to mariners. They are composed of mouldering limestone, and their base is pierced by numerous caverns, and broken by the violence of the waves. In the breeding season, their summits are tenanted by countless multitudes of sea fowl, that animate the air and ocean all around. A remarkable ledge called Filey-Bridge, connecting a kind of natural mole, runs nearly half a mile into the sea from the other extremity of the bay;^d the rocks are left dry at low water, and serve to protect the coast against the high waves, which break upon them in stormy weather. Further north are situated the town and port of Scarborough in the recess of a bay, forming a sort of amphitheatre crowned by a cliff or *scar*, from which the name of the place has been derived. The port is the only one between the Humber and the Tyne, that affords a secure refuge for large ships in violent gales from the east. Lofty hills of alum rock bound the coast beyond Scarborough; on the north of them is Robinhood's Bay, in which the small but populous village of the same name is inhabited by fishermen, who supply Whitby with the produce of their industry. The prosperity of the last place depends chiefly on its extensive alum works, and the aluminous schistus which abounds in the neighbourhood. A rude and precipitous coast extends from Whitby to the mouth of the Tees; many fishing villages, singularly placed like nests on the ledges of the rocks, are situated in different places, and no part of the English coast abounds more with various kinds of fish.

The river Tees, although not even navigable as far as Darlington, forms at its mouth a considerable estuary, which separates the coasts of Yorkshire and Durham. The town of Hartlepool, built on a small promontory, surrounded on all sides except the west by the sea, is the first place on the north of the Tees. Sunderland stands on the right bank of the mouth of the Wear, and Wearmouth on the left. The two towns are united by a bridge of a single arch, of which the span is 236 feet, and the height from the keystone to the level of the highest tide, not less than ninety-eight. The view of the two towns, and of the bridge that unites them, is remarkable; the arch appears suspended in the air, ships of considerable burden with topsails set, pass beneath it, while heavy waggons are drawn by many horses along its aerial causeway: vessels are constantly loading and unloading on both banks of the Wear; they sail down the river when the tide is ebbing, while others arrive from the sea when it is flowing. Coal and limestone are transported

^a Felixtow, Felixstow. (Shoberl.)—P.

^b The Humber is formed by the confluence of the Ouse and the Trent.—P.

^c The extremity of Holderness [the low country S. E. of the Yorkshire Wolds] contracts into a neck of land, forming a curve towards

the south-west. The extremity of this neck of land is the Spurn Head, a sickle-shaped promontory. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d Filey Bay, between Flamborough Head on the south, and Filey Point on the north.—P.

in numerous waggons along iron rail-ways to the place of embarkation ; lastly, two fine towns crown this magnificent amphitheatre, in which the varied resources of art and industry form a singular contrast with many natural and picturesque beauties. The Tyne falls into the sea at no great distance from the Wear, and serves equally for the exportation of coal, lime and many other articles. These two rivers, watering an extent of coast, which a foot-passenger may walk over in three or four hours, receive annually 16,000 vessels, and send them away laden with the produce of their banks. It need not therefore excite surprise, if six flourishing towns, containing in all a population of 86,000 inhabitants, are situated on this narrow tract, of which the length is little more than the breadth.^a

North Shields is the first port on the coast of Northumberland ; beyond it, at the distance of about a mile and a half, rise the majestic ruins of Tynemouth Castle. Small vessels sail on the Wansbeck to Morpeth, a distance of five or six miles ; but the Coquet is not even navigable to Rothbury, the only town that has been built on its banks. Holy Island is situated on the north of the Farn Isles, which lie nearly opposite to Bamborough Castle, once a strong hold of great importance. A sandy shore extends from Bamborough to the mouth of the Tweed.

Eastern Coast.	Population, census 1821.	Extent, square miles.	Inhabitants per square mile.
Kent (a part) . . .	300,000	921	326
Essex	295,300	1532	192
Suffolk	276,000	1512	182
Norfolk	351,300	2092	167
Lincoln	288,800	2746	105
York	1,197,130	5961	200
Durham	211,900	1061	199
Northumberland . .	203,000	1871	108
Total	3,123,430	17,696	Mean 185

It may be remarked, that no islands of any consequence are situated near the eastern shores ; the Isle of Wight, and a few others of a much smaller size, lie on the south ; the Scilly Islands, Anglesea and Man front the western coast. The estuary of the Exe is the principal inlet on the south ; the most important on the east are that of the Thames, the Wash, and the indentation by which the Humber communicates with the German Ocean ; lastly, Cardigan Bay and the Bristol Channel, the largest inlet on the English coast, are situated on the west.

The remarkable resemblance between the British coasts and the opposite shores of the continent, has not failed to attract the attention of geologists. "In the neighbourhood of Aberdeen," says M. Coquebert, "one might imagine himself transported to the precipitous granite shores of Norway, and below Aberdeen the coasts are very similar to those of Denmark." There is a great resemblance between the Low Countries on the continent and the marshy districts in the south-east of England. Thus, the elevation of the land, and the nature and stratification of the soil, are the same in maritime Flanders, and in the low shores on the

opposite side. The superficial strata on both sides, consist of clay silt and sand, which are mixed in many places with vegetable remains. They cover on both sides, a deep stratum of dark coloured clay, unmixed with extraneous matter ; lastly, they are bounded on both sides by lines of hills. Tropical plants have been discovered in the British and the Belgic ridge. Cocoa nuts and the fruits of the areca have been collected on the Belgic side ; many petrified fruits of the same sort, and many impressions of tropical plants, have been found in the Isle of Sheppey. The coasts of Devonshire and Cornwall may be compared to those in the departments of Finisterre and the North Coast. The same remark is also applicable to the marshes in Sussex, and to others in the Pays de Caux. Appearances render it highly probable that France and England were once united ; the deposits on the coast of Kent, extending to a great distance on the other side of the Channel, the narrow strait separating the two countries, and the nature of the rocks, as easily undermined as clay, sand or chalk, may be considered the proofs of a disruption.^b

Four rivulets, which rise from different parts of the Coteswold Hills in Gloucestershire, form the sources of the Thames, the most important of the British rivers ; these streams are the Lech, the Colne, the Churne and the Isis. The last is navigable to a considerable distance, but the course is sinuous, and the river abounds in shallows. It waters Oxford, and receives, below the same town, the streams of the Cherwell. It is joined by the Thame in the neighbourhood of Dorchester in Oxfordshire. The last river is formed by different streams, some of which have their sources in the central districts of Buckinghamshire, others on the confines of Hertfordshire, and several in the lower part of Oxfordshire. The one and the other, after their junction, form the Thames or the Thame-isis, as it was originally called. The general direction of its course is towards the south-east, but from Wallingford to Pangbourn it is almost due south, and from the latter place to Henley it bends to the north-east. In the vicinity of the metropolis, it turns with a bold swell to the east, and pursues the same direction, which is only varied by broad reaches, until it falls into the sea.

The Thames receives not fewer than eleven navigable rivers, and six of a comparatively large size, although not navigable. The length of its course is equal to a hundred and sixty miles, and the length of the navigation to a hundred and thirty from its mouth. It is navigable for vessels of almost any burden to Deptford, for vessels of four hundred tons to the Pool, and of more than two hundred to London Bridge. The effect of the tide is perceptible at the distance of eighty miles from its mouth. It waters a hilly country and the most fruitful districts in England, but in no part of its course does it assume the character of a rapid river. It is distinguished by clear and limpid waters, which are only discoloured after great floods ; when these happen, the banks are in some places submerged ; still, the injury which the husbandman sustains, is not so great as that occasioned by smaller but more impetuous streams.

^a C. Dupin, Force Commerciale de la Grande Bretagne.

^b "These deposits [viz. green sand (*glauconie*), chalk, plastic clay, and other formations analogous to those in the environs of Paris (i. e. the tertiary formations of the Paris basin,) just mentioned as skirting the English coast of the Channel,] which are continued beyond the

Straits of Calais, and even to a great distance in the interior of France, are irrefutable proofs that Great Britain was originally united with the continent. Does not the little width of the Straits of Calais also prove that the ocean may have gradually undermined strata as easily broken as sand, clay and chalk?" M. B. t. viii. p. 571.—P.

The principal source of the Severn, the second river in Great Britain, is a small lake on the eastern side of Plinlimmon, at no great distance from the head of the Wye, and on the borders of two shires, those of Cardigan and Montgomery. Watering the last county, and also Shropshire, Worcestershire and Gloucestershire, it discharges itself into the Bristol Channel. It flows through a hilly but well wooded country, in the upper part of its course, and bears the name of the Hafren until it arrives at Llanidloes; but, in ancient times, it was known to the Britons by the same name through the whole of its course.^a Passing through the romantic vale of Montgomeryshire, it enters the great plain of Shropshire, and, after a considerable circuit, turns abruptly beyond Welshpool, to the south-east. Continuing in the same direction, it almost encircles the town of Shrewsbury; it then traverses the famous Coalbrook-dale, passes Bridgenorth, bends to the south, leaves the county of Salop, and enters Worcestershire at Bewdley. As it proceeds, it is joined by the numerous canals that bear the treasures of Birmingham, Kidderminster, and the trading towns in Warwickshire, Staffordshire and Worcestershire. It crosses part of the vale of Evesham, between the Malvern Hills and the heights of Bredon. It divides itself into two branches about a mile above Gloucester; these unite below the same town, and enclose the tract, which is called Alney Island. It is enlarged in this part of its course by several streams, and communicates with the canals that convey the products of the woollen manufactories in the county. Lastly, it receives the Wye near Chepstow, and the Avon from Somersetshire.

One might be apt to form an incorrect notion of the Severn from the nature of the country in which it has its source. Thus, it would be inaccurate to consider it an impetuous river; in some places, it is broad and shallow, and the fields on both sides are liable to inundations; in others, the waters are almost concealed by deep and overhanging banks. Not broken by torrents below Llanidloes, it resembles more the slow rivers in the extensive plains of England than the rapid streams that flow through the narrow vallies and ravines in Wales. It is connected by numerous canals with the principal trading districts in the kingdom, being united with the Thames on the east, and the Trent, the Mersey and the Humber on the north.^b

The Washes serve as an outlet to many rivers, which intersect a low and marshy country; if it is not so populous as other districts in England, it may be attributed to the stagnant and unwholesome waters that cover the greater part of it. Natural obstacles retarded the cultiva-

tion and improvement of the soil, and it was found necessary at so early a period as the middle ages to obtain the resources of Dutch industry, to secure the land against inundations, and to recover plains which had been submerged by the sea and by rivers. The superfluous water has been partly directed of late years into different canals, which, by facilitating inland navigation, have diffused wealth among the inhabitants. The Great Ouse rises on the confines of two counties, those of Northampton and Oxford; it first proceeds eastwards, and waters Buckinghamshire; it then pursues a very sinuous course, until it reaches Bedford, where it becomes navigable; flowing through Huntingdonshire, Cambridgeshire, and the Isle of Ely, it passes into Norfolk, and falls into the Wash at Lynn-Regis. The principal feeders are the Nen from Northamptonshire, the Cam from Cambridgeshire, the Little Ouse from Norfolk, and the Mildenhall^c from Suffolk, all of them navigable rivers. The course of the Great Ouse is not less than a hundred miles in length. In the latter part of its course, it communicates with the extensive marshes which abound on this part of the eastern coast. The Welland and the Glen flow into the bay of Foss-Dike Wash, so called from the ancient *Fossa* of the Romans, which was repaired by Henry the First, and extended from Lincoln to the Trent; at the former place, the Witham becomes navigable, and afterwards falls into the same bay. Such are the principal rivers that communicate with the Washes, the natural drains of the extensive marshes on the low shores of England.

The Trent, one of the finest rivers in Great Britain, and the chief link in that vast chain of inland navigation, which unites all the central parts of England, may be more fully described.^d It rises from the hills beyond Newcastle under Lyne, in that part of Staffordshire near the confines of Cheshire. Following first a south-easterly course, it turns abruptly by the east to the north near Barton, and serves a short way as a boundary between Leicestershire and Derbyshire;^e it crosses the southern part of the latter, skirts the north-western portion of the former county,^f and enters Nottinghamshire a little below Thrumpton. It then waters Nottingham, Newark and Gainsborough, enters Lincolnshire at East Stockworth,^g and falls into the Humber about five miles below Burton upon Stratler.^h Vessels sail on the Trent to the distance of more than a hundred miles from its mouth.

The same river waters verdant meadows, and flows through populous districts. It meets with numerous canals beyond Newcastle under Lyne, some of which extend in a direction parallel to its course. Enlarged by

^a Or Severn swift, guilty of Maiden's death.—Milton.

"Lochrine, king of the Britons, married Guendolen, the daughter of Corineus, duke of Cornwall; but he loved Estrildis, a fair captive, whom he had taken in battle with Humber king of the Huns; and had by her a daughter, equally fair, whose name was Sabra. The secret of the king's love was confined to a very few, lest it should be revealed to Corineus. But when his fear was removed by the death of the duke, not content with secret enjoyment, he divorces Guendolen, and makes Estrildis his queen. Guendolen, tormented with jealousy and rage, departs into Cornwall, gives battle to her husband, who is shot with an arrow near the river Stour, and ends his life. But not so ends the fury of Guendolen, who throws Estrildis and her daughter Sabra into a river; and to leave a monument of revenge, proclaims that the stream be thenceforth called after the damsel's name, which, by length of time, has been changed into *Sabrina* or *Severn*, the ancient name of Hafren falling gradually into disuse." Such is the account, given by Milton, in the first book of his history of England.

^b The barges on the Severn are 120 feet long, 20 broad, and 5 deep; they carry more than 100 tons.

^c The Larke, flowing by Mildenhall in Suffolk.—P.

^d Or Trent, who like some earth-born giant spreads His thirty arms along the indented meads.

Milton.

And bounteous Trent that in himself encams Both thirty sorts of fish, and thirty sundry streams.

Spenser.

"The name," says Camden, "is of Saxon origin; although some ignorant and idle pretenders imagine the name to be derived from the French word *trente*, and upon that account have feigned thirty rivers running into it, and likewise as many kinds of fish swimming in it."

^e So in the *Edinb. Encyc.* It should read: Staffordshire and Derbyshire.—P.

^f Of Leicestershire (correct).—P.

^g East Stockwith. (Luckombe).—P.

^h Stather. (Luckombe).—P.

several streams, it enters the fruitful meadows that are bounded on the left by the hills in Sherwood Forest. It divides itself into two branches in the neighbourhood of Newark, one of which flows beneath the walls of that town, while the other waters Kelham. The two branches unite in an extensive plain below the last place. It passes through a number of fens in a very uninteresting country beyond Gainsborough; joined at last by the Yorkshire Ouse, it forms the great estuary of the Humber.

The Blyth, a river of some importance, joins the Trent in the neighbourhood of King's Bromley. The Tame, which rises near Coleshill in Warwickshire, falls into it a few miles above Burton. It receives the Dove below the same place, a feeder which rises near the Peak in Derbyshire, and passes through the dell of Dovedale. The Derwent, like the Dove, has its source near the Peak, and flows parallel to it until it reaches Derby; but as it proceeds, it bends eastwards, and unites with the Trent at Sawley near the confines of Leicestershire and Nottinghamshire. The Soar issues from the neighbourhood of Hinckley, passes through a rich grazing country, and almost encompasses the town of Leicester. Continuing its course along a very fruitful tract, it receives the Wreke from the north-east, and falls into the Trent at no great distance from Cavendish Bridge.

The tributary streams from the north^a are not less important. The Don falls into the Northern Ouse near Thorne. The Calder rises in Yorkshire, not far from the borders of Lancashire, joins the Aire near Ferrybridge, and falls into the Ouse. It is remarkable on account of the numerous canals by which it is intersected, and which form a communication between the eastern and western seas. The Ure issues from Wensleydale in Yorkshire, rushes into a deep cascade at Aysgarth,^b joins the Swale at Aldborough, and their united streams form the Ouse. The latter waters York, Cawood, where it receives the Wharfe, Selby, and other towns; it takes the name of the Humber at its confluence with the Trent, below which it forms the great estuary that divides Yorkshire and Lincolnshire.

If the basins of the rivers, which have been now mentioned, be determined, if their extent and relative populousness be ascertained, it may be easy to compare them with each other, or to estimate their relative importance. The basin of the Thames is included in the following counties.

Counties.	Population, census of 1821.	Square miles.	Inhabitants to each square mile.
Kent	300,000	921	326
Surrey	406,700	757	537
Berks	134,700	756	178
Oxford	139,800	751	186
Buckingham	136,800	740	185
Hertford	132,400	528	251
Middlesex	1,167,500	281	4,154
Essex	295,300	1,532	192
Suffolk	276,000	1,512	182
Total	2,989,200	7,778	Mean 384

^a As there is some confusion in the language here used, respecting the connexion of the different streams forming the Humber, I will just state, that the Humber is an arm of the sea or estuary, formed by the union of the Ouse, from the north, and the Trent, from the south, and that the Trent receives most of the streams from the Midland counties, viz. the Blyth, Tame, Dove, Derwent, Soar, &c. and the Ouse, those from Yorkshire, viz. the Ure and Swale, which form it by their union,

It appears from the above table that the basin of the Thames is the most populous part of Great Britain. In extent it is equal to more than an eleventh part of England and Scotland, while a fifth part of the British population are collected on its surface. It has been remarked in the account of France that the population of the basin of the Seine, is to the whole population of the kingdom as one to five; that of the basin of the Thames is to the whole population of Great Britain in the same proportion. The superficial extent of the former is to that of France as one to nine, while that of the latter is to the whole of England and Scotland as one to eleven and a half. It has been seen that the average number of inhabitants on each square mile of the basin of the Thames is equal to three hundred and eighty-four persons, but the mean number on each square mile of the basin of the Seine does not exceed a hundred and eighty-four. Thus on an equal superficies, the population of the one is more than double that of the other. The country watered by the Thames is naturally less productive than the banks of the Seine; the difference then in the number of inhabitants must be attributed to the more advanced state of commerce and industry. It is a remarkable fact that the population of the basin of the Thames has more than doubled since a comparatively recent period; in other words, since the canals were commenced, and the numerous public works, which have been undertaken and completed in England.^c

The counties bordering on the Bristol Channel, or the country from the most western promontory in Wales to the Land's End in Cornwall—the south-western extremity of England, may be included in the basin of the Severn. This large tract is contained in the following counties.

Counties.	Inhabitants.	Square miles.	Inhabitants to each square mile
Pembroke	37,750	305	123
Caermarthen	92,000	974	97
Brecon	44,500	754	59
Glamorgan	103,800	792	131
Monmouth	72,300	459	158
Hereford	105,300	860	128
Radnor	23,500	426	55
Shropshire	210,300	1341	157
Montgomery	61,100	1070	57
Worcester	188,200	729	244
Warwick	280,000	902	310
Gloucester	342,600	1251	273
Wilts (½)	113,300	688	164
Somerset	362,500	1642	221
Devon (½)	223,950	1289	173
Cornwall (½)	131,300	663	198
Total	2,392,400	14,145	Mean 169

Thus the basin of the Severn is almost twice as extensive as that of the Thames, but the population, relatively to the surface, is not nearly so great. The country near the Bristol Channel furnishes numerous resources to commerce, and various employments to industry. In this part of England, the three natural kingdoms are rendered subservient to the wants of the inhabitants.

the Nidd, the Wharfe, the Derwent, and the Aire, the last of which receives, in its course, the Calder and the Don.—P.

^b "The Ure rises in the vale of Wensley, and passes by Aysgarth, where it forms a superb cascade." M. B. t. viii. p. 569.—Aysgarth Force is a cascade on the Tees, a few miles W. of Barnard Castle in Durham, 23 yards in height. (Luckombe.)—P.

^c C. Dupin, Force Commerciale de la Grande Bretagne. Book ii. Chap 1.

Gloucestershire and Somersetshire are fruitful in grain, and abound in oxen and sheep; Monmouthshire, Devonshire, Cornwall, and the opposite coast of Wales, are not less distinguished for their mineral wealth. Additional facilities are afforded to an immense inland trade by the Severn, from the extent of its course, from the great difference in the soil and the natural productions of the country which it waters, and also from the no less striking difference in the products of industry to which it furnishes the means of exportation.

The following counties make up the basin of the Wash.

Counties.	Population.	Square miles.	Inhabitants to each square mile.
Norfolk . . .	351,300	2092	167
Cambridge . . .	124,400	858	145
Bedford . . .	85,400	463	184
Huntingdon . . .	49,800	370	124
Northampton . . .	165,800	1018	163
Rutland . . .	18,900	148	127
Lincoln (§) . . .	192,533	4831	105
Total	988,133	9780	Mean 145

If the population of the basin of the Wash is less considerable than that of the Severn, it may be attributed to the nature of the country. It is well known that great difficulties had to be surmounted, before it could be rendered habitable or fit for cultivation; even at present, many parts of it are covered with stagnant waters and unwholesome marshes.

Six counties form the basin of the Humber.

Counties.	Population.	Square miles.	Inhabitants to each square mile.
Lincoln (§) . . .	96,267	915	105
Leicester . . .	178,100	803	222
Nottingham . . .	190,700	837	228
Derby . . .	217,600	1033	210
Stafford . . .	347,900	1148	303
York . . .	1,197,130	5961	200
Total	2,227,697	10,697	Mean 208½

Thus, although the basin of the Humber is not much larger than that of the Wash, it surpasses it greatly in the number of inhabitants.

The Mersey is, without doubt, one of the secondary English rivers, but it waters a country, of which the inhabitants are distinguished by their industry and their wealth. It is formed by several streams in Cheshire; it passes Stockport, and receives below it the waters of the Irwell. Following a serpentine course westwards, it enters the arm of the sea, on which the commercial port of Liverpool is built. It is navigable for vessels of considerable burden from Liverpool to the confluence of the Irwell, a distance of thirty-five miles; the latter river has been made navigable for boats and barges to Manchester. The Mersey communicates by means of canals with the Dee, the Ribble, the Ouse, the Trent, the Derwent, the Severn, the Humber, the Thames and the Avon.

The basin of the river is contained in two counties.

Counties.	Inhabitants.	Square miles.	Inhabitants to each square mile.
Lancashire . . .	1,074,000	1830	587
Cheshire . . .	275,500	1052	262
Total	1,349,500	2882	Mean 468

^a Qu. Is it not the reverse—do not the canals join the rivers, not the rivers the canals?—P.

Thus, with the exception of the country in the neighbourhood of the metropolis, and one or two other districts, no part of England is more populous than the basin of the Mersey.

Such are some of the principal rivers in England; the others of less importance are very numerous. According to Camden, there are not fewer than five hundred and fifty rivers and streams in England and Wales, that are distinguished by particular names. The bounty of nature in this respect has not been without advantage to the inhabitants. The rivers supply the numerous canals, and by means of the former, the latter are joined to each other;^a in the same way, it has been seen, the eastern and western seas are united, and outlets for the natural productions of the country, and the various products of industry, are facilitated and increased. These indeed may be considered the greatest advantages which the English have derived from their rivers, but before they were obtained, it was necessary to overcome many difficulties, and to obviate many prejudices. It is related that the celebrated Brindley, when examined before a committee of the House of Commons on the subject of a projected canal, maintained the utility of the scheme, although the proximity of a river appeared to render it superfluous. "For what purpose," asked a member, "do you suppose providence created so many fine rivers in England?" "To feed canals," replied the engineer. A long time elapsed before the bold but most correct opinion of Mr. Brindley was generally believed; as if in a country where commerce and the useful arts flourish, rapid and impetuous streams could be employed to a more useful purpose.

The lakes in England, like the rivers, are numerous, but none of them are large. Some are famed for their romantic beauties; others render the country in the neighbourhood unwholesome, on account of the miasms that rise from them. Of the latter sort are those in Huntingdonshire, formerly more extensive than at present; their banks have been contracted since the inhabitants betook themselves to drain their lands. Whittlesea-meer, the largest lake in that county, is about six miles in length, and three in breadth. It is mentioned that there was a water communication in former times from Peterborough to this lake, and from it to Ramsey. It is long since the series of meers or marshes,^b which formed the communication, has been broken. The lakes in Cheshire are not remarkable for their size, but almost all of them are the sources of rivulets, if not of rivers; the largest are Bog-meer, Comber-meer, Oakhanger-meer, and Pick-meer.

It might be difficult to mention a county in Wales without a lake, but more perhaps are situated in Cardiganshire and Caernarvonshire, than in any other part of the country. The Tivy, the principal river in Cardiganshire, issues from one of these lakes. Lyn-Savadhan, in Brecknockshire, at no great distance from the town of Brecon, is about two miles long and as many broad. When the ice dissolves, it emits loud sounds, which have been compared to long and repeated peals of thunder. Bosherton-meer, near Stackpole in Pembrokehire, is also well known on account of the sounds which are heard from it,

^b Meer is a local term for lake or pond.—P.

and by which the country people in the neighbourhood can prognosticate the state of the weather.

But the largest lakes, and the most celebrated on account of their scenery, are situated in the counties of Cumberland, Westmoreland and Lancashire. Ulleswater, partly in Cumberland and partly in Westmoreland, is supposed to be equal to nine miles in length, but it is of an irregular form, and of inconsiderable breadth. Many of the views it presents are very striking; they contrast well with the crags and mountains that surround it, and give great variety to the scene. Thirlmere or Leatheswater, in the vicinity, is comparatively narrow, but about three miles in length. It lies sequestered at the base of the huge Helvellyn, and the banks, covered with stones or masses of naked rock, which appear to have fallen from the mountain, add to the picture of desolation. The impression thus produced is heightened by the noise of cataracts, which fall on every side from lofty rocks.

Derwent-Water, called also Keswick lake, from its vicinity to the town of the same name, is of an elliptical form; the length is not less than three miles, while the breadth may be equal to one and a half. It is of a different character from those which have been mentioned; the scenery and the beauties are of the milder kind; less grand perhaps, but more pleasing than the others. The prospect on the north terminates in the high mountain of Skiddaw, while the southern extremity is lost among the wild rocks of Borrowdale. "The soft undulation of its shores, the mingled wood and pasture that front them, the brilliant purity of the water, that gives back every landscape on its bank, and frequently with heightened colouring; the fantastic wildness of the rocks and the magnificence of the amphitheatre they form, are circumstances, the view of which excites emotions of sweet and tranquil pleasure. When visited by moon-light, the deep shades of the frowning mountain, the reflected light of the moon on the unrippled surface, and the silence of the night, broken only by the murmurs of cascades, excite emotions, which cannot be easily described."^a

Bassenthwaite-Water is situated on the north-west of Keswick lake, with which it is connected by the Derwent. The lofty Skiddaw, which soars above the adjacent valley,^b adds greatly to the grandeur of the scenery. The opposite banks are bounded by a range of heights, and their declivities, covered in many places with thick woods, descend almost to the water's edge. Barren hills and cultivated plains extend from the northern part of the lake.

"None of the lakes in this part of England," says the author last quoted, "have juster claims to the character of picturesque than Crummock-Water; the barren Mollbreak, and other high mountains, confine the western banks of this lake, while the eastern are much indented and varied with low bays, curious promontories and little coppices, the whole terminating in a rich scene of woodland that covers the higher grounds. On each side there is a chain of mountains, some naked, others wooded to their bases; some verdant, some rocky and

heathy, and some covered with shiver, which streams down their furrowed sides." The length of the lake exceeds four miles, while the average breadth is little more than half a mile.

Buttermere is only separated from the last lake by a narrow but fruitful valley; the distance between them is less than a mile. It is chiefly celebrated on account of its waterfalls, but none of them are so high as the one called Scale-Force,^c about a mile and a half to the west of it. Ennerdale-Water is surrounded on three sides by wild and rugged heights; the scenery, it may be easily believed, is of a sombre cast, but the gloom is in some measure relieved by the farms and country houses on the eastern banks.

Wastwater lies in the middle of Wastdale, which is enclosed by mountains that rise to a great height, and almost meet at their bases.

It has been remarked that these, as well as other lakes in Cumberland, have each of them a distinct character; some are distinguished by the contrast of pleasing scenery and savage wildness on their opposite banks, but several are so difficult of access that they are only visited by pedestrians.

Winandermere serves as a boundary between Westmoreland and Lancashire. It is about fourteen miles long, but the breadth is very disproportionate, varying only from one to two miles. The greatest depth near Eccles-crig-crag^d has been ascertained to be equal to 200 feet. The Brathay, the Rothay and the Troutbeck are the principal feeders of the lake. The surface is spotted by a number of islands, and on some of them buildings have been erected, which cannot be considered any ornament to the scenery. The banks are not bold; they rise gently on the Westmoreland side, while those on the Lancashire side are more precipitous and better wooded. The effect is that of a rich landscape, in which the distance is bounded by lofty hills. The char is common to almost all the lakes, but trouts, pikes, perch and eels are taken in the waters of Winandermere, and in the winter season numerous water-fowl of different species resort to it.

The loftiest heights in England and Wales form part of the groups which extend along the western side of the kingdom. Two lower ranges traverse the country in different directions; one extending from Dorsetshire into Kent, the other from the Isle of Portland to the Yorkshire Wolds. The groups on the western side are broken by the low grounds in Lancashire and Cheshire, and also by the indentation into which the Bristol Channel finds a passage. They may thus be divided into the Northern, the Cambrian or Welsh and the Devonian ranges. They serve to determine the length of the country; the lower chains indicate the breadth, but less accurately, on account of the irregular lines which they describe.

The Northern range passes from Scotland into England, and covers part of Cumberland, Westmoreland, Northumberland and Durham. The Cheviot, the highest of the Northumbrian branch, and the one from which

^a Gilpin on Picturesque Scenery.

^b On the east of Bassenthwaite-Water is spread the beautiful and extensive vale of Bassenthwaite, beyond which Skiddaw rears its lofty head. (Ed. Enc. art. England.)—P.

^c Force, in the North of England dialects, signifies a waterfall. This is a word of Scandinavian origin (Swed. *fors*, a waterfall,) like many other words in those and the Lowland Scottish dialects; all of them

indicating the Scandinavian origin of at least a portion of the population in that part of the island. Such words are, *fell*, a mountain, (Swed. *fall*, Dan. *field*;) *by*, a termination of the names of towns, as in Whitby Appleby, Canobie (Scott.) (Dan. Swed. *by*, a town;) *toom* (Scott.) empty, (Dan. *tom*;) *gar* (Scott.) to make, (Dan. *giare*.)—P

^d Ecclesrig-Crag. (Luckombe.)—P.

the other hills in the northern part of the same county take their name, is not more than eighteen miles from the coast. The top of the Cheviot is covered with heath; in this respect it forms an exception to the others, for in most of them the green sward rises to a great height, and gives place only to the naked rocks or loose stones at their very summits. Thus, the soil, if the elevation be taken into account, must be considered very fruitful, being almost everywhere covered with rich pastures on which numerous herds and flocks are reared. Neither are the Cheviots destitute of romantic beauty; in some places their sides terminate in precipices, or form narrow and deep glens; in others they are furrowed by mountain streams, and many of them enclose peaceful and sequestered vallies. As to their form, some of them rise like so many cones, but in general their shape is very irregular. They communicate on the west with other green hills of the same character in Scotland, and pass southwards to the moorland districts in Northumberland. It is not easy to calculate their superficies, but it is probably greater than a hundred and fifty, and less than two hundred square miles.

The Cumberland branch of the Northern range commences at Geltsdale forest, about fourteen miles to the south-east of Carlisle, and passes to the west of Durham and Yorkshire. The surface of these mountains is very rugged, exhibiting no regularity of arrangement, and no lengthened ridge or continuous chain. In appearance, they may be compared to a number of broken and pointed masses, of which the bases are united, or only separated by the lakes that lie between them. In their verdure they resemble the mountains of Northumberland, but Skiddaw, like the Cheviot, is covered with heath.

The superficial extent of the mountains in Cumberland, Westmoreland and Durham, is supposed to be equal to six hundred square miles; their height varies from 3000 to 3400 feet, and within the area which they occupy, are situated the romantic lakes that have been already mentioned.

The vallies of the Ribble, Craven and Aire separate these hills from another range,^a of which the length may be about sixty miles; their breadth, however, is very irregular, being in some places upwards of twenty, and in others less than four or five. Kinderscout near Hayfield, Axe-Edge near Buxton, and Whinhill and Mam-Tor near Castleton, are the loftiest heights in Derbyshire. But the highest part of Derbyshire is not more than 2100 feet above the level of the sea; the hills, therefore, cannot be compared with those in the northern counties.

Other hills, still lower than the former, are situated on the east of Wales. The Malvern Hills in Herefordshire and Worcestershire extend to part of Gloucestershire. The Herefordshire and Worcester beacons, as they are called, form the highest of the Malvern Hills; the one rises to 1260, and the other to 1500 feet above the plain. They terminate on the eastern side in the flat country, which forms the vale of the Severn, but they are connected on the west with a range of hills that passes into Herefordshire.

It has been maintained that the Coteswold and Stroudwater Hills in Gloucestershire ought to be considered a

^a The southern division of the northern range is divided from the northern division, by the valley of the Ribble, Craven, and the valley

continuation of the central chain, extending from Derbyshire into Wiltshire, there forming the Salisbury Downs, and afterwards stretching in a western direction towards the Land's End in Cornwall. If this opinion be admitted, and it does not appear to be incorrect, it follows that these hills unite the Northern chain with the one in Devonshire.

But the highest mountains in the kingdom form part of the Cambrian range; no others are so lofty as the heights in North Wales. They extend through Caernarvonshire, Merionethshire and Cardiganshire; in the last county their altitude is perceptibly diminished. The range increases gradually in height from the extremities to the centre, which is occupied by the famed Snowdon, a mountain not less than 3600 feet above the high water mark on Caernarvon quay. It consists of numerous cliffs towering above each other, and the one that bears the name of Snowdon is little higher than the others which surround it.

The summit of Cader Idris is the highest part of a mountainous line which passes from Snowdon to Plinlimmon, a boundary of North Wales. In point of height, it is the second in the country, being only inferior to Snowdon. Rising above the small town of Dolgelly, it is steep and craggy on every side, particularly on the south near Tallylin lake. According to different calculations, it is 3540 feet above the level of the sea, so that it is considerably higher than any mountain in the north of England. The hills in the eastern part of North Wales are not nearly so lofty as those which have been mentioned. A comparatively low chain in South Wales extends from the north to the neighbourhood of Cardiff, but a small branch diverges from it in a westerly direction.

The Devonian range covers part of Somersetshire, passes through Devonshire and Cornwall, and terminates at the Land's End. The hills in Dartmoor are the loftiest eminences in this range; their height varies from fifteen to eighteen hundred feet. They are situated in the tract which extends from the vale of Exeter to the borders of Cornwall, a tract containing between two and three hundred thousand acres of open and uncultivated land, in which Dartmoor occupies more than eighty thousand. The large waste of Dartmoor exhibits gigantic tors, and surfaces covered with scattered masses of granite that appear to have fallen from the declivities into the vallies. The higher parts are covered with marshes or wet and swampy ground, dangerous to cattle, but valuable on account of the fuel which they furnish to the inhabitants. These morasses are generally very deep; in dry summers, they afford a strong succulent grass. The Mendip Hills in Somersetshire, the only other portion of the same range, extend southwards from Bedminster to Glastonbury.

The two lines of hills which extend in a different direction, the one from Dorsetshire to Kent, and the other from Portland Isle to the Wolds, are much lower than those that may be supposed to determine the length of England. It is not improbable that the three highest ridges in the south-eastern districts commence on Salisbury plain, an immense tract of high and chalky land, fifty-three miles in length from east to west, and thirty-five or

of the Aire. (Ed. Enc.)—Craven is a moorland district in Yorkshire between the sources of the Ribble and the Aire.—P.

forty in breadth. Hampshire and Sussex are intersected by the first ridge, which terminates at Beachy Head; the second extends to the eastern shore of Kent; the third crosses Oxfordshire, passes to Norfolk, and forms the Gogmagog Hills in Cambridgeshire.

It appears then that England is by no means a mountainous country; the loftiest heights are lower than those in Scotland, neither are they accompanied, like many in the sister kingdom, with all the features of sterility. In the one country, the nature of the ground has retarded the progress of civilization; the same obstacles were not found in the other.

England, however, is sufficiently varied with hill and dale, while the plains are extensive, and some of them very fruitful. The largest stretches from the banks of the Thames through Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk and the adjacent counties on the west. The road from London to Norwich by Newmarket, along the western sides of Essex and Suffolk, is equal to a hundred and eight miles in length, and the country is more even and unvaried in its surface than any other tract of the same extent in England. Lincolnshire may be said to form a part of the same plain, which terminates beyond the Humber in the low grounds of Holderness in Yorkshire.

The Wealds of Kent, Surrey and Sussex form a large plain, broken in some places by gentle heights or declivities; they are covered with a pale clayey soil, and many parts of them yield rich harvests. The length of the plain, or the distance from Ashworth^a in Kent to Petworth in Sussex, is about sixty or seventy miles, the breadth varies from ten to fifteen, and the surface is nearly equal to a thousand square miles. The area of the vale of York is still greater; it extends from the small lakes between the Tees, the Swale and the Wiske to the marshes of Lincolnshire on the south, and from the Wolds in the East Riding to the limestone districts of West Yorkshire, a length of more than sixty miles, and an average breadth exceeding sixteen. None of the other plains or vales in England, although numerous, are so extensive.

Many places, now almost destitute of trees, still retain the name of forests; such are Dartmoor Forest in Devonshire, Enfield Chase in Middlesex, Witham and Epping Forests in Essex, Peak Forest in Derbyshire, Malvern Chase, Wyre Forest, and several others. The most important of those that still exist, are Dean Forest in Gloucestershire, Sherwood Forest in Nottinghamshire, Windsor Forest in Berkshire, and the New Forest in Hampshire. Some formed part of the royal demesnes during the early period of the Anglo-Saxon princes, but the passion for the chase was carried to its height by the kings of the Norman race, and at one time nearly a hundred extensive forests belonged to the crown. Contemporary writers describe the evils which were thus occasioned. "He also," William the Conqueror, "set many deer friths, and he made laws therewith, that whoever should slay hart or hind, him man should blind. As he forbade the slaying of harts, so also did he of boars. So much he loved the high deer as if he had been their father. He also decreed about hares that they should go free. His rich men moaned and his poor men murmured, but he was so hard that he wrecked not the hatred of them all. For it was meet they should follow the

king's will withal, if they wished to live or to have lands or goods or his favour. Alas that any man should be so moody, and should so puff up himself, and think himself above all other men! May Almighty God," adds the pious chronicler, "have mercy on his soul, and grant him forgiveness of his sins." The same monarch was lord of sixty-eight forests, besides parks and chases in different parts of England; these, however, were not considered sufficient, and it was deemed right to afforest a fruitful and cultivated district between the city of Winchester and the sea coast. The inhabitants were expelled; houses, cottages and even churehes were destroyed; and a fertile country, more than thirty square miles in extent, was converted into a desert. The name of the New Forest serves still to record this act of despotism. The royal forests, then so large a portion of the kingdom, distinct in their nature, and subject to different regulations from the rest of the country, were the source of much grievance to the neighbouring proprietors, nor was redress obtained until the barons forced Henry the Third to grant the forest charter, by which greater equity was extended, and the more oppressive enactments abolished.

From the details into which we have entered concerning the climate of England, some notion may be formed of its vegetable productions. It may be inferred that the plants indigenous to the country are wholly inadequate to the sustenance of man. In more favoured regions nature pours out her treasures, and affords more than a supply to the wants of indolent inhabitants. The ever verdant hills and plains in Britain show how well they are adapted for the support of granivorous animals, and this circumstance may have had some influence on the character of the early Britons. While different fruits, many of exquisite flavour, afforded food to the natives of warmer climates, without any exertion on their part, the rude Britons depended on the produce of the chase for a scanty subsistence, sought the deer in the recesses of their forests, and disputed their prey with the wolf and other carnivorous animals.^b Although the vegetable riches of every climate have been long at the disposal of the English, it is not improbable that the first germs of their activity and exertion were called forth by a scanty supply of animal food, not to be obtained without labour, the necessity of relieving their most urgent wants stimulating them to exertion. In later times, the benefits arising from commerce and industry have rendered the advantages of climate of comparatively little consequence. It is now ascertained that the British Flora, although it cannot boast of any very valuable or useful plants, contains as many as are generally found in other countries, similar to Great Britain in climate and extent. To enumerate, therefore, the different plants, might be to repeat such as have been already mentioned in different parts of this work. It may be remarked that some very ordinary and useful potherbs were first transported to England from Holland, in the time of Henry the Seventh. The deciduous trees are the oak, the chestnut and the beech, all of which are mast-bearing trees; the birch, the alder, the horn-beam, the abele, the black poplar and the aspen, bearing catkins; the sycamore, the maple and the ash; and lastly, the lime, the elm and the wick-hazle. The

^a Ashford.—P.

^b Pinkerton's Geography, vol. i. chap. 7. [vol. i. p. 78 (England chap. 4).—P.]

numerous species of willows and the hazle may be supposed to occupy a middle station between the trees and shrubs.^a

The oak is the most valuable, although by no means the most common of the British trees. It arrives at great perfection in Kent, Surrey, Sussex, Cheshire and Monmouthshire, but the principal supply is obtained from the royal forests, of which the timber belongs to the crown. It may be shown, however, that the oak is now less common than at a former period. The wood, in a great part, but not in the whole of the crown lands, was surveyed in the year 1608, and it appeared from the survey that there were then not fewer than 649,880 loads of timber fit for the navy, and 1,148,660 of a less perfect sort. A second survey was made in 1783, by order of the house of commons, and it was then ascertained that the New Forest, Alice-Holt and Wolmer, Bere, Whittlewood, Salcey and Sherwood, which might have yielded 234,229 loads of naval timber in 1608, contained only 50,445 in 1783; so that, in the latter period, little more than a fifth part of the trees which existed in 1608, remained. The difference in the quantity of decayed or imperfect timber was not less remarkable; in 1608 it amounted to 265,145 loads, and in 1783 to 35,554. Other facts, which lead to the same conclusion, have been since brought to light; the answers returned to the House of Commons by the principal wood-merchants in England, and by the chairmen of the quarter sessions in the different counties, prove the decrease of oak timber in the country. The deficiency, however, may in time be supplied, as many trees have of late years been planted by the landed proprietors in different parts of England. The comparative scarcity has compelled government to make use of inferior timber for the navy; some of the trees, which have been employed, are considered too young, and others not sufficiently perfect; to this circumstance has been attributed the frequency of the dry rot in ships, a disease which was certainly little known, when old and good oaks were more abundant.

Some observations ought perhaps to be made on the different soils, in which the vegetable productions are found; in England, however, they are so various and numerous that it might be difficult to enumerate them, still more so to mark their position, the transitions being so irregular and abrupt. They may be classed under six general divisions, those of clay, loam, sand, chalk, gravel and peat. These again may be subdivided into many varieties. Of the clay, two sorts are perhaps more common than the rest; the one is rich and of a dark colour; the other is not so tenacious, and of a less fruitful quality; the former descends to a considerable depth; the latter is only found near the surface. The different kinds of loam are equally numerous; what is commonly called strong loam, consists of clay that has been long under a course of tillage, impregnated with manure, and exposed to the action of the atmosphere; it, as well as sandy loam, is an artificial soil. The sandy tracts in France are much more extensive than any in England; indeed, in the latter country, it is impossible to mention any large tract

in which a covering of pure sand renders the soil wholly useless for the purposes of agriculture. The sand is either mixed with vegetable mould, or enriched by manure and the continued action of the sun and air. The same may be said of chalk as a soil, it having, in most parts of the kingdom, received the nature and qualities of calcareous loam by cultivation. Of the gravel soils, one sort of a light colour, and not uncommon in different parts of the country, is unfruitful; other kinds are more or less productive, but their fertility depends on the quantity of earth or alluvial deposits that is mixed with them. The peat soil, as it is called, occurs in many parts of England, but is most common in the north it is observed, but not in so great an extent, in the south and the south-west. It may be remarked that the same sort of soil extends in few places to a great distance without exhibiting different appearances, if not a change of kind. It is well known that the largest tracts of a uniform soil are those in the county of Norfolk and in the Wealds of Kent, Surrey and Sussex. If some varieties be excepted, red loam may be said to form a uniform soil; it gives its name to Rutlandshire, the county in which it is most abundant; in a north-eastern direction it passes to Nottingham, and terminates towards the south-west in Devonshire, but the continuity, it may be easily imagined, is often broken in so vast an extent.

The knowledge of the geological structure of a country has been considered indispensable to that of its physical geography. It is thus that new limits have been assigned to different regions, limits much less subject to variation than those of a political character. Although the limits of such a country as Great Britain may be sufficiently defined without having recourse to the consideration of geology, still the same science serves to unfold the riches of the mineral kingdom, marks their position, and determines such as have contributed to increase the wealth or power of the inhabitants.

If the gravels and alluvia be not taken into account, the sand that covers Bagshot heath, and a great portion of Surrey, as well as several districts in the southern and eastern counties, may be considered the highest stratum in England, the one from beneath which the others rise in succession.^b The same deposit is met with in the Isle of Wight, and the sand at Alum Bay^c is supposed to be better adapted for making flint glass than any other in the kingdom.

Of an earlier origin is an argillaceous formation which may be mentioned on account of its organic remains, and which has been called the London clay, from its occurring in the neighbourhood of the metropolis, immediately beneath the vegetable soil. It occupies a large part of Essex, all Middlesex, and part of Berkshire, Surrey and Kent. It appears in the last county on the northern side of the Medway, and forms the Isle of Sheppey.^d

Some of the organic remains are those of crocodiles and turtles, vertebral fish of different species, and nautilites resembling others that still frequent the Indian Seas. The bones of the elephant, the rhinoceros, the hippopotamus, the tapir and the elk were discovered in the neighbourhood of London, when the excavation was

^a Pinkerton's Geography, vol. i. p. 82.

^b The Upper Freshwater Formation lies above the Upper Marine Formation (the one to which the Bagshot sand belongs) in the Isle of Wight; but in the London Basin, the Upper Marine is the highest formation.—P.

^c The sand at Alum Bay belongs to the sands of the plastic clay formation.—P.

^d Smith's Geological Map of England and Wales.

making for the Highgate archway. The remains of the vegetable kingdom are not less extraordinary, but they are perhaps more abundant in the Isle of Sheppey than in any other part of the stratum. It is there, at least, that the greatest number of fruit or ligneous seed vessels have been observed; one gentleman, Mr. Crowe of Faversham, having carefully examined the external and internal appearance of the plants, selected seven hundred specimens, of which none were duplicates, and of which very few corresponded with any that are now known to exist. The most of them, however, appeared to belong to tropical climates; some differed little from the cocoa-nut; others were probably varieties of spices.

The alluvium covering the surface of the clay is full of water, and a great advantage is thus obtained by the inhabitants of London and the neighbouring country; indeed, the quantity drawn daily in the metropolis alone might almost exceed belief. The wells or the public pumps to which the people have access, afford a plentiful supply of clear but somewhat hard water, which is used in many of the large distilleries, sugar-houses, and also in some of the breweries. Abundance of soft water may be had by increasing the depth of the wells, or by piercing through the London clay to the plastic clay stratum, the next in succession.^a Some of these wells have been dug in London, and very many on the north and north-east of it. The effect has been to supply different places, which were destitute of good water for domestic purposes, until within the last thirty years. If a new well be sunk, the water in the neighbouring wells is for a time depressed; nay more, the sinking of one on the south of the Thames above London Bridge, lowered the water in another on the northern bank, showing evidently that the communication extended below the bed of the river.^b

The chalk deposit is one of the most remarkable in England; stretching with little interruption from Flamborough Head on the coast of Yorkshire to the neighbourhood of Sidmouth on the coast of Devonshire, it is connected with the chalk districts in the south, and forms a range of hills, which are generally most precipitous on the north-west. The Yorkshire Wolds, which are broken by the Humber, are part of these heights; they appear anew on the opposite banks of the same river, and form the Lincolnshire Wolds. The Wash separates the same tract from Norfolk, but in that county, a ridge of chalk extends nearly in a southern direction to the distance of sixteen miles.^c It passes from Cambridge to Goring in Oxfordshire, where it is broken by the valley of the Thames; the distance between the two last places is not less than seventy miles.

It is almost unnecessary to add that the Chiltern Hills in Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire, and the Royston and Luton Downs in Bedfordshire, are composed of chalk; their average breadth varies from fifteen to twenty miles. The chain is continued on the west of the Thames, where it is known by the names of Ilsey Downs, the Whitehorse Hills and Marlborough Downs; but the last are broken by the valley of the Kennet, which, like

many of the rivers that water this formation, rises in the older and subjacent stratum, and has broken a passage for itself through the chalky downs. The same valley separates the northern Marlborough Downs from the long ridge on the south of Marlborough, which stretches westwards to Bagdon hill in the neighbourhood of Devizes in Wiltshire. This last ridge skirts round the vale of Pewsey, and connects itself with the cretaceous district, which occupies the northern part of Hampshire, and the southern of Wiltshire, a surface about fifty miles in length from east to west, and about twenty from north to south. It is this vast area which Mr. Pennant has designated the central *Patria* of the chalk, of which the different ranges that traverse the island, may be considered so many ramifications. It may be remarked that the loftiest summit in this formation reaches to the height of 1011 feet above the level of the sea. A great part of the central mass is known by the name of Salisbury plain, an elevated platform broken by gentle hills, and covered with scanty herbage. The chalk chain which bounds the London basin on the south, extends from the north-eastern extremity of the same area, forms the North Downs in Surrey and Kent, and terminates at the Straits of Dover.^d

The same chain exhibits one of the characteristic phenomena of the chalk formation; it is broken by all the rivers which run northwards from the Wealds, namely, by the Wey, the Mole, the Darent, the Medway, and the Stowe,^e which have made for themselves so many transverse vallies at right angles to the great valley which passes along the base of the heights.

It may be worth while to mention an error that has been committed by Camden. "The Mole," says that writer, "coming to White-hill,^f hides itself, or is rather swallowed up, at the foot of the hill there; but, about two miles below, it bubbles up and rises again; so that the inhabitants of this tract, no less than the Spaniards, may boast of having a bridge that feeds several flocks of sheep." If it be inferred that the river disappears, forms a channel for itself under ground, and rises again at a certain distance, the account is incorrect. The appearance depends on the cavernous nature of the chalk, and the porous texture of the soil; the water being admitted by passages in the banks and channel of the river. In ordinary seasons, the caverns are full, and their contents are not discharged faster than they are supplied by the river, whence it suffers no diminution; but in dry seasons the water in these reservoirs being gradually absorbed, the streams are diverted from their ordinary course, and the river is diminished. The decrease depends on the state of the weather, and in times of great drought, part of the channel is left dry.^g

Another chain, which branches from the south-east angle of the central mass, forms the South Downs, or southern limit of the Weald district, which is bounded by the North Downs in the opposite direction.

Lastly, a third chain, which extends from the southern extremity of the great chalk formation near Salisbury, passes west-south-west to Shaftesbury and then south to Blandford, where it is broken by the valley of the Stour.

on the north of Thetford, and passing by Newmarket and a little to the east of Cambridge, stretches S. W. to Goring on the Thames.—P.

^d Geology of England and Wales, book ii. chap. i.

^e The Stour.—P.

^f The same probably that is now called Box-hill.

^g Geology of England and Wales, book ii. chap. i.

^a These wells arise from the sands of the plastic clay formation.—P.

^b Geology of England and Wales, by Conybeare and Phillips, Part I. p. 35.

^c Commencing in Hunstanton Cliff, and terminating at Castle Acre, where it sinks beneath the diluvial sands of Norfolk. It recommences

It bends towards the west at the last place, and continues in that direction to the distance of twenty miles. But at Horn-hill,^a the westernmost point of the chain,^b it turns abruptly to the east,^c and proceeds through the middle of the isle, or rather peninsula, of Purbeck. The cliffs that rise above the sea, form Handfast-Point on the east, and Whitenose on the west, the eastern and western extremities of Purbeck.^d

The frequent occurrence of chalk in other countries has been indicated in a former part of this work. The belt which sweeps across the eastern and southern counties of England is part of the extensive tract that occupies the great central basin of Europe. The chalk formation stretches from the Thames to the Don; extending on the east to the Ural and its branches, on the north to the primitive districts of Russian Finland, Sweden, Norway and Scotland, on the west to the primitive and transition chains in the north, the west and the south of England,^e and on the south to the ramifications of the Cevennes in the centre of France, the Alps with the ancient groups of Germany,^f and the Bohemian, Silesian and Carpathian mountains.^g

The chalk formation throughout its vast extent affords a striking confirmation of Mr. Smith's method of identifying strata by their organic remains, for more than eight-tenths of the organic remains which are found in chalk are common to all the localities in which it has been observed. It is asserted, indeed, that a fossil has never been dug from a continental chalk pit to which a similar one cannot be produced from the pits in Britain.^h

It may be observed, that the lower strata of chalk increase generally in hardness, and afford sometimes a tolerably compact limestone. The cliff on the east of Dover is blasted, squared and used in repairing the harbour; it was employed in constructing the docks, and it is found to be well adapted for buildings under water.

The different kinds of chalky marles are obtained in many parts of England. Pliny, in his account of the British marles, observes that they last eighty years, there not being an example of the same man being obliged to marle his land twice in the course of his life. An intelligent farmer in Hertfordshire informed Mr. Pennant, that he had used the same marle on a field thirty years before, and if he were to live the time mentioned by Pliny, he need not have any occasion to repeat the operation.ⁱ The method now used to obtain chalk in Hertfordshire and different counties, has been described by Pennant. "The farmer sinks a pit, *drives out on all sides*, leaving a sufficient roof, and draws up the chalk in buckets through a narrow mouth." It is remarkable that the same method was employed in the time of the Roman naturalist. "*Creta argentaria petitur ex alto, in centenos pedes actis plerumque puteis, ore angustatis, intus, ut in metallis, spatiente vena. Hac maxime Britannia utitur.*"

^a To the north of Beaminster.—P.

^b West of Horn-hill, there are several outlying masses of chalk, resting upon and surrounded by the green sand. They proceed in a west-south-west direction, by Crewkerne and Chard, to Sidmouth, east of which there are three large outliers, very near to the coast.—P.

^c From Horn-hill, the escarpment of the chalk runs south to within a mile of the coast near Abbotsbury. It then suddenly turns to the east.—P.

^d Besides these continuous ranges of chalk, and the outlying masses on the west, it forms a range of downs, stretching through the middle of the Isle of Wight from west to east, from the Needles on the west to Culver Cliffs on the east; also, an outlying mass above the southern

The Romans in this instance followed the same practice as the Britons, and it is doubtful that any other of a more ancient origin is still in use in England. Chalk is also employed for another economical purpose; and it may be observed on the authority of Mr. Smeaton, that, if well burnt, it makes as good lime as the hardest marble.

It has been observed in different parts of this work that the presence of chalk is generally accompanied with sterility; it has been seen in the account of Champagne, that some districts are almost uninhabited, and statistical data are not wanting to show that the chalk lands in England are less populous in proportion to their extent, than any other secondary formation. No portion, however, is wholly unproductive; on the contrary, some of the vallies are very fruitful, and hops are cultivated in those of Kent and Surrey. The downs afford excellent pasturage for sheep, and the different sorts of clover and sainfoin thrive on a chalky soil. The same may be said of different trees, particularly the beech. It is well known that the Chiltern Hills in Oxfordshire were formerly covered with woods, which were frequented by robbers and freebooters; hence the office of steward of the Chiltern Hundreds, now become nominal, but which, being held under the crown, enables a member to vacate his seat in parliament.^k

Although oolites occur extensively on the continent, the different members of the series, and their relation to each other, have only been examined and explained in Britain. The oolites occupy a zone nearly thirty miles in average breadth, extending across the island from Yorkshire on the north-east to Dorsetshire on the south-west;^l in other words, within the limits of the zone are contained the best materials for architectural purposes in England. The Purbeck beds, which occupy the highest place in the series, consist of many thin strata of argillaceous limestone. The stone, which is commonly called Purbeck marble, is generally found in the uppermost beds. It was formerly much used in adorning Gothic churches, and the finest specimens of it may still be seen in many of the old columns and monuments. The Purbeck stone is not considered so valuable for architecture as the Portland; but of the one or other most of the edifices in London and in the neighbourhood have been built.

The great oolite, on account of its thickness and utility, is more important than any other. It consists of a stratified calcareous mass, varying in thickness from a hundred and thirty to two hundred feet. The quality of the strata is different even in neighbouring quarries. The softer kinds are not only marked by those distinct oviform concretions, which give their name to the whole series, but they afford the freestone, which renders this rock so valuable. The Kettering freestone of Northamptonshire, says Mr. Smith, is rendered extremely beautiful by the distinctness of its oolitic structure; that of Bath, however, has generally a finer grain. The latter stone was

point of the island. The Isle of Thanet consists too of chalk, separated from the North Downs by a tertiary valley.—P.

^e "On the west, the transition and primitive chains of Cumberland, Wales, Devonshire and Brittany—" (Conybeare and Phillips, Part I. p. 64.)—P.

^f Such as the Black Forest, the Rhingau, the Vosges, and the Thuringian mountains.—P.

^g These are given by Conybeare and Phillips as the boundaries of the great central basin of Europe.—P.

^h Conybeare's and Phillips' Geology of England and Wales.

ⁱ Pennant's Chester, page 303.

^k Capper's Topographical Dictionary of England and Wales

^l Smith's Geological Map.

used in repairing Henry the Seventh's chapel at Westminster, but it was from the quarries near Burford in Oxfordshire, that the materials were supplied for the erection of St. Paul's, the finest architectural monument in London.

The oolites are remarkable for the number of their organic remains. Different bones, believed by M. Cuvier to belong to a species of *Didelphis*, or opossum, have been discovered near Stonesfield in the calcareous slate, which forms part of the series. They are imbedded in the slate, not intruded into the fissures, exhibiting a singular instance of the occurrence of beings of such an order, in strata older than the lowest members of the tertiary class.^a A well characterized crocodile, but of a species distinct from those that now exist, and from those that have been found in a fossil state in Germany, was dug up at Gibraltar near Oxford,^b and may now be seen in the museum of the university. The *ichthyosaurus* has been observed in the strata both above and below the argillaceous slate;^c in the same slate,^d an immense animal, bearing some resemblance to the *monitor* in its dentition and other external characters, has been discovered, and bones of it are not wanting, which must have belonged to individuals forty feet in length, and at least twelve in height. Lastly, specimens, of which there are two or three different species, and which are believed by naturalists to be the *elytra* of coleopterous insects, occur in the Stonesfield slate.

Aluminous shale is included under this series.^e The earthy part of the shale is found to contain the most alum, and the following process is carried on at the works near Whitby. A layer of brush-wood serves as a base, and shale is thrown over it until a mound is raised. The brush-wood is then kindled, and a slow combustion ensues. The fire is at last communicated to the shale, and it continues to burn without any addition of fuel. The residuum is put into vats with water, and boiled twenty-four hours; it is then thrown into other vats, and by the addition of an alkali, is made to crystallize; lastly, it is again melted and purified by a second crystallization. Thus prepared, it is shipped off to London, and from thence exported to Sweden, Russia and other countries.^f

The most important, and by far the most valuable of the British mineral products, the one on which the wealth and prosperity of the country mainly depend, remains to be examined. The other substances which have been mentioned are comparatively of so little utility, that they can hardly be taken into account. It is to the coal mines that Great Britain is indebted for its manufacturing power, which, although colossal, must otherwise have been insignificant. The labour of man has been superseded by this wonderful agent, the productive power of the country has been increased more than a hundred-fold, and among the monuments of English genius, those are not the least worthy of admiration, by which the same substance has been made conducive to the various purposes of civilization.

It must not be imagined that this source of wealth is

inexhaustible; on the contrary, there is a limit to which it is always approaching. The distribution of this substance, it is well known, is by no means proportionate to its utility; even in Great Britain, one of the countries in which it is most abundant, the superficies of the coal district is very small relatively to the size of the island. The transition, however, from abundance to scarcity, can only be very gradual, and many ages must yet elapse before it can be sensibly felt; when it does begin, the increasing difficulty of working the coal mines must operate by slow and successive checks. If these mines could be suddenly exhausted, the effect might be as destructive of private comfort as of national wealth. Such a calamity could not happen without taking away the means of subsistence from an immense number of productive hands, and without depriving the country of the blessings which they diffuse. As a consequence of such an event, the inferior lands must be withdrawn from cultivation; they were first cultivated to supply the wants of an increasing and a flourishing population, but if the country were exhausted of its coal, they might again, as in ancient times, be covered with forests.

The three principal coal districts in England, and three only are of any importance, are, 1st, the Great Northern district, including all the coal-fields north of the Trent; 2d, the Central district, including Leicestershire, Warwickshire, Staffordshire, and Shropshire; and 3d, the Western district, which may be subdivided into the North-western, including North Wales, and the South-western, including South Wales, Gloucestershire, and Somersetshire. The coal deposits rest on limestone and sandstone, and extensive iron ores are situated near the carboniferous strata. Thus, all the great iron-works in England have been established within the limits of the coal country, because it is only within these limits that the fuel and the flux necessary for smelting the ore are easily obtained. Copper and zinc are found in the transition and primitive series, but it may be remarked that they are of secondary importance.

It may be necessary to describe more minutely the limits which have been mentioned. The first or the Northern district, it has been already stated, includes all the coal-fields on the north of the Trent and Mersey. A central chain traverses the district from north to south. These mountains were known to the Romans by the name of the *Penine Alps*, at least they are thus denominated by a British writer,^g in describing the Roman province of *Maxima Cesariensis*. "Totam in aequalis fere partes provinciam dividunt montes *Alpes Penini* dicti." It is not believed that they were thus called from any fancied resemblance between them and the Alpine crest near St. Bernard; it is more probable that they were so named from the British word *Pen*, which signifies a head or summit. As there is no modern name which comprehends the whole of this range, it is necessary to make use of the one that has been left by the Romans. The Penine chain consists of the rocks which

^a Geological Transactions, vol. ii.

^b In one of the uppermost beds of the lower division of the Oolites, perhaps the Cornbrash.—P.

^c The *Ichthyosaurus* has not yet been noticed,* but as it occurs in the beds both above and below these,† it is probably to be found in this part of the series also.* (Conybeare and Phillips, Part I. p. 208.)—P.

* In the upper beds of the lower division of the Oolites, including the Cornbrash, Stonesfield slate, Forest Marble, Bradford clay, and Great Oolite.—P.

† In the Kimmeridge clay in the upper division, and in the Coral Rag

and Oxford clay in the middle division of the Oolites, above; and in the Lias, below—perhaps, also, in the lower beds of the lower division of the Oolitic series, including the Inferior Oolite, Fullers' earth, sand and marl stone; undetermined remains of large *Lacertæ* having been there discovered.—P.

^d In the calcareous slate of Stonesfield.—P.

^e The Alum slate of Whitby belongs to the Lias formation.—P.

^f History of Whitby, by Lionel Charlton.

^g Richard of Cirencester.

are associated with the coal formation; it is remarkable in some places for its wild scenery, the extent of its caverns, the depth of its ravines, and the height of its precipices; it is broken by torrents and cataracts. Two facts may throw some light on the nature of the scenery in the Staffordshire part of it. The sun, when nearest the tropic of Capricorn, never rises to the inhabitants of Narrowdale, during a period of nearly three months, and when it is visible, it never rises until one o'clock P. M. Secondly, at Leek, during a certain period of the year, the sun is seen to set twice in the same evening, a phenomenon which must be attributed to a mountain at some distance from the town, for after it sets behind the summit, it breaks out again on the northern or most precipitous side. Thus, in a tract of no great extent, the sun appears to set twice in the same evening, and to rise when it has passed the meridian.^b

This district is more important on account of its mineral products than any other in England. The great coal-field of Northumberland and Durham, several others of a smaller size in the north of Yorkshire, and the great coal-field in South Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire, are situated on the eastern side of the Penine chain; the principal deposits on the west are those of North Staffordshire, Manchester or South Lancashire, North Lancashire and Whitehaven.

The first of these coal-fields^c is the most remarkable; situated in the north-eastern extremity of England, it occupies the greater part of two counties, Northumberland and Durham. Commencing near the river Coquet on the north, it extends nearly to the Tees on the south, forming an area, of which the greatest breadth is equal to twenty-four miles, and the length to fifty-eight.^d Jarrow on the southern bank of the Tyne, and about five miles from its mouth, is considered the centre of the coal-measures, or in other words, the beds of coal are there found at the greatest depths; the High Main, one of the thickest, is not less than nine hundred and sixty feet below the surface. It is well known, however, that the inclination of the strata is not uniform, so that the depths are not equal at equal distances from Jarrow.

This coal is generally admitted to be superior in quality to any in the other formations of the same kind, and the difference in the quantity is not less remarkable. Forty beds have been already seen, but many of these are of no great thickness; the most important have been distinguished by the names of the High Main and the

Low Main. Shields and Sunderland are the places from which the coal is exported, and the distribution of the trade depends on the size of the two rivers.^e The Tyne vessels being large, are, therefore, chiefly destined for the London market; the Wear vessels, on the other hand, are so small that they can make their way into the small rivers and harbours in most parts of the kingdom. They supply, therefore, the eastern and southern coasts as far west as Plymouth.

It is difficult to estimate the quantity of coal contained in the formation, called the coal-measures. It is not easy to determine accurately their length and average breadth; at all events, a great difference in the necessary data may be found in the different calculations, which have been made on the subject. The quantity exhausted by mining must be very great, as nearly four millions of chaldrons are annually taken from the coal-fields in Northumberland and Durham; but however great, it cannot be ascertained. There is a source of error in supposing the beds equally thick throughout, which is by no means the case; neither are they co-extensive; the upper, it is well known, occupy a less space than the lower. The calculations which have been made of their contents, ought to be regarded merely as approximations; but even in this light, it is not easy to estimate their relative value. One of the most recent was lately presented to the House of Peers; it is partly founded on hypothesis, and also perhaps on inaccurate data; even some of the necessary elements are not taken into account.^f

According to Dr. Thomson, the extent of the coal-measures is only equal to 180 square miles; and even according to this hypothesis, it appears that they may be worked in the same way that they have hitherto been, during a period of fifteen hundred years. It is not, however, improbable that the beds are assumed to be thicker than they really are.

The abundance of coal cannot justify the waste that takes place in Northumberland and Durham. The practice of separating the more fragile from the sounder parts, was adopted about forty years ago by some miners; it has now become general, and immense heaps of coal are piled at the mouths of the pits. The heat evolved by the decomposition of the pyrites sets fire to them, and they continue to burn for years. One of these masses, which is still burning, is said to cover twelve acres. It is certain, however, that this small coal might be used with profit; it might be converted into coke,

^a The whole of the Penine chain is composed of the four series of rocks associated in our coal districts, viz. Coal Measures, Millstone-grit and Shale, Carboniferous Limestone, and Old Red Sandstone. (Conybeare and Phillips, p. 366.)—P.

^b Conybeare and Phillips' Geology of England and Wales, Part I. p. 365—8.

^c The great coal-field of Northumberland and Durham.

^d Two accounts of this district have been published; the one by N. F. Winch, Esq. in the Transactions of the Geological Society; the other by Dr. Thomson, in the Annals of Philosophy. We shall refer to both of them in the text.

^e Winch, Geological Transactions, volume fourth.

^f An estimate of the extent and produce of the Durham and Northumberland coal-fields, by Mr. Hugh Taylor:

DURHAM.

From South Shields southward to Castle Eden, twenty-one miles; thence westward to West Auckland, thirty-two miles; north-east from West Auckland to Eltringham, thirty-three miles; and thence to Shields, twenty-two miles; being an extent of 594 square miles.

NORTHUMBERLAND.

From Shields northwards twenty-seven miles, by an average breadth of nine miles; 243 square miles. In all, 837 square miles.

Portion Excavated.

	Square miles.
In Durham.	
On Tyne, say	39
On Wear	40
In Northumberland.	
Say thirteen miles by two	26

The surface of the coal-fields is thus equal to . . . 732

Estimating the workable coal strata at an average thickness of twelve feet, the contents of a square mile are nearly 12,300,000 tons, and of 732 square miles 9,069,480,000 tons.

Deduct one-third for loss by small coal, interruptions by dikes, and other interruptions 3,023,160,000
There remains 6,046,320,000 tons.

The coal worked annually in this tract amounts to 3,500,000 tons so that the present sale may continue during 1727 years.

and for the purpose of coal gas, it is not inferior to any other sort. Wallis gives an account in his history of Northumberland of a fire, which happened in the High Main coal about a hundred and forty years ago. It began at Benwell, a quarter of a mile north of the Tyne, and at last extended itself to the estate of Fenham, nearly a mile from the place where it first appeared. Eruptions were observed in many places; sulphur and sal ammoniac were sublimed from the fissures, but no stones of any size were ejected. Red ashes and burnt clay, the relics of this pseudo-volcano, are still seen on the western declivity of Benwell hill; and it is credibly attested that the soil in some parts of Fenham has been rendered unproductive by the action of the fire.

It must not be supposed that the most valuable of the British minerals is obtained without danger; the calamitous accidents, which still take place in the mines, although fortunately their occurrence is now less frequent, prove that the natural obstacles which present themselves, have not been wholly removed by the art of man. It is by no means a matter of surprise that something more remains to be done, but rather that so much has already been accomplished; and it is certain that the accidents, which still happen occasionally, cannot be attributed to negligence or want of skill in those to whom the superintendence of the works is committed. The choak-damp, the fire-damp and the stythe or after-damp are the names that the miners give the gases to which the coal mines are exposed. Their rapid production has been attributed to the following causes: first, the coal parts with a portion of its carburetted hydrogen on exposure to the air; secondly, the pyritous shale which forms the floors of the coal mines, decomposes the water that lodges in them; the latter process is constantly operating in old mines. Other causes are in all probability going on in these natural laboratories; for the gases are generated so rapidly and in such quantities as might appear almost incredible without unquestionable evidence. They often take fire in a shaft, long before the sinkers have reached the coal seam; and the pickmen open crevices occasionally, which emit seven hundred hogs-heads of fire-damp in a minute. These currents continue sometimes for several months, and are of more frequent occurrence in the deep and valuable collieries, where the most tremendous explosions take place. The after-damp or stythe by which these currents are succeeded, is a mixture of the carbonic acid and azotic gases, resulting from the combustion of the carburetted hydrogen in atmospheric air, and more lives have been lost by it than by the fire-damp. If these calamities are now less frequent than formerly, it is because much ingenuity has been exercised in obviating them, and in this point of view the safety-lamp may be considered an invaluable present which the sciences have made to the arts; but it is not the only means by which the chance of danger is averted; large furnaces are kept burning at the upcast shafts; powerful air-pumps, worked by steam-engines, are employed to quicken the draught, and their effect may be ascertained from the fact that a thousand hogs-heads of air are thus drawn out of one mine in a minute. A sort of trap-door, the invention of Mr. Buddle, is now used in the mines; it is suspended wherever a door is found necessary to prevent the escape of air. It is

propped close to the roof in a horizontal position, but in case of an explosion, the blast removes the prop, and the door falls and closes the aperture.^a

The importance of the trade to which these mines have given rise, is so great as to render some remarks on its history not unnecessary. It has been supposed that coal was obtained at a very early period in the vicinity of Newcastle; some writers affirm that a colliery was wrought not far from Benwell, the *Condercum* of the Romans, at the time when they were in possession of Britain. The fact, however, is very problematical, and if it be true, it is certain that the use of the same substance was long afterwards unknown to the inhabitants themselves. In the *Leges Burgorum*, which were enacted in Scotland about the year 1140, particular privileges are conferred on those who bring fuel into burghs; wood, turf and peats are mentioned, but no notice is taken of coal. It does not appear that any advantage was derived from it in England before the year 1234, when Henry the Third granted by a charter the right of digging coal in the neighbourhood to the inhabitants of Newcastle, and not long afterwards it was designated by the name of *sea coal*. The trade made some progress in the reign of King John, but although coal was found to be the best kind of fuel, its use was prohibited in London by a royal proclamation. A license was granted by Edward III. to the burgesses of Newcastle to dig coals and stones in Castle Field without the walls, and the colliery at Elswick was demised at the same time to Adam Colewell for five pounds of yearly rent. In the fifteenth century, the coal trade had risen to such importance, that acts of parliament were framed for its regulation, and it was directed by one that was passed in the year 1421, that all vessels carrying coal, must be measured by commissioners nominated by the king, and must have their burden marked upon them, that his majesty may not be deprived of his duty of twopence per chaldron by false measure. It was in the middle of the same century that Scotland was visited by Pope Pius the Second; he relates that he saw poor people begging in rags at the churches, and receiving, not money nor alms, but pieces of black stone with which they went away satisfied. This species of stone, adds the pope, whether with sulphur or whatever inflammable substance it may be impregnated, they burn instead of wood, of which their country is destitute.^b

It appears that a lease of two coal pits at Elswick was granted in 1538 for the term of eight years by the prior of Tynemouth to Christopher Midford, at the annual rent of £50. The price of coals at that time in Newcastle was 2s. 6d. a chaldron, and about 4s. in London. Queen Elizabeth obtained, in 1582, from the Bishop of Durham, a lease of the manor of Gateshead and Whickham, with the coal mines, common wastes and parks, for ninety-nine years, at the annual rent of £90. This lease, which occasioned an increase of two shillings in the price of coals per chaldron, was first assigned to the Earl of Leicester, the queen's favourite, and afterwards to the celebrated Sutton, the founder of the Charter-house. An assignment of the same lease for the sum of £12,000 was made by Mr. Sutton to Sir William Liddle and others for the use of the mayor and burgesses of Newcastle. Coals then rose to seven, afterwards to eight, and lastly to nine shillings per chaldron. Various regulations and

^a Geological Transactions, vol. iv.

^b *Ænæ Silvii Opera.*

acts relative to the coal trade were made during the same and the four succeeding reigns; it is said indeed that in the year 1648, the price of coal was so high in London that many poor persons perished for want of fuel. In the year 1655, the price of coals in London was upwards of twenty shillings per chaldron, and during the same period three hundred and twenty vessels were employed in the coal trade upon the Tyne, each of them carrying annually eight hundred chaldrons. An act of parliament was passed in 1655,^a by which a duty of one shilling per chaldron was granted to the lord mayor, to enable him to rebuild the churches and other public buildings, which were destroyed by the great fire in the preceding year. The sum, however, was found to be insufficient, and it was raised to three shillings. Charles the Second granted to the Duke of Richmond a duty of one shilling per chaldron, on coal exported by the Tyne, and the right to it continued in the same family until the year 1800, when it was purchased by government.

The state of the coal trade accorded ill with the liberal spirit which pervaded other branches of British commerce, and it called at last for the interference of the legislature. The high price of fuel in the metropolis was attributed to an impost of six shillings a chaldron levied by government on sea-borne coal, and to other local dues equally oppressive. It may be remarked that the same impost was not exacted at the pits or in the counties from which fuel is obtained, and where it is comparatively cheap. Thus a chaldron of coal which costs twelve or thirteen shillings at the coal works, was not sold in London under fifty-five. But the evils of such a system were not confined to the capital, they extended to the country, and it required no great sagacity to discover that this was one and certainly not the least cause of the superior condition of the labouring classes in the north over those in the south.

It may not perhaps be readily believed that the northern coal trade, or extracting coal from the pits, and conveying it to different places, affords the means of subsistence to more than forty-five thousand individuals. Such, however, is certainly the case, and as no other proof illustrates better the importance of this trade, it may be right to subjoin a quotation from the evidence of Mr. Buddle, taken by a committee of the House of Commons. "I hold a paper in my hand stating the number of people employed in the coal trade in each department. I beg to observe the returns from the Tyne are official documents; from the Wear I have no returns, but it is by an approximate calculation.^b The number of persons employed under ground on the Tyne are—men 4937, boys 3554, together 8491; above ground, men 2745, boys 718; making the total employed in the mines above and below ground 11,954, which in round numbers I shall call 12,000, because I am pretty sure there were some omissions in the returns. On the Wear I conceive there are at least 9000 employed, making 21,000 employed in digging the coal, and in delivering it on the two rivers. From the best calculations it would appear that averaging the coasting vessels that carry coal, at the size of 220 London chaldrons each vessel, there would be 1400 vessels employed, which would require 15,000 seamen and boys. I have made a summary;

there are seamen, 15,000; pitmen and above ground people employed at the collieries, 21,000; keelmen, coal boatmen, casters and trimmers, 2000; making the total number employed in what I call the northern coal trade, 38,000; in London, whippers, lightermen and so forth, 5000; factors, agents, &c. on the coal exchange, 2500; 7500 in all in London. Making the grand total in the north country and London departments of the trade, 45,500. This does not of course include the persons employed in the outports in discharging the ships."

The trade, however important in itself, is much more so in its relation to others; on it the others in a great degree depend. It enables us to explain the rapid and extraordinary rise of many populous towns, such as Manchester, Glasgow, Birmingham and Leeds; it accounts for the commercial greatness of Britain, to which nothing analogous can be found in ancient or in modern times. If the immense power which the genius of man has derived from this substance be considered, it need not excite surprise that the products of British industry have been multiplied almost to infinity. What has actually happened, may therefore be easily inferred; the different eras that mark the progress of this trade, indicate also corresponding advances in the arts and civilization.

The other places from which coal is obtained, may now be briefly mentioned. Other coal districts are situated in the Great Northern division, or in the country north of the Trent; of these some are little inferior to the one that has been described. The detached basins or seams in the north of Yorkshire are too insignificant both in extent and thickness to require any particular notice; but it is otherwise with the field in the southern part of the same county. The great Yorkshire and Derbyshire coal-field agrees so closely with that of Northumberland in the direction, inclination and character of its strata, that it has been considered a re-emergence of the same beds from the magnesian limestone, which conceals them through the long intermediate space.^c The area which it occupies may be compared to a triangle with a truncated apex. The northern extremity forms the base or broadest part, while the apex or narrowest is situated in the opposite direction. The greatest length from north to south, between Leeds in Yorkshire and Nottingham, is more than sixty miles; the greatest breadth, which is equal to twenty-two, is situated in Yorkshire. Like the strata of the Northumberland coal-field, they range from north to south, dip to the east, where they sink beneath the magnesian limestone, and rise towards the west and north-west, where the lowest measures at length crop out against the millstone-grit rocks, that form the higher ridges of the Penine chain.

Indications of coal have been discovered on the south of the Penine chain, between Ashborne and Derby, consequently on the north of the Trent. Turning from the southern to the western side of the same chain, two coal-fields may be observed, those of Cheadle and Newcastle under Lyne. The latter, or, as it is generally called, the Pottery coal-field, forms a triangular area, of which the sides are each nearly equal to ten miles, and the base to seven. The number of beds, it has been ascertained, amounts to thirty-two, while their thickness varies from

^a 1667.—The great fire in London happened in Sept. 1666.—P.

^b The approximate calculation has since been ascertained to be under the truth.

^c Geology of England and Wales, Part I. page 378.

three to ten feet. Mole-Copt hill may be considered the vertex of the triangle, the sides of which diverge toward the south-south-east and south-south-west. Much more important than the last is the coal-field of Manchester or South Lancashire, which commences in the north-western part of Derbyshire, and extends to the south-western part of Lancashire, forming a crescent, of which the opposite horns are at least forty miles from each other, and almost at an equal distance between them is situated the town of Manchester. The Derbyshire part of the field has been described by Mr. Farey in his natural history of that county; it may be regretted that his example has not been imitated, or that no accurate account has hitherto been published of the Lancashire portion, a fact not a little surprising, considering the zeal of English geologists. But the same may be said of another and a smaller field, occupying probably a detached basin in the northern extremity of the same county, between Lancaster and Ingleton.

The transition group of the Cumbrian mountains, says Mr. Conybeare, protrudes like an immense excrescence from the side of the Penine chain, and the formations of which it consists are thus forced to make a long detour, as the layers of wood are seen to do in surrounding a knot. The coal measures might be found on the south of this circle, were it not for the indentation formed by Morecambe Bay; they extend, however, on the western coast from Egremont, on the south of Whitehaven, to Hesket, and onwards at irregular distances to the vicinity of Orton; in other words, they may be traced through the northern semi-circle or boundary of the transition group.

The Rev. Mr. Townsend makes the following remarks concerning the coal of Cumberland: "Collieries proceed along the coast by Cocker-mouth to Maryport, forming a district of about one hundred square miles, in which three coal-fields are particularly noticed. First, Howgill, west of Whitehaven, two miles and a half wide from the rivulet called Pow on the eastern side, to more than one thousand yards under the sea. In this field, seven beds have been worked. Second, Whingill, north-east of Whitehaven; it extends 3000 yards in length by 2800 in width. In the depth of 165 fathoms, they work seven large beds, and eighteen thin ones have been observed. Third, Besides these, a more extensive coal-field has been discovered on the south and south-west of Whitehaven, which is yet unexplored."^a

All the coal-fields of any importance in the Great Northern district, have now been enumerated; they may be considered, not only in their relation to the physical geography of the country, but also as having an influence on the destinies of the inhabitants, accounting for the nature of their occupations, the diffusion of wealth, and the greatness of the population in comparison of the surface.

Three coal-fields are situated in the Central district, namely, one on the confines of Leicestershire and Staffordshire, another in Warwickshire, and a third in South Staffordshire. The first of these has obtained its name from the town of Ashby de la Zouch, around which it forms an irregular oval, equal in length to ten miles, and

to nearly eight at its greatest breadth. But the coal formations within this boundary are much broken, and it is uncertain whether they occupy two detached basins, or belong to one common field. The second or the Warwickshire field extends to the distance of sixteen miles from south-east to north-west, from Wicken, about three miles east from Coventry, to Wareston, about five miles to the east of Tamworth. The average breadth of the tract exceeds three miles. The principal works are at Griff and Bedworth, in the southern part of the field. In the former place four beds of coal are worked; the depth of the first is about 117 yards, and the principal seam is three yards in thickness. The Bedworth works are on the same strata, but the first and second run together, and form a seam of five yards.^b

The Dudley or South Staffordshire field is more extensive than either of the former, being about twenty miles in length, and about four at its greatest breadth. The area has been ascertained by measurement to be equal to sixty square miles. It may be divided into two portions, of which the northern stretches from Cannock Chase to Bilston, and the southern from the last place to the neighbourhood of Stourbridge. It may be mentioned that a bed of remarkable thickness, not less than thirty feet, is worked in this field. As this part of the country is inconveniently situated for conveying coals to a great distance, the produce is sold at a cheap rate, and much of it is never carried from the works. It is well known that coals are cheaper in Birmingham than in any other part of England, and that circumstance accounts sufficiently for the rise of the town. There is reason to believe that little more than a third part of the coal obtained from the mines is actually sold, while the rest or the smaller fragments become useless by exposure to the air. All the neighbouring counties are now supplied with coal by means of the canals that communicate with Birmingham, and an immense quantity is necessary for the numerous iron works in the vicinity.

It may be observed that the North Welsh coal-fields^c have been less accurately examined than most others in England. A valley nearly parallel to the Menai Straits, and about six miles distant from it, traverses the Isle of Anglesea. It is bounded on both sides by carboniferous limestone, and coal, which has been found in the depressions, is worked near the Maltraeth estuary, while the same substance extends probably along the whole line. The coal measures in Flintshire are supposed to extend nearly thirty miles from Llanassa,^d near the western cape of the Dee, to the neighbourhood of Oswestry in Shropshire. The plain of Shrewsbury is in most places covered with strata of the newer red sandstone, but several broken patches of coal are scattered over it; they are besides found in the intervals between the transition chains by which the same plain is indented. The Coalbrook-dale field extends from Wombridge to Coal-port on the Severn. The length of the tract is equal to six miles, while the greatest breadth does not exceed two. Some of the beds are very sulphureous, and on account of the fetid odour which they emit, they are only used for burning lime. Brown Clee Hill and Titterstone Clee

^a Vindication of the character of Moses as an historian.

^b Geology of England and Wales. [The Bedworth works are upon the same beds, but here the first and second coal-seams of Griff run

together, and constitute one five-yard seam. Conybeare and Phillips Geology, Part I. p. 407.—P.]

^c North-western district.

^d Llan Asaph (St. Asaph's Church).—P.

Hill, two of the loftiest heights in Shropshire, are situated a few miles to the south of Coalbrook-dale. The summits are covered with overlying masses of basalt, but the coal is worked about midway from the base; in the first, the coal is observed in thin strata, but in the other, the principal stratum is upwards of six feet in thickness. The most valuable field, or that of Cornbrook,^a is about a mile long by a quarter broad. The Billingsley tract on the east of the Clee hills, stretches from Deuse hill on the north, to the borders of Shropshire and Worcestershire on the south, a length of eight miles; but it is doubtful whether it consists of one continuous field or several small ones. Two small fields are situated near the base of the Aberley hills, the one at Pensax, the other at the distance of three miles to the west of it; their geological relations have not been examined.^b

Another coal country may now be mentioned; it has been called the South-western district, and it comprehends the South Welsh basin, that of the Forest of Dean, and that of South Gloucestershire and Somersetshire. These basins are connected with each other by contiguity of position, and geologically by a common base and the general analogies of their structure. The strata near the edges of the basins are often very highly inclined, but nearer the centre a great portion of them is concealed by horizontal deposits of more recent formation, such as calcareo-magnesian conglomerate, new red sandstone, red marle and lias. Thus, in many instances in Somersetshire, the shafts are begun in lias, and sunk completely through the newer sandstone to the coal measures; some of them, indeed, have been sunk to the great depth of two hundred fathoms.^c

The great coal-field of South Wales extends from Pontypool on the east, to St. Bride's Bay on the west. The lowest beds of coal are about seven hundred fathoms beneath the highest elevation in the district, but from this circumstance, the miner is not put to much inconvenience, for the country is intersected by deep vallies, which extend generally from north to south. It appears, from a survey of the district, that there are twelve beds of coal from three to nine feet thick, together seventy feet and a half, and eleven others from eighteen inches to three feet, together twenty-four feet and a quarter; in all nearly ninety-five feet. The extent of surface is not less than one hundred square miles, and according to the common method of working, every square acre may yield 100,000 tons, or every square mile, 64,000,000 tons of coal. Different sorts of coal are obtained in different parts of the district; on the north-east, it resembles coke; what is termed stone coal is more common on the north-west; the larger sort is used for drying malt and hops, and the smaller or culm, as it is termed, for burning limestone; on the south side, it is mostly of a bituminous quality.

The Forest of Dean coal is contained in an elliptical basin, of which the superficial extent is nearly equal to forty square miles. There are not fewer than seventeen strata, but the total thickness of coal does not exceed thirty-seven feet.

The last coal basin that shall be mentioned, is that of South Gloucestershire and Somersetshire; it stretches

^a On the Titterstone Clee Hill there are six different coal-fields, of which the Cornbrook coal-field is the most extensive and valuable. It is about a mile long, and half a mile broad. (Conybeare and Phillips, p. 423.)—P.

from Iron Acton on the north, to the foot of the Mendip Hills on the south, a distance of twenty-five miles; its breadth from the neighbourhood of Bath on the east, to that of Bristol on the west, is about eleven miles, and this last line is marked by the course of the river Avon, which divides the basin into two nearly equal parts. In this tract there are several extensive faults, some of which elevate the strata more than one hundred feet; in the greater portion of it, also, the coal measures are concealed by more recent deposits; the labour of working them is thus greatly increased, but the difficulty has been surmounted by British industry.

All the coal districts of any importance in England, have now been enumerated; it was thought necessary to describe them minutely, not because this substance forms a distinguishing feature in the physical geography of the country, but an important element of its wealth, the ingenuity of man rendering it subservient to his purposes, and thus increasing his power. It places the mariner beyond the control of the winds, while it renders the land traveller no longer dependent on animal force, and enables him to proceed with a velocity which, in the last age, might have been deemed *impossible*, so little are inventions or improvements contemplated by the generation that immediately precedes them.

Iron and lead, the most useful of the metals, are found in the coal districts; we shall afterwards have occasion to allude to them more fully; at present it may be remarked that other metals of great utility, such as copper and tin, are the products of transition or primitive districts. On account of these metals, Cornwall has been long famous; at an early period the Phœnicians repaired to this part of England, and traded with the inhabitants; in a later age the Cornish mines were deemed of so much importance that the *stannary* courts for assaying and stamping the metals, the produce of these mines, were established in different towns. In several parts of Cornwall, alluvial deposits of tin are found in vallies and low grounds; they are worked or separated from the earthly matter by passing a stream of water over them; with this exception, copper and tin are not found in strata or beds in Cornwall. The veins in which they occur, extend generally from east to west; their deviation from that direction, or their inclination to the north or south in some parts of their course, is termed by the miners the *underlie of the load*. What might be naturally expected when two veins underlie each other in opposite directions, and meet under ground, does not often happen, for in many instances they are rich, when separate, and poor, beyond their junction. If, on the other hand, two veins underlie each other in the same or nearly the same direction, and the one overtakes the other, they seem mutually to enrich each other.^d

No precise information has been obtained concerning the length or depth of the veins. The most productive, it is known, extend to a greater distance than three or four miles; it has been supposed indeed that they extend the whole length of the county, but such an opinion is merely conjectural, as there is every reason to believe that no miner ever observed the termination of a vein either on the east or the west. The same may

^b Tracts on Natural History by Dr. Townson.

^c Dr. Townson's Tracts, &c.

^d Transactions of the Geological Society, volume 4th. Mr. Phillips on the veins of Cornwall.

be said of their depth, for no instance has occurred in which the miners have reached the lowest part of the vein; before that happens, the works are abandoned either on account of their poverty, or because the expense of continuing them is not likely to be indemnified by the produce. The mine of Dolcoath is said to be the deepest in Cornwall, and the works are carried on at the depth of 228 fathoms.

As to the breadth of the veins, they vary from one to thirty feet, but the widest are not considered the most productive; on the contrary, one of two or three feet is preferred, as the ore is found to be mixed in less proportion with foreign ingredients. A hundred and twenty mines were worked a few years ago in Cornwall, and the net annual produce of the copper mines alone amounts in value to nearly £400,000.^a A century ago the English imported the same metal from Germany and Sweden; it is now exported from England to every quarter of the globe.

The manner in which the works are managed, and the prospect of gain held out to individuals, are probably the chief causes of so great a change. In other parts of Europe, works of the same sort are under the control of the different governments, and a portion of the public revenue is set apart for such purposes, or grants and immunities are established in their favour; lastly, officers educated to the profession of mining are appointed by the state to superintend the mines. But in England the method is different; all that government does is to respect and secure private property; the rest is left to individual ingenuity and enterprise.

It might be shown, were it at all necessary, that individuals are better qualified than governments to estimate the profits likely to arise from such undertakings. But while it is not doubtful that the English method is the best, the defects that arise from the habits and ignorance of the miners, may be mentioned with regret. No class of men are more expert than the Cornish miners in discovering veins, a branch of their profession, in which skill is the result of long experience and repeated trials. It may not perhaps be readily believed that all of them, even the directors of the works, or the *captains* as they are provincially styled, are ignorant of chemistry and geology, two sciences, of which some knowledge at least is of the highest use in their art. Much loss and waste which might have been otherwise prevented, must be attributed to the above cause. It is not more than a century since the copper ore was discovered beneath the tin, and within that period, whatever was not tin was considered of no value. It is well known that many roads in the county have been mended with copper ore. Cobalt has been thrown away by the miners on the heaps at Dolcoath mine, and bismuth has been mistaken for cobalt in the works at Huel-Sparnon. The native silver in Herland might have remained concealed, had not the vibrations of some filaments attracted the attention of a workman; before that time the ore containing the precious metal was thrown away as useless.^b

^a Taylor on the Economy of the Mines of Cornwall and Devon. Geological Transactions, volume 4th.

^b Phillips on the veins of Cornwall. Geological Transactions, volume 4th.

^c "Whether tin doth grow again, and fill up places which have been formerly wrought away, or whether it only separateth itself from the consumed offal, hath been much controverted, and is not to this day

Some improvement, however, has taken place of late years, and some good has been effected by mechanics' institutions; still it might be of advantage to establish schools in the most convenient places, that the miners may attain a competent knowledge of their art. The laudable desire of diffusing knowledge among the lower orders might thus be gratified, and the mines might be worked with much greater profit. It is certain that the workmen still make use of the divining rod, and still believe in the reproduction of metals.^c But the Cornish miners are patient and laborious; they brave great dangers for a very trifling profit. It is customary for a workman to walk two or three miles in the middle of the night, and in the worst weather; having reached the mine, he throws off his dress, and puts on his underground clothes, slings his tools over his shoulder, and descends by ladders with the light of a small candle, a depth of a thousand or twelve hundred feet. The same person works six or eight hours amidst the noise of pumps and steam-engines, with as much alacrity and as little consciousness of danger, as if he were engaged in his ordinary occupations above ground.^d "The mine of Huel-Cock," says Mr. Pryce, "is wrought eighty fathoms in length under the sea, below low-water mark; and the sea in some places, is only three fathoms over the back of the works, so that the men underneath hear the break, flux, ebb and reflux of the waves, which having had the run of the Atlantic Ocean for many hundred leagues, are consequently impetuous and boisterous. They also hear the rumbling noise of every nodule and fragment of rock, continually rolling on the submarine stratum, and producing a kind of thundering noise, which is not heard without dread by a stranger. Add to this, that several parts of the vein, which are richer than others, have been very indiscreetly hulked and worked within four feet of the sea; whereby in violent stormy weather, the noise has been so tremendous that the workmen have often fled from their labour, fearing that the sea was about to break in on them."^e

Such is their occupation, and although they are not better paid than men engaged in other sorts of labour, attended with less danger and less toil, comparatively few of them change their calling, or seek elsewhere the means of subsistence.

To describe minutely the mineral kingdom in England is not the design of the present work; the most valuable substances have now been mentioned, and in the remarks on the different counties, occasion shall be taken to notice the most remarkable of their mineral products.

If a line be drawn from the coast of Berwickshire to Liverpool, and through Montgomery in North Wales, to Ludlow, then east of Hereford, and onwards to Teignmouth on the coast of Devon, on the west of it are the mountainous tracts of Cornwall and Devonshire, Wales, Cumberland and Westmoreland; it may serve also as a boundary between the primitive and transition rocks that extend towards the west, and the more regularly stratified

decided. And whether dead lodes that have not one grain of tin in them, may not hereafter be impregnated, matured and prove a future supply to the country when the present lodes are exhausted, I think well deserves our highest consideration." Notes to Carew's Survey of Cornwall by Tomkin, edited by Lord de Dunstanville, 1811.

^d Phillips on the veins of Cornwall.

^e Mineralogia Cornubiensis.

and newer deposits on the east. If another line be extended northwards, from Exmouth, through Taunton, to Tewkesbury, and thence with a moderate curvature to the east, through Stratford upon Avon, Leicester, east of Nottingham, Newark, Gainsborough and York, to the mouth of the Tees, it will also divide the island into two portions, of which the western includes, besides the mountainous regions already mentioned, the remaining metaliferous tract, and all the coal districts, that on the east consisting entirely of the more recent stratified rocks; a division which, it has been remarked, is attended with a corresponding difference in the occupations of the inhabitants of the two portions, and forms a sort of natural boundary between the agricultural and manufacturing population.^a

The science of geology has been cultivated with much success in England, and many persons, whose only object is to gratify a desire of knowledge, have bestowed on it their time and their labour. If Mr. Smith had concealed his discoveries, he might have reaped a golden harvest, but he took every opportunity of proclaiming them, thinking it best for the interests of science, and the welfare of his country. The practical advantages resulting from the labours of such men might be appreciated, were it possible to ascertain the sums that have been lost, or may still be lost, in speculations, of which the failure may be predicted with certainty. It is not long since £80,000 were expended in seeking for coal at Bexhill in Sussex, although the sand of that place^b is separated by so great a depth from the coal series, as to render abortive every attempt to pass through the intermediate strata.^c Mr. Townsend informs us, that a pit was sunk for coal to the depth of six hundred fathoms, at Bruham near the chalk hills of Bradley-Nole, and that the miners reached only to the uppermost beds of the great oolite.^d The history of mining operations in England abounds with such examples. It may be mentioned, on the authority of the last writer, that the commissioners of the Bath roads sent ten miles for flints, while their waggons actually passed, without their knowing it, over a bed of flints for the greater part of the way, which was concealed by the sand that covers the surface. The stone of which the Bath cathedral is built, was conveyed from the distance of four miles; it was not then known that the same stone might be obtained in the immediate vicinity; quarries have since been opened. If errors of a like nature are now less frequently committed, if pits are not so often sunk in vain, it is because practical men have availed themselves of the discoveries of geologists, or in other words, have become better acquainted with the geological position of the different strata.

The animal kingdom in England differs little from that of other countries between nearly corresponding parallels; it is unnecessary, therefore, to enumerate the species that compose it. It may be remarked that the wolf and the wild boar, formerly not unknown in England, have long since been extirpated. It is not easy, however, to obtain any accurate information concerning the precise period in which these animals were destroyed.

^a Introduction to the Geology of England and Wales Smith's Geological Map.

^b Iron sand.—This formation often contains, (especially in Bedfordshire, Dorsetshire, and near Hastings,) a considerable quantity of fossil wood, and even regular beds of wood coal. The sands alternating with these beds also much resemble, in some places, those occurring in the great coal formation. These circumstances have led to expen-

It is known that Edgar, who reigned in the early part of the tenth century, employed many persons in hunting wolves, and so great was their diligence, that these ravenous animals were driven or fled for refuge to the mountains and forests of Wales. Athelstan, the predecessor of the same prince, imposed a tribute on the Welsh, from which they were exonerated by Edgar, on condition of rendering him every year three hundred wolves' heads. The latter tax, it is added, was punctually paid. It appears, from the laws of Hoel-Dha,^e the Welsh legislator, that his grand huntsman was permitted to chase the wild boar from the middle of November to the beginning of December. The same animal, it is likely, existed in England after the reign of William the Conqueror; but in his time it was by no means common, and those who killed a wild boar within the royal forests, were punished with the loss of their eyes.

The stag in its natural state is very rare in England, still a few of them are found on the borders of Cornwall. In most countries, the colour of the stag is yellow, but in England, it is of a dusky red. Of the fallow deer that are seen in the parks of the landed proprietors, there are two sorts; the one of a fine dappled colour was originally brought from India; the other of a dark brown was imported from Norway by James the First.

The hills, the woods, and the valleys, abound with different kinds of game, of which the most common perhaps are the hare, the partridge, and the pheasant. The red variety of the partridge is by no means scarce in Suffolk and other counties, but the pheasant can hardly be said to exist in a wild state; some, it is true, are bred in the woods of Norfolk, and in other parts of the country, but the greater number are brought up in confinement; the eggs are hatched under domestic fowls, and the young at a certain age are set at liberty. The red grouse is observed on the hilly and barren tracts in the north of England, but they are not so common as in many parts of Scotland. The black cock is found in Wales, and also in different parts of the New Forest, in Hampshire, where it is preserved as royal game. The ptarmigan has been occasionally seen on the lofty hills of Wales and Cumberland. The bustard, although very scarce, exists still in different parts of England, as in the open country near Dorchester, on Salisbury plain, in the neighbourhood of Newmarket, and in the Wolds of Yorkshire. The wild duck is nowhere more common than in the fens of Lincolnshire.

The turtle dove arrives late in the spring, and departs about the end of August; they appear in greater numbers in Kent than in any other county. The nightingale, the finest of the British songsters, visits England in April, and leaves it in August; it is rare in Yorkshire, and is not heard in the more northern counties. The woodcocks begin to appear in October, but the greater number do not arrive before November or December; they return about the middle of March; coming down to the sea coast when the wind is favourable, they then repair to their breeding places. It has been observed

sive but abortive attempts to procure this combustible from these beds near Bexhill in Sussex. (Conybeare and Phillips' Geol. England and Wales, p. 137.)—Bexhill is near the coast, to the west of Hastings.—P.

^c Herschel's Discourse on Natural Philosophy, page 34, Am. Ed.

^d Townsend's Vindication of Moses, &c. page 125.

^e Hoel Dda (Howel the Good).—P

that the woodcock is gradually becoming rare in England, and the cause is attributed to the progress of cultivation. The starlings appear perhaps in denser flocks than any of the other birds; they actually darken the air in the fens of Lincolnshire, and break down the reeds with their weight.

Of the different kinds of fish that frequent the English rivers, the salmon is the most valuable; although it is found in most of the principal streams, it is more plentiful in the Tweed, the border river, than in any other. Other kinds are obtained in great abundance on the coasts, and the different fisheries to which they have given rise, form an important branch of commerce.

The herring fisheries on the coasts of England, are less valuable and extensive than in Scotland; they are taken, however, on many parts of the eastern coast, and principally in the neighbourhood of Yarmouth; they are also found on the western coast, but not in so great numbers.

Many of the herrings are exported, but the produce of the mackerel fisheries is confined to the supply of the home market; they are taken between the coasts of Norfolk on the east and north, and those of Hampshire on the south and west. Mackerel are not so plentiful to the north of Yarmouth, and they are neglected westward of Hampshire, on account of the greater importance of the pilchard fishery. London is the great market for mackerel, and it is calculated that some millions of them are sold there every year.

It is on the coasts of Dorsetshire, Devonshire and Cornwall, particularly the last, that the greater number of pilchards are taken. These fish were once in so much request in the Italian states, that the orders to Cornwall for tin and copper were frequently conditional, or it was stipulated that if so many pilchards could not be sent, the other articles would not be received.^a Dartmouth and Falmouth are the two ports in which the trade is chiefly carried on, and although it has much declined of late years, there are not fewer than three hundred pilchard vessels of every kind in the former place, and a still greater number in the latter.

Colchester, Wells, Faversham, Milton, the Swales of the Medway, Queenborough, Rochester, Sea Salter, Poole, Tenby and Port Inon are the principal seats of the oyster fisheries. The Colchester oysters are held in the greatest repute, but they are only fattened there; most of them are taken between Chichester and Southampton. Poole employs about forty sloops and boats in fishing oysters, and supplies the London market two months every season, in which time the receipts are supposed to average £8000 or £10,000. Two hundred fishermen and five or six sloops are employed at Port Inon in this trade; it supplies the Bristol, Bath and Gloucester markets. The other fisheries are of less consequence; they consist chiefly of turbot, cod and lobsters: the most important turbot fisheries are situated on the coasts of Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex and different parts of the English Channel; on the other hand, the greatest quantity of cod and lobsters are taken on the north-eastern coasts.

It might be shown that England derives considerable advantage from her fisheries, some affording a cheap

and wholesome article of food to every class of the community, others ministering to the luxuries of the rich, and all of them furnishing a hardy race of men to the navy. Few countries indeed are so favourably situated in this respect, the extent of the coasts being very great in proportion to the extent of surface, and the numerous indentations, creeks and inlets affording shelter from every wind.

In every civilized country, the *fera*^b are of infinitely less value than the domestic animals: the food which the latter afford, depends not on the contingencies of the chase; their strength is employed for the advantage of man; their multiplication is subject to his control, and is regulated by his wants; nay more, the very qualities for which they are most valuable, are improved by his care. It is long since the superiority of the English horse has been admitted; certainly neither the soil nor the climate is favourable to that animal in its wild state, but every obstacle has been overcome by the inhabitants, and their coursers are equal to any for strength and swiftness. The English racer has been improved with the best blood of Arabia; the remarkable resemblance between them was observed by Buffon, who thought the principal difference consisted in the greater size of the English horse. The latter are probably fleetier, but it need not be forgotten, that the best of them were sprung from Arabs. The English themselves believe that the breed of their racers is apt to degenerate, if it be not crossed at certain intervals with the Asiatic. The passion of the English for horse racing has been at least attended with one advantage, that of improving the breed; in the qualities of the racer, the hunter and the carriage-horse participate; the excellence of the one is well known, and the rate of travelling is the best proof that can be adduced of the superiority of the other.

The English draught horses are held in great and merited repute; the three best sorts are the Cleveland bay, the Suffolk punch, and the Old English black or Lincolnshire cart horse. The first are bred in many parts of Northumberland and Durham, and also in Cleveland, a district in Yorkshire, from which, as well as from their ordinary colour, they derive their name. If not urged beyond their ordinary pace, they can bear a long continuance of fatigue; it is said on good authority, that many of them have travelled with heavy loads the extraordinary distance of sixty or seventy miles within twenty-four hours, not once, but three or four times in a week. No animal, it is added, is better adapted for farm labour, and the mares are the best species of stock for the double purpose of work and breeding.^c The second variety is admirably adapted for the light and sandy lands in Norfolk and Suffolk, where they are generally used, and where, it is said, they can plough more in a given time than other horses; this, if correct, is as much owing to the nature of the soil as to any excellence in the breed. The black cart horse is common in Leicestershire, Northamptonshire, Lincolnshire, and some of the neighbouring counties. It is remarkable for its size and strength, but not for its activity; on the contrary, it is supposed to be heavy and sluggish. These horses have been at different times improved, particularly

^a Edinburgh Encyclopedia, art. England—Fisheries.
VOL. III.—NO. 57

^b Wild animals.

^c Agricultural Survey of Durham, p. 257.

by the late Earl of Chesterfield, who sent six Zealand mares to England during his embassy at the Hague, and at a latter period by the celebrated Mr. Bakewell. The properties of this breed are exhibited in the London dray horse, and his extreme docility is not the least valuable of his qualities. The other sorts are inferior to the three that have been now mentioned; they are, however, sufficiently numerous; indeed, it is hardly possible to travel through England without observing a difference in the draught horses of different counties.

The type of the English ox is said to be preserved at Chartley Park in Derbyshire,^a and at Chillingham Castle in Northumberland, the seat of the Earl of Tankerville. These animals exist still in a wild state, and their colour, shape and habits are very different from those of the domestic ox. The following description of them is given by Mr. Bailey. "Their colour is invariably white, muzzle black; the whole of the inside of the ear, and about one-third of the outside from the tip downwards, red; horns white with black tips, very fine, and bent upwards. Some of the bulls have a thin and upright mane about an inch and a half or two inches long. The weight of the oxen is from thirty-five to forty-five stone of fourteen pounds, and that of the cows from twenty-five to thirty-five the four quarters."^b

The county of Devonshire has been long famous for its oxen, and it has been asserted by some writers on agriculture, that they are directly descended from the wild race. It is certain that they are well calculated for draught, and fatten readily, and from them are derived the *old red cattle* of Gloucestershire, and the Herefordshire and Sussex breeds. But the old Gloucester reds are now very scarce; they appear to have been a mixed breed, from the Devonshire and Welsh cattle. The Herefordshire cattle, although larger than the Devonshire, resemble them in other respects. The Sussex cattle are supposed to be the best in the kingdom for draught, and oxen are used more for labour in Sussex than in other parts of England.

The neck of land, containing Cumberland and Lancashire on the western, and Northumberland, Durham and Yorkshire, on the eastern coast, is considered the native country of the long and short horned oxen. It was on the former that Mr. Bakewell made his experiments for the improvement of cattle, from which there resulted the new Leicester variety, believed to be better adapted for the grazier than any other in the kingdom. The short horns, or the Teesdale, Lincoln, Holderness and Tweed-side oxen, are the largest of any in Britain. The data are wanting to form a correct estimate of the number of cattle in England, but from an approximation sufficiently near the truth, it cannot be less than 4,000,000.

The rearing of sheep forms another branch of rural economy, more important than the last in its relation to commerce and manufacturing industry. To enumerate the different varieties of this useful animal might lead us into minute details, which it is necessary to avoid. Sheep are most common on the mountainous districts of England and Wales, on the rich pastures in the midland counties, and on the marshy lands; they are also fattened on many arable farms in different parts of the country.

^a In Staffordshire, 3 miles N. E. of the town of Stafford.—P.

^b Agricultural Survey of Northumberland, p. 141.

All the varieties in the kingdom may be divided into two classes, the long and the short woolled sheep; the difference between them is founded on the nature of their fleece, the wool of the one being better adapted for woollen goods, that of the other for the fabrication of worsted.

The former, although common in many districts, are more numerous on the eastern than the western side of the kingdom; they are found too in greater numbers near the coasts than the middle of the country. The most northern are reared near the mouth of the Tees; others in the tract which comprehends the south-eastern extremity of Yorkshire, the greater part of Lincolnshire, and the fen-lands of Huntingdonshire, Cambridgeshire and Norfolk. They may be seen in the small marshes which surround the inlets of the sea in Essex and Kent, but nowhere in so great numbers as in those of Romney and Guilford in the latter county. They are common throughout Leicestershire, Rutlandshire and Northamptonshire, in most parts of Dorsetshire, Devonshire and Cornwall, on the Coteswold Hills, and along the banks of the principal rivers.

The short woolled sheep are more scattered, and are divided into six different kinds, namely, the Norfolk, South Down, Wiltshire, Herefordshire, the heath sheep, and the Cheviot or mountain breed.

According to an approximation, which is not believed to be very wide of the truth, the long woolled sheep are equal in number to 4,153,308, and the number of acres on which they are maintained, to 3,939,563. The highest stock of long woolled sheep per acre, is twenty-one on four, and the lowest, one on three acres. The weight of the fleece varying from five to nine pounds, may give the average of seven pounds ten ounces. The total quantity of long wool is not less than 137,288 packs. The number of short woolled sheep may be equal to 14,854,299; the highest stock per acre is about four sheep on three acres, and the lowest, one on four. The fleece varies from one pound and a half to five pounds, and the number of packs is calculated to be equal to 255,948. In this estimate the shorn, the carrion, and the wool from slaughtered animals, are included. If to these results the quantity of lamb's wool be added, the total produce may amount to 403,954 packs. It is hardly necessary to add that a considerable portion is not fitted for manufacturing purposes.^c

As the breeding of pigs is an object of some impor-

^c Some notion of the different sorts of sheep may be inferred from the following table.

Different breeds and distinguishing properties.				Weight of fleece.	Weight per quarter.
1 Dishley	no horns	white faces and legs	combing wool	7 lbs.	25 lbs.
2 Lincoln	ditto	ditto	ditto	8	25
3 Teeswater	ditto	ditto	ditto	8	30
4 Dartmoor	ditto	ditto	ditto	8	30
5 Exmoor	horns	ditto	ditto	6	16
6 Dorset	ditto	ditto	carding wool	3½	18
7 Hereford	no horns	ditto	fine ditto	2	14
8 South Down	ditto	grey faces and legs	ditto	2½	18
9 Norfolk	horns	black faces and legs	ditto	2	18
10 Heath	ditto	ditto	coarse combing	3½	15
11 Herdwick	no horns	speckled ditto	carding	2	10
12 Cheviot	ditto	white faces and legs	ditto	3	16
13 Dun-faced	ditto	dun faces and legs	ditto	1½	7
14 Romney Marsh	ditto	white faces and legs	combing	7	25
15 Spanish	horns	ditto	carding	3½	—

tance in England, it may be right to mention the most ordinary sorts or, at all events, the most valuable. The Berkshire is small boned, and disposed to fatten quickly; it has extended from the county, from which it takes its name, to most parts of the island. The Chinese crosses are very common. The Gloucestershire, supposed to have once been the prevailing breed in the island, are of a white colour, large and ill-shaped. The Rudgwick, so called from a town of the same name in Sussex, are the largest sort in England: they feed to an extraordinary size; at two years old, being generally twice as heavy as other kinds of the same age. A new variety, the large spotted Woburn, was introduced by the late Duke of Bedford; they are prolific, hardy and easily fattened. The Dishley breed is distinguished by the common properties of Mr. Bakewell's stock.

BOOK CLIV.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—England.—Section Third.—Topographical Divisions.—Towns, &c.

HAVING endeavoured in the preceding chapters to give a succinct account of the physical geography of England, and having also entered into some details concerning its early inhabitants, their manners, institutions and government, it is only necessary to examine the country more minutely, to describe the different towns, and to make known the sources of wealth, or the products of industry, for which they are remarkable.

The principal civil divisions are counties or shires; of these there are forty in England and twelve in Wales. It may be as well, however, before attempting to describe them, to take some notice of the Anglo-Norman islands near the coasts of France, all that the English sovereigns now possess of the ancient duchy of Normandy. The inhabitants are governed by their own laws, which are derived for the most part from Norman customs. Although nominally under the government of a higher power, they may be considered free: they are exempt from naval and military service; they are not subject to the English church; and lastly, they enjoy the benefit of a free port, and may carry on a trade with the enemies of England in time of war.

The island of Jersey is situated about eighteen miles west of Normandy, and about eighty-four south of Portland in Dorsetshire. It contains two towns, St. Helier and St. Aubin, and twelve parishes. The number of inhabitants amounts nearly to 30,000; they are scattered over a surface not more than twelve miles in length and six in breadth. The southern side is almost level with the sea; the three others are defended by dangerous quick-sands and rocks, which rise on the north to the height of forty or fifty fathoms. A series of hills extends through the middle of the island; they are so thickly planted with orchards that they resemble a forest; indeed these plantations are too numerous, enough of arable land is not reserved for the growth of corn, and the deficiency is supplied by importations from the Baltic, England and France. The produce of the apple trees yields twenty-five thousand hogsheads of cider in a season. The island abounds also in cattle and sheep; the wool which the latter afford is manufactured by the inhabitants, and sold in the market of St. Helier.

Guernsey, neither so large nor so populous as Jersey, is situated about twenty-one miles to the north of it. St. Pierre or St. Peter,^a the only town in the island,

^a Fr. Port St. Pierre. Eng. St. Peter le Port, St. Peter's Port, or Port St. Peter's.—P.

^b Sea weed. *Vraic* (Ed. Enc.) Fr. *varec*. Eng. *wrack*.—P.

^c Sark (Fr. *Cerq*), a small island, east of Guernsey, with less than 500 inhabitants, should be added to the list of Anglo-Norman isles.—P.

consists of a long narrow street, adorned with several fine buildings. The harbour is safe and commodious, and on each side of it are strong piers. The town and the harbour are defended by the strong fortress of Castle Cornet, built on a steep rock, surrounded by the sea, and only accessible at low water by a very narrow passage. The island is noted for its fruits and for *wrac*,^b a marine plant, which grows in profusion, and is used both for fuel and manure. The inhabitants are distinguished by their loyalty, but they resemble the French more than the English in their manners and customs. A town, which contains only a thousand inhabitants, and which from the appearance of its houses, resembles a village, is situated near the centre of the small island of Alderney. In the year 1119, Henry, Duke of Normandy, son of King Henry the First, and many of the nobility, were shipwrecked and lost in the neighbourhood of the island.^c

Not more than five or six of the Scilly Islands are inhabited,^d and the total number of inhabitants does not amount to three thousand. In St. Mary, the largest of these islands, is situated the small town of Heughton or Newtown, in which the most remarkable buildings are a custom-house, a council-house, and a prison. Dolphin, the only town in Treseo, consists of a church and about forty houses built of stone. The people earn a subsistence by acting as pilots, by fishing, and by burning kelp.

The county of Cornwall, of which these islands form a part, is surrounded by the sea on all sides except the east, where it is bounded by the Tamar, which separates it from Devonshire. It was the ancient country of the *Dumnonii*; it derives its present name from its shape, which bears some resemblance to a horn. It has been found by actual measurement to contain 849,280 acres, but of these more than 200,000 are waste; the rest are divided into pasturage and tillage. The greatest length of the county is upwards of ninety miles, the greatest breadth about forty-two, and the narrowest part towards the Land's-End, or from Mount's Bay to the Bristol Channel, not more than four. Situated at the extremity of the island, and long deprived by their secluded position from the advantages of frequent intercourse with the other inhabitants, the Cornish men were less civilized or more ignorant than the rest of their countrymen; the Armorican, a dialect of the Welsh, was spoken by them at no remote period, but it has since been superseded by the English.^e

It may be inferred from the extent of the waste lands

^d The inhabited islands are six in number, viz. St. Mary's, Treseo, St. Martin's, St. Agnes, Sampson, and Brehar or Breyer. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e Till about three centuries ago, a peculiar language was spoken in Cornwall, which was evidently Celtic, and allied to the Welsh and the language of Brittany. (Ed. Enc.)—The Cornish was a dialect of the

that Cornwall cannot be considered an agricultural county. A ridge of bare and rugged hills, intermixed with bleak moors, runs along its whole length, and reaches in the narrowest parts from side to side. The low grounds from the hills to the coasts are rendered fertile by the manure which the sea weeds afford, but a brackish atmosphere and violent winds prevent the growth of trees and hedges near the shore. Barley is the grain that succeeds best, and large crops of it are produced near the banks of the Camel; the potato arrives also at great perfection, and seems to be admirably adapted to the climate. But the wealth of Cornwall consists in its mines and fisheries. Various sorts of fish are taken on the Cornish coast, but none in such abundance as the pilchard; immense shoals of them appear in the summer and autumn; it affords a cheap and wholesome food to the poor, and forms besides an important article of trade; large quantities of them are cured and exported to the Mediterranean. The capital employed in the fisheries exceeds £400,000; they furnish occupation to 12,000 individuals, and the annual revenue derived from them is not less than £50,000.

Cornwall surpasses most other counties in its mineral products; by an accurate survey of the mines, made in the beginning of the present century, and by subsequent observations, it has been ascertained that there are forty-five mines of copper, thirty of tin, eighteen of copper and tin, two of copper and silver, one of silver, and others of cobalt, antimony and manganese. The present stannary towns, viz. Launceston, Lostwithiel, Truro, Helston and Penzance, may indicate the importance which has been attached to the tin mines. The tanners are obliged to convey their blocks to these places that they may be stamped by the proper officers. The ordinary weight of these blocks is about 336 lbs., the value of each is upwards of £10, and the number obtained every year varies from twenty-five to thirty thousand. The annual value of the produce of the copper mines has lately been estimated at £400,000. The other minerals are *lapis calaminaris*, soap rock, and China stone, a decomposed granite, of which the feldspar having lost its fusibility, renders it a valuable substance in the Staffordshire potteries. Steatite^a abounds between Mullien and the Lizard Point, and the quarries are let to the Worcester porcelain company. Granite, not the least valuable of the Cornish minerals, forms the chain that passes from Dartmoor to the Land's End; the rock, when first broken, is so soft as to be easily worked, but it becomes very hard by exposure to the atmosphere. The industry of the inhabitants is not confined to the occupations which the metals and the minerals of the county afford; there are many paper mills on the streams near Hayle, a village remarkable for its extensive smelting works; carpets are manufactured at Truro, and coarse woollen stuffs in Callington, Launceston, St. Austle,^b Bodmin and other towns.

As a port and a place of trade, Falmouth may be considered the most important town in the county. It consisted only of a few fishing huts about two centuries

ago, but its position without the channel, enabling vessels to sail to the south of Europe, and avoid the gulf of Gascony, have rendered it an important town. Packets sail regularly for the Peninsula, the West Indies and other parts of the world. The port is supposed to occupy the site which Ptolemy assigns to the *Cenionis Ostium*, and according to a tradition, the *Black Rock* near the middle of the entrance was once an island in which the Phœnicians carried on a trade in tin with the natives. The bay from its numerous creeks or windings is capable of affording shelter to the whole navy of England. The river *Cenio*, mentioned by Ptolemy, is the modern Fal, which gives its name to the town; the latter is principally composed of a single and well built street nearly a mile in length. The harbour is defended by the two forts of St. Mawe's and Pendennis, on two small capes about a mile and a half distant from each other. They were both built by Henry the Eighth, but Pendennis was considerably enlarged by Elizabeth; during the civil wars it made an obstinate resistance against Cromwell, whose lines of defence may still be traced at a short distance from the town.

The parliamentary representation of Cornwall is too remarkable to be passed over in silence; the county and the boroughs send forty-four members to parliament.^c Elective rights were conferred on different places at different periods, evidently for the purpose of increasing the influence of the crown over the commons. The boroughs from which members are returned, are very insignificant; still all the bribery and corruption that prevail, are insufficient to save the degraded inhabitants from poverty and wretchedness.

Devonshire, or the county of Devon, in size the second in England, lies between two seas, having the Bristol Channel on the north and north-west, and the English Channel on the south and south-east. It extends to the distance of sixty-seven miles from the most northern to the most southern point, while its breadth from east to west is not less than sixty-four. The Tamar and the Exe are the principal rivers; the first forms the western limit of the county; the second takes its rise in the sterile and marshy district of Exmoor, and having been enlarged by several streams, throws itself into the English Channel at Exmouth. The soil and the face of the country are very various; the district from the borders of Dorsetshire to Exeter,^d comprehending the greater part of the southern coast, is pleasant and fruitful. Such is the mildness of the climate that the myrtle grows without shelter on the shore, and the winters are sometimes not less favourable to invalids than those in the South of Europe. The South-Hams, part of the same tract, has been frequently called the garden of Devonshire; it abounds in picturesque scenery, varied by bold swells and rich vallies. Numerous springs, flowing from the sides of the hills, unite into brooks, and spread luxuriance along their banks.

The country extending from the vale of Exeter to the borders of Cornwall, or the greater portion of the western district, consists of about three hundred thousand acres

Kymric, one of the two great divisions of the Celtic family of languages, including also the Welsh and the Armoric or Breton (in France.) The Gaelic, the other division of the Celtic, includes the Irish, the Highland Scotch, and the Manks.—P.

^a Soap stone

^b St. Austell.

^c This, and the following statements on parliamentary representation, apply to the old system, previous to the recent reform.—P.

^d This should doubtless read: from the borders of Cornwall to Exeter. The district of South Hams extends along the southern coast from Plymouth Sound to Torbay.—P.

of uncultivated land, in which the bleak and naked morass of Dartmoor occupies more than eighty thousand. The forest of Dartmoor, as its name implies, was once covered with trees, but a few stunted oaks, together with some mountain ashes and willows, are all that grow on it at present. The marshes in the higher parts of Dartmoor, although dangerous to cattle, are valuable on account of the fuel with which they supply the inhabitants. Sheep and black cattle are the riches of the people; the latter thrive well on the coarse and sour herbage, but the former are of a small size and subject to different diseases.

North Devon extends from Dartmoor to the Bristol Channel; in this district the land yields plenty of corn, and the soil is everywhere productive except on the tops of the highest hills; lofty trees are seen in the vallies, and the heights are in many places covered with coppice woods.

The value of the mineral products of Devonshire may be inferred from its geological position; tin was formerly obtained in great quantities, but the mines are no longer worked; copper, lead, manganese and gypsum are found in the north-eastern part, or in the neighbourhood of Exmoor; in other places are quarries of marble, and of stone well adapted for building. The products of industry are serges, shalloons, broad-cloths and blond lace.

Plymouth in the southern part of the county, was formerly better known by the name of Devonport;^a it is now a very flourishing town, a well frequented port, and an important maritime arsenal. The Sound by means of the break-water, lately erected across its entrance, may afford a safe protection to a large fleet; but a reef of rocks^b about fourteen miles south-west by south from Plymouth, rendered the access dangerous to ships. It was found very difficult to erect a sufficiently strong light-house on these rocks, both because they are exposed to frequent storms, and because at high water they are covered by the sea; besides, as a foundation for such a building, they offered many disadvantages, which it was necessary to surmount. Three Eddystone light-houses were at different times erected, and all of them were overthrown. The present one, it has been already observed, was built in 1774, under the direction and according to the plan of the celebrated Mr. Smeaton.

The principal imports of Plymouth are coal, culm, corn, wine and timber. The various works, that are carried on, and the trade it possesses, render it a place of considerable wealth; but it is not less distinguished by its charitable institutions: there are many schools for the poor, several hospitals and alms-houses, a public dispensary and a large asylum for females.

The ancient inhabitants of Devonshire were the same as those of Cornwall; *Isex*, their principal city, is the *Isca Dumnoniorum* of the Itinerary of Antonine; it afterwards took the name of *Excester*, and at a still later period that of *Exeter*; its different names indicate its position on the Exe. It was erected into the capital of

^a Its ancient name was Sutton (i. e. Southtown;) but as early as 1383, it appears to have been occasionally called Plymouth. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b The Eddystone Rocks.

^c There are four principal streets, all centering in the middle of the city, which is therefore called Carfox,* from the old Norman word, Quatre-voix, i. e. the four ways. (Luckombe.)—P.

*"—which meet at a point where a magnificent conduit, called *Carfoix*, formerly stood." (Ed. Enc.)

^d On the north-east.—P

a diocese by Edward the Confessor in the year 1094, but before that time it contained so many convents that it was known by the name of Monkstown. It consists of four principal streets, which terminate in *Carfax* place, so called from two old Norman words, signifying four ways.^c The upper part of the city^d is defended by an ancient castle, which, it is generally supposed, was built by the West Saxons, although it seems more probable from the name of *Rougemont* that it was the work of the Normans. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Peter, is a magnificent building, but the Lady-Chapel is the only part of the original fabric that remains. Although commenced in the year 932, in the reign of Athelstan, and carried on under different bishops during four hundred years, it appears from its uniformity and the proportions between the different parts, as if the whole had been the work of a single architect. The modern bridge over the Exe might be considered a fine structure, if it were not disfigured by houses on both sides, and by a church which covers a great part of it. An arm of the sea flowed formerly near the walls of Exeter, but the navigation was almost destroyed by one of the earls of Devon.^e The present haven was constructed in 1697, and by means of flood gates, which were then raised, vessels of a hundred and fifty tons can arrive at the quay near the walls of the city. The manufactures of Exeter consist of cloths and woollen stuffs; the serge market is held weekly, and with the exception of that at Leeds, it is the greatest cloth market in England.

Dorsetshire, or the county of Dorset, situated on the east of Devonshire, has sometimes been called the garden of England, a name by no means applicable to the whole of it. It is bounded on the north by Wiltshire and Somersetshire, on the south by the English Channel, on the west by Devonshire and Somersetshire, and on the east by Hampshire. The superficial area is supposed to be equal to 1130 square miles. The northern plains were formerly covered with wood; they are now in a high state of cultivation. A ridge of lofty chalk hills, which extends through the south-eastern counties, terminates in Dorsetshire; at least no considerable beds are found on the west of it. Numerous flocks are fed on these hills, and on the downs, which extend to the sea; the number of sheep kept in the county is estimated at 800,000, and the annual export at 150,000. A heathy common extends from the borders of Hampshire to the centre of Dorsetshire, but its want of fertility is amply compensated by the rich vales on the south-western side. A sort of peninsula, formed by the Frome and the sea, has been incorrectly denominated the Isle of Purbeck. It has been long famous for its limestone quarries; the coarser sorts are used in paving, while the finer take a polish little inferior to that of marble. Pipe clay is dug in several parts of Purbeck, and much of it is exported from Corfe-Castle to the Staffordshire potteries.

The island of Portland, another peninsula, is connected with the land by a long and narrow stripe of sand and

^e The magistrates of the town having in their official capacity decided that no citizen of Exeter should be allowed to wear the livery of a nobleman within their township, without having first obtained the consent of the mayor and burgesses, one of the earls of Devonshire,^e offended at this noble spirit of independence in the inhabitants of Exeter, caused large stones and trunks of trees to be thrown into the bed of the Exe, in order to obstruct the navigation between Exeter and Topsham.

* Hugh Courtenay, A. D. 1316.—P.

gravel.^a Some notice has already been taken of the calcareous stones, of which the whole of Portland Isle is composed; it may be added that the stone is white and durable, easily worked, splits freely in every direction, and is well adapted for buildings under water; these qualities render it a very valuable freestone, and great quantities are exported to different parts of England, Ireland and France. A safe road for ships is situated on the north of the isle, but the southern point or Portland Race is one of the most dangerous places in the Channel.

The town of Dorchester, a place of great antiquity, is pleasantly situated on a rising ground above the river Frome. It was in ancient times inhabited by the *Durobrige*,^b who called it *Durnovaria* or the passage of the river. The Romans, who gave it the name of *Durnium*, encompassed it with walls and a deep ditch. Several antiquities have been at different times discovered; a mosaic pavement about four feet below the ground may be considered the most remarkable, but there are also some traces of Roman ways, that terminated in Dorchester. It was formerly a place of some importance on account of its manufactures, which are not so flourishing as they once were. The town is built in the direction of the four cardinal points, the houses are of stone, and the streets are all paved and well lighted. The prison, perhaps the finest of the public buildings, can contain only eighty-eight prisoners, but under the same roof are a penitentiary and a house of correction.

The seaport of Poole, the only other place that requires to be mentioned in this county, rose into importance some centuries ago, when the ancient town of Wareham fell into decay. It now contains more than seven thousand inhabitants; it sends many vessels every year to Newfoundland, which carry out provisions and different commodities, and return laden with fish for Spain, Portugal and Italy.

The maritime county of Somerset is bounded on the north by the Bristol Channel; it is about sixty-eight miles in length from east to west, and forty-eight from north to south. It contains more than a million of acres, of which upwards of 400,000 are arable. Few counties exhibit so great a variety of soil and situation. The north-eastern part abounds with rocks, and is intersected by the Mendip Hills, a lofty mineral tract; the rivers unite near the centre, and form marshes and fens. The Quantock Hills, together with many downs and heaths, occupy the western side, and the bleak and sterile region of Exmoor extends from the north-western extremity. The southern part towards Dorsetshire is high but well cultivated; lastly, vallies of great fertility are scattered in different parts of the county.

Cheese, not inferior to any in the kingdom, is made in the village of Cheddar, and many cattle nearly equal in size to those of Lincolnshire, are bred in the luxuriant meadows near the sources of the Parret. The mineral riches of the county are more important; the Mendip

Hills afford abundance of coal, lead and calamine. The coal is consumed in Bath, Wells, Frome, and other places in the neighbourhood. The lead is mostly exported, and converted on account of its hardness into shot and bullets. The calamine is conveyed to Bristol and other towns, where it is used in making brass.

The conveyance of goods has been facilitated by water communications; the Exe and the Thone are connected by a canal which passes from Tiverton to Taunton; another extends from Bristol to Bath, and the Somersetshire coal canal joins by means of its two branches those of the Kennet and Avon.^c

The small city of Wells, which is now a joint bishop's see with Bath, derives its name from a neighbouring spring, called St. Andrew's Well.^d It took its origin from a collegiate church built by king Ina in the year 704; it was afterwards raised to its present dignity, and the cathedral, one of the most ornamented structures of Gothic architecture in the kingdom, was founded in the thirteenth century. The town is pleasantly situated under the Mendip Hills, but it does not contain more than six thousand inhabitants.

Bath, a more ancient and a more important city, lies on the north-east of Wells, at the distance of about nineteen miles. It is surrounded by an amphitheatre of hills that are intersected by the Avon, which encircles a great part of Bath, and continues navigable onwards to Bristol. The Kennet and Avon canal, which falls into the same river at Bath, completes the inland water communication with the metropolis, extending through Middlesex, Buckinghamshire, Berkshire, Hampshire, Wiltshire, Somersetshire and Gloucestershire, to Bath and Bristol. Bath claims a higher antiquity than any other town in England, and it is remarkable that all the ancient names which have been handed down by tradition, bear some allusion to the quality of its waters. Antiquaries have traced their discovery, with greater ingenuity than truth, to Bladud, son of Lud, eighth king of the Britons, in a direct line from Brute or Brutus, the grandson of Æneas. The springs continued unknown, however, before the arrival of the Romans. The fine situation of Bath, the mildness of the air, the hills which tower above it, and the streams that water the valley, attracted the notice of the Romans, and induced them to found a city, which was often the residence of their governors, and sometimes of their emperors. The city was built in the form of a quadrangle, extending about four hundred yards from east to west, and nearly as many from north to south. It was fortified by a wall twenty feet in height, sixteen in breadth at the base, and not more than eight at the top. The angles were supported by strong towers, and a gate was erected at each extremity of the two principal streets, by which the town was intersected and divided into four parts. The name of *Aqua Solis* indicated the heat and efficacy of the thermal springs, and the magnificence of the Roman works may be traced in the ruins of the baths, which were discovered near the centre of

^a The Chesil Bank.

^b *Durotriges* (D' Anv. Enc. Meth. Ed. Enc.)—This name is said to be derived from the two British words, *duoyr* [*dur*,] water, and *trig*, an inhabitant. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c This should be stated thus: the Somersetshire coal canal (with two branches) joins the Kennet and Avon canal.—The Avon is rendered navigable by locks from Bristol to Bath, where the Kennet and Avon canal commences. This canal passes from Bath through North

Wilt to Newbury, where it joins the Kennet navigation, thus opening a communication with the Thames. The Somersetshire coal canal branches from this canal between Bath and Bradford, and extends to the coal-field near the Mendip Hills. It divides into two branches, the northern and southern.—P.

^d The town is so called from the wells or springs that rise in all parts of it. St. Andrew's Well is near the Bishop's palace. (Luckombe.)—P

the city in the year 1775. The virtue of the springs has been acknowledged both for external applications, and internally as a medicine; the highest range of the thermometer reaches to 170° of Fahrenheit. The town has long been a place of great concourse, and such is the reputation of its waters, that it has become of late years, next to the metropolis, the principal resort for the nobility, the wealthy and the indolent. It surpasses every other town in England, in the elegance and splendour of its buildings, but their greatest ornaments consist perhaps in the materials with which they are constructed,—the white stone that abounds in the neighbourhood. In former times Bath was situated in a valley, and the reflection of the sun's rays from the white soil rendered it very hot in summer, but as it became enlarged, houses were built on the steep northern side of the valley, tier rose above tier, and the whole affords at present a singular and striking aspect.^a

The city is divided into four parishes, and in one of them is situated the Abbey Church, the finest edifice in Bath; its architecture is of the florid Gothic, but the great number of its windows has been considered a defect; there are not fewer than fifty-six, and on this account it has been sometimes called the lantern of England. Of its various charitable institutions, the most deserving of notice is the general hospital for patients from every part of the kingdom, who are likely to be benefited by the use of the waters. Other institutions of the same sort, societies of which the end is to provide for the wants of the poor, or to meliorate their condition, prove that charity is not incompatible with gaiety, or even with dissipation.

Although the next town, we have to mention, is not so important as it once was, still it derives its importance from its commerce. The trade of Bristol, long second only to that of London, is now surpassed by other towns, more distinguished for the enterprise and activity of their inhabitants. Bristol stands at the confluence of the Avon and the Frome, at the distance of about ten miles^b from the place where the Avon discharges itself into the Severn. Although only a small portion of it is situated in the northern confines of the county, and although the greater part of it belongs to Gloucestershire, it may be here described, because it was included in Somersetshire before it formed a separate jurisdiction.^c The effects of the tide, or the height to which it raises the waters, enable vessels of considerable burden to arrive at the quay of Bristol; but its trade is mainly supported by its extensive inland communications with the Severn and all its branches, the Avon, the Wye, and many other rivers. It thus possesses the export and import trade of a considerable part of the kingdom, and has thus an outlet for its varied manufactures. As to its foreign trade, it is principally carried on with the West Indies; it furnishes employment to a great many ships, that carry clothing and different articles to the inhabitants, and bring back colonial produce, which gives rise in its turn to different branches of industry. Of these the most important are the sugar-refineries, that serve for the

supply of Wales and all the western counties in England. The other manufactures are different sorts of glass, copper and brass, white-lead, gun-powder and earthen-ware. There are besides works for smelting lead and making shot, iron founderies, tin-works, and also rolling and slitting mills, all of them affording valuable articles for exportation.

Bristol, it may be added, is a place of great antiquity; it appears to have been founded by the Britons; it was the *Brightstowe* or pleasant city of the Saxons. The unfortunate Stephen was imprisoned in the castle of the same city after his defeat by the empress Maud. It owed its prosperity to Edward III., who made it a staple for wool; since his time it has been one of the great commercial cities in England;^d lastly, it was raised to the seat of a diocese in the reign of Henry the Eighth. The Bristol and Matlock mineral waters are of the same quality, their principal ingredients being chalk, *lapis calcareus* and *calaminaris*.^e It is affirmed, on very respectable authority, that a singular phenomenon took place at these wells, in November 1775, during the great earthquake at Lisbon; the water became suddenly as red as blood, and so turbid that it could not be drunk; at the same time the water of a common well near Kingswood, turned as black as ink, and continued unfit for use nearly a fortnight.^f

Before leaving the county of Somerset, it may be remarked that it has given birth to several eminent men. The famous friar Bacon, one of the earliest philosophers, who appears to have been acquainted with the secret of making gun-powder, and who veiled the interpretation of it in an enigma, was born at Ilchester in the year 1214. Cudworth, the well known author of the *Intellectual System*, and the great Locke, were natives of the same county, the one of Aller, and the other of Wrington. Fielding, one of the best of the English novelists, was born at Sharpham, and Bristol was the birth-place of the unfortunate Chatterton. To these names may be added those of Cabot,^g Dampier and Rodney.

The county of Gloucester, partly contiguous on the south to that of Somerset, is naturally divided into three very different districts, the eastern, the middle and the western. The first or the Coteswold district, the largest of the three, is about 200,000 acres in superficial extent. Although a high and bleak tract, it is well adapted for rearing sheep; a fine short grass is produced in many places, and sainfoin, which has been much cultivated, is used both for hay and pasture. The native sheep were of a small light sort with a very fine but scanty fleece; the breed has been greatly altered by mixtures from other counties; the carcass is heavier, and a greater quantity of wool, but of a coarser quality, is now obtained. The Stroudwater Hills, adjacent to the Coteswold, sink gradually into the Vale or middle district, which borders on the Severn. The soil is mostly of a fertile loam, and the pastures furnish the cheese for which the county is celebrated, and of which 12,000 tons are annually exported. The same district is crossed by the Stroud

^a Aikin's *England Delineated*.

^b Eight miles. (*Mathews' Bristol Guide*.)—P.

^c Bristol forms a county of itself.—P.

^d *Lardner's Cyclopaedia*, vol. i.

^e The waters of the Hot Well, as analyzed by Dr. Carrick, contain, per gallon muriate of magnesia 7½ grains, muriate of soda 4 grains,

sulphate of soda 11¼ grains, sulphate of lime 11½ grains, and carbonate of lime 12½ grains. (*Ed. Enc.*)—The ingredients in the text are rather antiquated.—P.

^f *Capper's Topographical Dictionary*, article Bristol.

^g Sebastian Cabot, born at Bristol about 1477.—P.

canal, which connects the Thames with the Severn, and opens a direct communication with every part of the kingdom. The forest of Dean, which once afforded timber for the English navy, occupies the greater part of the western or smallest district. The same forest and that of Kingswood are now mostly cleared of trees; the land is restored to cultivation, and both of them contain iron, coal and limestone; in the latter, different iron-works have been erected; in both, a hundred and fifty coal mines have been opened,^a and their produce is consumed in the neighbouring country and manufactories. The same part of Gloucestershire abounds with orchards; the styre-apple is converted into cider, and the perry made in the district, is said to form the basis of most of the champagne that is sold in the metropolis.

Gloucestershire was inhabited in ancient times by the *Dobuni*, who distinguished themselves by their resistance against the Romans; even at the present day it affords ample materials for antiquarian research. The antiquities of Woodchester have already been ably illustrated by Mr. Lysons. Camps, stations and other remains of Roman times may be traced in different parts of the county.

Gloucester, the capital of the county, and a very ancient town, was the *Caer-Clovi* of the Britons;^b at a later period the Saxons gave it the name of *Gleaucestre*, from two British words, *glaw*, fair, and *caer*, a city. It was made a borough by King John, and a corporation^c by Henry III. Edward I. held a parliament in the same place, and several useful laws were enacted, that have been since called the Statutes of Gloucester. Richard the Third, the famous duke of Gloucester, gave the city his sword and cap of maintenance, and erected it into a county with jurisdiction over the adjacent hundreds of Dudston and King's Barton. These privileges continued in force until the restoration, when the walls were razed to the ground, because the inhabitants had shut their gates against Charles the First.^d Before the memorable siege it sustained in 1643, it contained eleven churches, but at that period six of them were demolished; they have not since been rebuilt. The remains of abbeys and monasteries are scattered over the neighbourhood; they were at one time so numerous as to give rise to the monkish proverb, *As sure as God's in Gloucester.*^e

The abbey church was erected into a cathedral by Henry the Eighth; it has been often repaired, and partly rebuilt, so that it combines the architecture of different ages. It is more than 420 feet in length, and 144 in width. A majestic tower, 198 feet in height, rises from the centre of the building: The interior has a solemn and imposing aspect, and the cloisters are not inferior to any in the English cathedrals. Among the various monuments contained in it, the most remarkable are those of Robert, Duke of Normandy, and the unfortunate Edward the Second; the former is of wood, and the latter of alabaster; from its perfect execution, it is supposed to have been the work of an Italian artist.

Although ill-peopled in proportion to its size, Gloucester possesses many natural and artificial advantages

for commerce; it is situated about thirty miles from the junction of the Severn with the Bristol Channel; it is connected with the great system of canal navigation in the north, and it is united by means of the Stroudwater canal^f with the eastern counties. The principal manufactures are those of hemp and cordage, wool-stapling and pin-making; the last of these is not the least important; it has been estimated that pins to the amount of £20,000 are sometimes sent in the course of a week to London; thus the value of this single branch of industry may be easily computed.

Cheltenham and Clifton in the same county have become flourishing places from the great number of strangers that repair to their mineral springs, which belong to the saline and chalybeate class, of the same sort and by no means superior to those of Gloucester.

The small market town of Stroud, about ten miles to the south-east of Gloucester, may be mentioned on account of the industry of its inhabitants. It is situated on the ridge of a declivity near the confluence of the Frome and the Sladewater, and it has long been considered the centre of the cloth manufactory in the county. Of the 8000 individuals that form its population, the greater number are engaged in trade, particularly in making cloth. The water is celebrated for imparting a scarlet dye and other grain colours; for this reason perhaps, cloth manufactories have been extended upwards of twenty miles along the river, and many fulling mills have been erected on its banks. Cirencester, the *Corinium* of Ptolemy, and the *Durocornovium* of Antoninus, once a place of great importance, and still famous for its antiquities, is now little better than a village; its inhabitants find employment in making edge-tools, in stapling wool, and in manufacturing carpets.

The small town of Berkeley was the birth-place of the celebrated Jenner, but no monument has been erected to announce the honour which it claims, or to record his invaluable discovery. The castle in the neighbourhood of the town, the residence of the Berkeley family, has been the scene of various events in early history, the most memorable of which was the murder of Edward II. in 1327.

The inland county of Wilts is contiguous on the north and north-west to Gloucestershire, on the west to Somersetshire, on the south to Dorsetshire, on the south-east to Hampshire, and on the north-east to Berkshire. It may be readily inferred from what has been already mentioned, that its boundaries are almost wholly artificial; in figure it bears some resemblance to an ellipsis of which the longer axis is from north to south.

The face of the country, and the quality of the soil, are very different in the two great divisions of Wiltshire. The soil of South Wilts exhibits a certain degree of uniformity; the hills are composed of chalk; silex,^g the usual accompaniment of that substance, appears in most places. The sides of the hills from which it has been washed, consist of a chalky loam; flints abound in the lower parts, and the centre of the vallies through which the rivulets run, is covered with a stratum of broken

^a There are 150 coal pits in the forest of Dean. (M. B. Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b The *Clevum* or *Glebon* of the Romans.—P. ^c City.

^d After the restoration the hundreds were taken away by act of parliament, and the walls pulled down; because the city shut its gates against Charles I. when he besieged it in 1643. (Luckombe's Gazetteer of England and Wales.)—Gloucester is still a county of itself.—P.

^e Capper, Idem.

The Stroudwater or Stroud canal extends from the Severn at Framilode to Wellbridge near Stroud, where it communicates with the Thames and Severn canal. The latter extends to Lechlade on the Isis, where it joins the Thames and Isis navigation.—P.

^g Flint.—P.

flints, and black earth deposited from the neighbouring hills. The declivities which have been most washed, are barren and unfruitful; the more level places, and the vallies which have been least exposed to the rapid streams, are the most productive in the district. The Wiltshire downs are situated in the same part of the county; they may be divided into the Marlborough downs and Salisbury plain, the last of which is equal in superficial extent to more than 500,000 acres. Vast flocks of sheep, accompanied by solitary shepherds, wander over this immense plain, in some respects the most remarkable in England. The soil in North Wilts is less uniform; the under stratum in a large portion of it is formed by a loose and irregular mass of flat broken stones, which the country people call corn-grate,^a and which extends without interruption through the north-western part of Wiltshire. It is covered with an upper stratum of red calcareous loam, known by the name of stone-brash, from the loose stones with which it is mixed. A vein of excellent gravel, covered with rich loam, runs in a broken line from Tytherton through Christian-Malford to Somerton; the richest part of it is situated in the neighbourhood of Dantsey. A hard rock of bastard-limestone, on which the soil is by no means fruitful, extends with little interruption through the remainder of the county. Bradon forest, however, forms an exception; a cold iron clay rises to the surface, and of so poor a quality, that the term Bradon land has become proverbial in the county for a barren and ungrateful soil.^b Wiltshire is watered by the Thames, the Upper and Lower Avon, and several other rivers. The Deverill, like the Mole in Surrey, loses itself more than a mile, and appears again in the neighbourhood of Warminster.

Salisbury, the see of a bishop, and the capital of the county, is situated on the Upper Avon, by which and its tributary streams it is nearly surrounded. The cathedral, a fine specimen of the ecclesiastical architecture of the thirteenth century, is a very uniform and regular edifice; its spire, reckoned at more than four hundred feet, is higher than that of any other English cathedral. The small town of Amesbury^c may be mentioned as the birth-place of the great Addison, and also on account of its vicinity to Stonehenge, from which it is not more than two miles distant. It is perhaps impossible to determine the origin of this stupendous structure, but it is most probably the remains of a druidical temple. Seventeen huge stones, still erect, and seven others lying on the ground, form the outer circle of the fabric. The inner circle, about eight feet from the outer, consists of nineteen stones, eight of which have fallen. The circumference between the two circles is about three hundred feet; the stones are from eighteen to twenty feet high, from six to seven broad, and about three in thickness. The whole appears to have been encompassed with a trench, in which the remains of three entrances may still be traced. Around it are many tumuli, and in some of

them human skeletons, urns, armour and weapons have been discovered. Independently of the purposes for which they were erected, it is difficult to imagine the means by which the early inhabitants, ignorant of machinery and the mechanical powers, could have transported such masses to a solitary plain. A Roman camp at no great distance from it, is defended on both sides by the Avon.

Wiltshire possesses an undue proportion of parliamentary boroughs; from these and from the county not fewer than thirty-four members are returned. The towns are more important for their industry than the number of their inhabitants. Wilton is famous for its carpets; Salisbury for its cutlery and woollen stuffs. The inhabitants of Devizes, Bradford, Trowbridge, Warminster, Westbury, and all the adjacent towns from Chippenham to Heytesbury, are occupied in woollen manufactories, principally of fine cloths. There are indeed few villages in which some branch of industry is not carried on. The same county participates in the advantages of inland navigation; the canals, by which it is intersected, are those of the Thames and Severn, the Kennet and Avon, the Wiltshire and Berkshire, the Salisbury and Southampton.^d

Hampshire or Hants, called also the county of Southampton, was in ancient times inhabited by the *Regni* and the *Belgæ*, by the last of whom, it is supposed, the city of Winchester was founded. The county is bounded on the north by Berkshire, on the east by Surrey and Sussex, on the south by the English Channel, and on the west by Dorsetshire and Wiltshire. It might be compared to a square, were it not for a triangular projection at the south-western extremity. Exclusively of this portion, it is about forty-two miles in length, and thirty-eight in breadth. Hampshire is distinguished as an agricultural, although its sea-coast renders it also an important maritime and commercial county. There are several different kinds of soil, but chalk forms the principal ingredient of the greater part; extensive and fertile marshy lands reach to the neighbourhood of the sea. The borders of Dorsetshire are covered with sterile heaths, but abundant crops are raised on those of Berkshire. The products of the county are excellent wheat, barley and the ordinary leguminous plants; hops, which have been much cultivated of late years, may also be reckoned among its staple commodities.

The forests in Hampshire, although formerly more extensive than at present, are too remarkable to be passed over in silence; the principal are the forest of Alice-Holt and Wolmer, that of East-Bere,^e and the New Forest. The first, situated in the eastern part of the county, is bounded by the river Wye;^f the second lies in the neighbourhood of Portsdown, and is not less in superficial extent than 16,000 acres; the last or the largest received the name of the New Forest, because it was added to the others by William the Conqueror,

^a The Cornbrash (one of the upper members of the lower division of the Oolites,) a loose rubbly limestone, of a grey or bluish colour. In Wiltshire it is known by the name of the cornbrash or corn-grit. (Conybeare and Phillips, p. 202.)—P.

^b Davis' Agricultural Report of Wiltshire.

^c Amesbury, or Ambresbury.—P.

^d The Thames and Severn canal (already mentioned) crosses the northern extremity of the county by Cricklade. The Kennet and Avon canal (already mentioned) crosses the middle of the county by Devizes. The Wiltshire and Berkshire canal leaves the Kennet and

Avon canal at Semington, and passes north-east, at the foot of the chalk hills, to the Thames at Abingdon. It is connected with the Thames and Severn canal, by a branch to Cricklade. The Salisbury and Southampton canal connects those two towns.—P.

^e The forest of Alice-Holt and Wolmer is separated into two portions by intervening private property. It is situated on the borders of Surrey and Sussex. That of Bere extends northward from the Portsdown hills, near Portsmouth.—P.

^f The Wey, a branch of the Thames flowing by Guildford in Surrey.—P.

whose injustice in dispossessing the inhabitants of their lands and houses, was supposed to have been avenged by the casual deaths of his sons Richard and William Rufus, and his grandson Henry, within its precincts. It stretches from Godshill to the sea, and the space which it occupies is equal to more than 92,000 acres. The forest was principally valuable on account of the timber with which it supplied the navy, but of late years, the trees fit for that purpose, have decreased in number.

The Isle of Wight, situated at the eastern entrance of Stadland Bay,^a has long been considered one of the most delightful residences in Britain; it is twenty-two miles in length, by twelve and a half in breadth; it contained in 1820, 31,166 inhabitants. The climate is very mild, the land rich and fruitful, and some of the sites, remarkable for their beauty; on that account it has been much frequented during the fine season. The mineral products of the island are numerous; chalk is used as a manure, while limestone, fullers-earth and two kinds of ochre are exported. It has four sides which are nearly rectangular; the two northern front England, and the two others the open sea. It forms a natural shelter to the flourishing ports and excellent roads from which Hampshire derives so much importance.

Southampton Water, a large and deep haven in which the largest vessels may sail, lies opposite the projecting angle formed by the two northern sides of the Isle of Wight. It receives the waters of several rivers, among others, the Anton, the Itchin and the Test. Southampton is built on its shore at the confluence of the Test and Itchin; it was formerly considered the chief town in Hampshire, which is still called the county of Southampton; it contains at present 13,353 inhabitants, and reckons about 187 ships, measuring more than 10,000 tons. It was on the shore near Southampton, that king Canute gave his flatterers a memorable reproof, by showing that all his power yielded to the immutable laws of nature; it was at the same place that Henry the Fifth collected his forces for the conquest of France. The present inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in timber, hemp and tallow with the north of Russia; in wine and fruit with Portugal; and in iron, lead, coal and glass with Wales, Newcastle, and different parts of England. The ship owners send a number of vessels every year to the Newfoundland fisheries, and a regular communication is established between Cherbourg and Southampton, by means of packets.

But Portsmouth is by far the most important maritime town in the county, nay in some respects, in the kingdom. Situated on the western side of the island of Portsea, at the mouth of the bay termed Portsmouth harbour, it consists of the old town of Portsmouth, surrounded with walls and fortifications, and the new town of Portsea, which was only begun about a century ago. As it was found impracticable to enlarge Portsmouth on account of the walls by which it is enclosed, it has become in consequence less populous than Portsea; they may be said, however, to form a single town. The harbour is superior in size, depth and security to any other in the kingdom; it is not much broader at its entrance than the

Thames at London, but it gradually expands into a great width, and into several channels, which may afford a safe shelter and anchorage to almost the whole British navy. The spacious roadstead of Spithead, between Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight, where a thousand ships of the line may ride in security, forms a great addition to its harbour. The natural advantages of its position have rendered Portsmouth, the great naval arsenal of England, and the principal station of the British fleet. The same place has been rendered impregnable by works of art, which were begun at a very early period, continued at distant intervals, and not completed before the reign of George the Third. It is the seat of a naval college and a school of naval architecture, of which the governor is the first lord of the admiralty. The dock-yards are the most complete in the world; within them are contained all kinds of naval and military stores, and all the necessary manufactories for the supply of naval equipments. Some of these works or manufactories may be mentioned. The ropery is a spacious building, three stories high, fifty-four feet broad, and a hundred and ninety-four long; the strongest cables are made there, and the labour has been much simplified by the use of machinery. The rigging-house and sail-loft are fine structures; the former occupying nearly six hundred feet in length, and sixty in width; the two latter 400 feet.^b The two hemp-houses and the two sea-store houses form a line of building 800 feet long. The tarring house and the other appendages of the ropery are on the same scale. The anchor-forge, a vast building in which anchors weighing a hundred cwt. are wrought, may remind a stranger of the fables concerning the work-shop of Vulcan; on approaching it, the ear is stunned with a tremendous noise; it is impossible to examine it minutely without admiring the various substitutes, which ingenuity has devised for the abridgment of labour. Contiguous to the forge are an iron-mill, a copper-mill, and a refinery, in which the old copper is remelted and rolled, and where cast-bolts, gudgeons and other articles of the same metal are made. The wood-mills front the northern dock; the machinery is moved by steam, and that for making blocks,^c is perhaps as curious and worthy of attention as any in Portsmouth. The gun-wharf is an immense depot for guns, carronades and mortars, with shot and shells of every weight and size. The victualling-office, situated in the Portsmouth division of the town, comprehends several extensive ranges of building, among others a large store-house that occupies the whole length of a street, and serves as a repository of the provisions and liquors that are used in the navy. The grain for the consumption of the mariners and the troops is ground at the king's mill on the Portsea side; it is turned by a stream of salt water, admitted from the harbour at full tide, and let off at low water. Such are some of the public works at Portsmouth, and from them a stranger may derive some notion of the resources of a great nation. It may be added that during the last war more than four thousand workmen were constantly employed in the dock-yards.

Fareham, at the head of Portsmouth harbour, has become a place of consequence from its connexion with

^a I do not find any notice of Stadland Bay, on this part of the English coast. Studland Bay is on the east coast of the Isle of Purbeck, between Handfast Point on the south, and the entrance of Poole Harbour on the north. A large bay is, however, formed by the projection of the Isle of Wight on the east, and the Isle of Purbeck on the west. In the north-west part of it, Studland Bay is situated.—P.

^b The range of storehouses on the north-east is about 600 feet long, and the sail-loft and rigging-loft are also huge buildings, both 400 feet long. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c Invented by M. Brunel, engineer of the Thames tunnel.—P.

the town. Sloops and smaller vessels are built in it, and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in corn and coals. Gosport at the mouth of the same harbour,^a is a populous town, inhabited chiefly by sailors and artificers. It contains a large naval hospital,^b extensive barracks, docks and wharfs for merchant vessels. The produce of the neighbouring country supplies in part the demand created by the government establishments in these places and in Portsmouth.

The ancient city of Winchester is the only other place in Hampshire, that requires to be mentioned. It was the capital of the whole country during the reign of the Saxon king Egbert; it became at a later period the great emporium of the wool trade, but it is long since its commerce has fallen into decay. It declined after the dissolution of its monastery by Henry the Eighth, and it suffered greatly in the course of the civil wars. It stands on the eastern declivity of a hill above the river Itchin; it seems to have derived its original name of *Caer Guent* or the *White City*, from the chalky cliffs which surround it. Although the streets are spacious and well aired, Winchester has the appearance of an ancient city. The cathedral is as remarkable for the antiquity of its foundation, as for the splendor of its architecture. It occupies probably the site of a building raised by the zeal and piety of the Saxons. It was much altered and improved in succeeding ages, and Bishop Fox rebuilt it according to its present form in the sixteenth century. The length of the building is 545 feet; and among the distinguished prelates of Winchester, may be mentioned William of Wykeham, William of Wainfleet, Fox and cardinal Beaufort, whose shrines are works of great magnificence and beauty.

The college of Winchester, founded by William of Wykeham, has now become one of the great public schools in England. The building is divided by two courts; the entrance to one of them is under a large gate-way, adorned with busts of the founder and Edward the Third; the other is admired for its niches and pinnacled canopies: the chapel and hall, which form the south wing, are supported by massive buttresses. The college is founded for a warden, ten fellows, seventy scholars, three chaplains, and six choristers, with masters and subordinate officers. A building has been erected on the west of it for students not on the foundation. Although our limits prevent us from mentioning the other public buildings in Winchester, it may be remarked that the chapel of the ancient castle contains what is denominated Arthur's Round Table, one of the few memorials, whether counterfeit or real, that still remain in England of chivalrous times.

The Isle of Wight, it has already been observed, is under the civil jurisdiction of Hampshire; it is divided into two nearly equal parts by the river Medina, which rises in the southern angle, and discharges itself at the northern extremity of the island; hence the divisions of East and West Medina. The southern coast is edged with steep cliffs of chalk and limestone, hollowed out in many places into caverns. In the neighbourhood of St. Lawrence, a large tract has fallen from the summit, and formed the romantic ledge, known by the name of the Undercliff. The western side is fenced with ridges of rocks,

of which the most remarkable are those that from their sharp extremities, have been called the Needles. The safe roadstead of St. Helens is situated off the eastern side of the island.

Newport, the principal town, is a place of considerable population. The work-people are employed in the manufacture of starch and hair-powder, and also in making biscuit for the navy. Carisbrook castle, at a short distance from Newport, was in former times an important fortress; it has now become the residence of the governor of the island. It was rendered memorable as the place where Charles the First was confined more than a year, while a prisoner of the parliament. The former importance of the borough of Yarmouth, now little better than a fishing village, is attested by its privilege of returning two members to parliament.

The county of Sussex forms a long stripe of land on the southern coast; it is bounded on the north by Surrey and Kent, on the south by the English Channel, which together with Kent, forms also its narrow eastern boundary, and on the west by Hampshire. It measures more than seventy miles from east to west, while its mean breadth is less than twenty; it is equal in superficial extent to 1461 square miles. It is divided into six rapes, a division peculiar to Sussex; the western are Chichester, Arundel and Bramber; the eastern are Lewes, Pevensey and Hastings; these are again subdivided into sixty-five hundreds.

The soil varies between chalk, clay, loam, sand and gravel, according as each of these substances predominates. The northern and middle portions are of the same nature, and may be said to form a continuation of the Wealds in Kent; they were formerly wholly covered with forests, and although many of them have been destroyed, the country still abounds with lofty trees; indeed the oaks of Sussex are said to be better and more numerous than those of most counties; they succeed best in the stiff clay on the Wealds; the chalk-hills are equally noted for their beech trees.

A ridge of hills, extending in a north-westerly direction, is composed of gritstone, limestone and iron-ore. A rich tract of arable and meadow land forms a narrow belt below the middle of the county; beyond it are the downs, a range of green open hills, affording excellent pasture to sheep. It is in this tract, between Lewes and the sea, that the South Down sheep are reared. Different parts of Sussex are equally famous for their cattle, and in no other county are so many oxen used in agriculture. There were at one time many iron works in the same county, and much charcoal was used in smelting the ore; in this way the woods were gradually diminished. The same branch of industry is now abandoned; the works, from the comparatively late improvements in smelting the metal with pit coal, are now confined to the counties, which abound both in the cheaper fuel and in iron-ore. The products of Sussex are hops, corn, wool, cattle, timber, marl and limestone.

The principal rivers are the Adur, the Arun and the Ouse, the latter a name common to other streams in England. They rise in the northern part of the county, and after dividing the chalk hills into four or five different portions, discharge themselves into the Channel; the first

^a On the west side, opposite Portsmouth.—P.

^b The Royal Hospital at Hasler, for sick and wounded seamen.—P

at Newhaven, the second near Shoreham, and the third at Little Hampton.^a Although by no means large, they have been of the greatest utility in affording connecting points to the different canals which have been undertaken or are already completed.

There are few populous towns in Sussex, and the most important are situated at a short distance from the sea. Chichester, the capital, is the seat of a diocese, which was transferred to it from Selsey in the reign of William the Conqueror. The cathedral having been destroyed by fire, a second was built in the twelfth century, which has been at different times enlarged and repaired. It is an elegant Gothic edifice, in the form of a cross, with a spire nearly three hundred feet in height. The town consists principally of four broad and well paved streets, that intersect each other at right angles; it claims some degree of antiquity, for it is said to have been founded by Cissa, the second king of the South Saxons. Traces of an earlier period may be observed in the neighbourhood. A Roman pavement was discovered in Chichester in 1727, and the Brell,^b near the city, is the site of a Roman camp, supposed to have been raised by Vespasian, and which from the nature of the soil must have been a work of considerable difficulty. The finely situated town of Arundel, on the Arun, was formerly ranked with the strong places in England; it possesses a harbour, where many small vessels are loaded with timber for the dock-yards. Horsham, on a branch of the same river, near the Surrey border, derives its name from Horsa, the brother of Hengist, by whom it is said to have been founded. It is now a populous borough, in which the spring assizes are held; it is also the seat of the county jail, a modern and commodious building. Extensive barracks, and a large magazine of arms, are situated in the neighbourhood. Lewes, on the river Ouse, one of the few populous places in the county, has become important from the industry of its inhabitants, from its cannon founderies, and from its corn and paper mills. It was the scene of a destructive battle between Henry the Third and the barons, in which the former was defeated and taken prisoner.

Although Hastings is still the first in rank of the Cinque Ports, it has fallen into decay; it now possesses a wretched harbour, and the only method by which ships can be secured from the waves, is by drawing them on the beach. It may also be mentioned on account of its connexion with a remarkable event in English history. William the Conqueror is supposed to have landed with his fleet near Pevensey, and, after burning his ships, to have assembled his army at Hastings, whence he marched to battle in an adjacent plain. Harold lost his crown and his life, while fifteen thousand of the victors, and many more of the vanquished, were slain.

It is not many years since Brightelmstone or Brighton was inhabited by fishermen; it has now become a populous town, and a place of fashionable resort in the summer season. The preference given to it for sea-bathing was derived from its vicinity to the metropolis, and from its healthful situation; but the principal cause of the great extension of Brighton, must be attributed to the

choice made of it as a summer residence by George the Fourth, when prince regent, in consequence of which a marine pavilion was built at a vast expense. In conformity to an act passed in 1821, a long and convenient chain suspension-pier for the improvement of the harbour was erected. Brighton is much benefited by the numerous travellers to France, embarking there on board the steam-packets to Dieppe, and proceeding onwards through Rouen to Paris, the distance by land being much shorter than by the route through Calais. It was at Brighton that Charles the Second embarked for France, after the battle of Worcester in 1651.

Two individuals, who have shed a lustre on English literature, were natives of Sussex. Collins was born in Chichester about the year 1720. The great and unfortunate Otway, without a rival in the pathetic, was born at Tooting^c in 1651; he died of want in 1685.

Kent, the next county we shall mention, is about sixty-three miles long, and nearly forty broad. The whole area is about 1537 square miles, or 983,680 acres; of these, about 500,000 are arable, and 300,000 pasture lands; the remainder consists of hop grounds, woods and marshes. The soil is different in different parts of the county. The land in the immediate vicinity of the Thames is low and marshy; but chalky heights rise at no great distance from its banks. A hard and unfruitful soil extends to the north-eastern extremity, and thence round to Dover, forming the lofty white cliffs which bound the island, and exhibiting from the sea that striking appearance, from which the ancient name of Albion was derived. The southern part of Kent, or the Weald, is a flat woody tract, of a clayey soil, fruitful, but unwholesome on account of its great moisture. The midland and western districts are intersected by hills and dales, arable and pasture lands, equal in fertility to any part of England.

Kent is almost entirely an agricultural county; it abounds in corn; its other products are large oxen, pigs, hops, fruit, particularly cherries, apples and filberts, with which the London market is supplied, woad and madder for dyeing, samphire, hemp, and oak timber. The manufactures are of secondary importance. Dartford and Feversham, however, are famed for their powder-mills; Maidstone and Dover, for their paper-mills. One of the largest flour-mills in the kingdom is to be seen in Canterbury, and there are also in the same place, silk, cotton and worsted manufactories. The art of bleaching and printing calicoes furnishes employment to many in the neighbourhood of Crayford. Iron furnaces, copperas and salt works, have been erected in different parts of the Wealds;^d lastly, a great quantity of coarse cloth for packing hops, is made in several parts of the county.

The sea-coast, the Downs, the dangerous Goodwin Sands, and other places, illustrative of the physical geography of Kent, have been already mentioned, but no notice has been taken of some of the remarkable towns in the county, and of these the number is sufficiently great. Dover, at no great distance from the South Foreland, is nearer the continent than any other of the British ports, the breadth of the Channel between it and Calais being only seven leagues; it is on that account much frequented

^a The Adur enters the Channel a little below New Shoreham; the Arun, at Little Hampton; and the Ouse, at Newhaven.—P.

^b Brile (Camden.) Brill (Luckombe).—P.

^c Trotting (Trotton,) a village near Petworth. Tooting is in Surrey, near London.—P.

^d There are salt-works near Sandwich and in the Isle of Grain [consequently on the coast;] large copperas works at Whitstable [on the coast, north of Canterbury] and Deptford [on the Thames, near London;] and in that part of the Weald which borders on Sussex, there are furnaces for casting iron. (Ed. Enc. art. Kent).—P.

by the travellers who visit France; for their accommodation not fewer than thirty regular packets have been established, and many of them are steam vessels. The town appears to have been a place of some consequence in the earliest times; it was the *Dour* of the Britons,^a the *Dubris* of the Romans,^b and the *Dovre* of the Saxons.^c It is mentioned in history as a place of the greatest importance at so early a period as the Norman conquest; in a later age it was often called the *Clavis et Repagulum totius Regni*.^d The ancient castle is by some supposed to have been built by Julius Cæsar, while others believe that it was founded by Claudius. It was long deemed impregnable, but in the reign of Charles the First, Drake, a zealous republican, formed a plan to seize the garrison. Accompanied at midnight by ten or twelve men, they reached by means of ropes and scaling ladders, the top of the high cliff without being discovered. Having despatched the sentinel, they threw open the gates, and the garrison, who were in the utmost confusion, supposing themselves to be attacked by superior numbers, surrendered this important castle to a handful of desperate men. The recent improvements connected with the fortress are the subterranean works and casements, capable of containing 2000 men. The town consists of two parts, the upper of which is called the Town, and the other the Pier; they are connected by Snaresgate, a long and narrow street, so named from the lofty rocks that overhang it, and menace the inhabitants with destruction.

A remarkable pile of dry bones, twenty-eight feet in length, six in breadth, and eight in height, is to be seen at some leagues westward of Dover, in a vault under the church of Hythe. According to an inscription, they appear to be the remains of Danes and Britons, who were slain in battle near the place, before the invasion of William the Conqueror. The principal canal in the county is a military work constructed along Romney marsh, in the neighbourhood of Hythe.^e It is thirty-two yards in width and six in depth, with a raised bank or breastwork to defend the soldiers. Although Hythe has fallen into decay by the filling up of its harbour, it retains the privilege of sending two representatives to parliament. The same may be said of Romney; its harbour is destroyed, but in its corporation, consisting of twenty-one persons, is vested the right of returning two members.

The ancient town of Sandwich was once a flourishing port, but from the influx of sand, the harbour is only accessible to small coasting vessels. After its prosperity was destroyed, many refugees from the Low-Countries repaired to it; they established manufactories of baize and other cloths in the town. Among these emigrants were some gardeners, who finding the neighbouring land well adapted for the cultivation of vegetables, applied their skill to that purpose, and succeeded so well that the vicinity is still distinguished for the production of garden seeds, which with several other products are exported from Sandwich.

The seaport of Deal, between the North and South

^a Derived by William Lambard from *Dicfyrrha*, a British word signifying a steep place. (Camden's Britannia. p. 247.)—P.

^b *Portus Dubris*, in the Itinerary of Antonine.—P.

^c Called by the Saxons, *Dorfa* and *Dofris* [*Dofra*, Camden,] and in Domesday Book, *Docere*. (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

^d The key and bar of the whole kingdom.

Forelands, contains about 7000 inhabitants. It is supposed to have been the *Dola* of the ancients, where Julius Cæsar landed on his first invasion of Britain. It has no harbour, but the Downs, or that part of the sea between the shore and the Godwin Sands, about eight miles in length, and varying in depth from eight to twelve fathoms, afford generally a secure station for vessels. Homeward and outward bound ships of war anchor there to put in letters, set passengers on shore, take in provisions, or wait for orders. The coast is defended by batteries and martello towers, constructed during the late war, on eminences which command every access to the shore. The town is not included among the Cinque Ports; it is supposed, however, to depend on Sandwich; the streets in the upper part are spacious and well built, while the lower are narrow, irregular and dirty. The most important institutions are a naval hospital and a house of industry. It was at Deal that Perkin Warbeck, the famous impostor, landed when he personated the Duke of York. The vicinity of the Godwin Sands renders the frequent service of pilots indispensable, and those of Deal are distinguished for their boldness and activity, qualities which they have acquired by often assisting vessels in distress.

Of the inland towns in Kent, the first in importance is the ancient city of Canterbury, the capital of the county, and the metropolitan see of all England; it was the *Caer-Kent* of the Britons, and the *Durovernum* of the Romans. It is situated in a pleasant valley, between hills of moderate height, watered by numerous springs, and by the Stour, which divides itself into several small streams, and forms different islands, on one of which the western part of the town has been built. Pope Gregory sent a number of Benedictine Monks with Augustine at their head to Ethelbert, king of Kent, for the purpose of converting the king and his people to Christianity. The conversion of Ethelbert took place in the year 597; it was followed by the installation of Augustine as bishop of the see of Canterbury; since that time it has been in possession of the primacy. The strong military causeways leading from Canterbury to Dover and Lymne,^f as well as many Roman relics and coins which have been discovered in the neighbourhood, attest its importance at an earlier period. The whole city was made over to the bishops by William Rufus, but its reputation for sanctity was greatly increased by the murder of Thomas-a-Becket in 1170. The offerings of kings, nobles and other pilgrims at the shrine of the martyr were so numerous, that the whole church and the chapel in which his remains were interred, glittered with jewels. Henry the Eighth seized all these treasures, and by his orders the bones of the saint were burnt to ashes. The present cathedral was commenced about the year 1174, but was not completed until the reign of Henry the Fifth. Kings and princes, among whom are Henry the Fourth and the Black Prince, and also cardinals and bishops, are interred in it. It was much injured during the civil wars, and Cromwell converted

^e It extends from Sandgate, nearly in a straight direction, along the coast, till it passes Hythe, when it follows the course of the hills which skirt the marshes [Romney Marsh,] and terminates at Cliffend in Sussex, a distance of about 23 miles. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f Lymme, Linme (Luckombe)—the *Portus Lemanis* of Antoninus; on the coast between Hythe and Romney. The Roman road, called Stane Street, leads from it to Canterbury.—P.

it into a stable for his dragoons; it was imperfectly repaired after the Restoration. Built in the form of a double cross, it is about 514 feet in length within the walls, and 178 in breadth; the height of the vaulted roof is equal to 80, and that of the great tower to 235 feet.

The diocese of Canterbury contains 257 parishes, besides chapels in Kent, and about a hundred more in other dioceses; the last are called peculiars from an ancient privilege of the see, by which wheresoever the archbishop had manors or advowsons, the parishes were exempted from the jurisdiction of the ordinary of the diocese, and transferred to that of Canterbury. The archbishop is primate and metropolitan of all England; he is the first peer of the realm, taking precedence of all the great officers of state, and of all dukes not of the blood-royal. At coronations, he places the crown on the king's head, and wherever the court may be, the king and queen are his parishioners. The bishop of London is his provincial dean, the bishop of Winchester his subdean, the bishop of Lincoln his chancellor, and the bishop of Rochester his chaplain.^a

The city of Canterbury is of an oval shape, and the four principal streets are built in the form of a cross. It is divided into six wards, which are subdivided into 21 streets, 56 lanes and 62 alleys.

The Thames bounds the county on the north; the next river in point of size is the Medway; it throws itself into the former near its mouth, between the isles of Grain and Sheppey, at some leagues below Rochester, a town in which the most remarkable structures are a cathedral and a stone bridge 560 feet in length. A long row of buildings on a gentle eminence, called the Bank, unites the town of Rochester with that of Chatham. The last place is well known for its naval arsenal, the large buildings connected with it, and its docks defended by strong and extensive fortifications. The dock-yard is one of the largest in England, and some of the largest ships in the navy have been built in it. The Ordnance Wharf, in which all kinds of naval stores are deposited, is adjacent to these works, and in order that they might be better secured, the Lines, a series of fortifications, were erected according to act of parliament in the year 1758. It was to guard against the danger of an invasion that these fortifications were raised, and if they had been built in the time of De Ruyter, he might have found it impracticable either to destroy the arsenal, or to burn the ships. Although the present town may be said to have been founded by Charles the Second, it is not remarkable for regularity.

On the banks of the Thames, at the distance of eight miles to the east of London, is situated the town of Woolwich. Henry the Eighth rendered it an important place by building a royal dock, that has been gradually enlarged, and is now provided with every convenience for building men-of-war, of which it has sent out many first-rates. But Woolwich is still better known as a royal arsenal, and as the principal depository of naval and military ordnance; it contains also an excellent foundery for cannon, and a laboratory for cartridges and all sorts of fire-works. It was selected on that account as a fit place for an academy, or place of education for young men destined to the service of the artillery and

engineers. From these buildings, and also from extensive artillery barracks, the town has somewhat the appearance of a large fortress.

Greenwich on the banks of the Thames, and at no great distance from the last town, has several claims to celebrity. It was a royal residence at an early period; a palace was built, and a park enclosed by Humphrey, duke of Gloucester, and it became afterwards a favourite residence of several sovereigns. It was at Greenwich that Henry the Eighth and his daughters, Mary and Elizabeth, were born. As the palace was in a ruinous state at the time of the Restoration, Charles the Second caused it to be taken down, with the intention of erecting another and more magnificent edifice on its site. One wing of the building was finished in his time, and there the king used occasionally to reside. In the reign of William the Third a design was formed of founding an hospital for aged and disabled seamen; on the recommendation of Sir Christopher Wren, the unfinished palace was enlarged and fitted for the purpose. Such is the origin of Greenwich hospital, one of the finest buildings in England, and sufficiently spacious to contain a thousand pensioners, nurses and boys. The park, intended as an appendage to the palace, was laid out by Le Notre in the reign of Charles the Second, and Greenwich observatory is built on one of its most commanding stations, the site of an old tower erected by Duke Humphrey. The eminent men who have filled the office of astronomer royal, have conferred on it a high degree of celebrity, and Greenwich is still the first meridian on the English charts.

It is necessary to omit several places of secondary importance in the county of Kent. It may be remarked, however, that the naval works at Deptford occupy an extent of 32 acres. The town is watered by the small river Ravensworth,^b near its junction with the Thames; the works consist of two wet docks, the one single, the other double, three slips, a basin, and two ponds for masts, with store-houses and the various works for anchors, cables, masts, blocks and the other implements of naval architecture. The manor-house of Say's Court, on the site of the present work-house of St. Nicholas was the residence of Peter the Great when he worked as a ship-wright at Deptford. It was in the same place that the celebrated Drake was visited in 1581 by queen Elizabeth, who conferred on him the honour of knighthood, and gave him the world and a ship for his arms.

Of Gravesend it is only necessary to remark that it is considered the head of the port of London; it is the place where the outward bound ships remain until they are visited by the custom-house officers, and at which passengers commonly embark and land.

Kent retains the name of the people^c who inhabited it in the time of Cæsar; their territory was divided into four small kingdoms, which were united during the Heptarchy. The Saxon kings held their court at Canterbury; after the conquest by the Normans, it was the only part of the kingdom that preserved its ancient laws and usages, of which the most remarkable were gavel-kind and a complete exemption from vassalage.

Although Middlesex may be considered one of the most important counties in England, it is by no means

^a Capper, Idem.

^b Ravensbourn. (Luckombe. Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c The *Cantiæ*.

large; indeed it does not contain more than 282 square miles. It is contiguous to the county of Hertford on the north, while it is separated on the east from Essex by the Lea, on the south from Surrey and Kent by the Thames, and on the west from Buckinghamshire by the Coln. It contains about 180,480 acres; of these, 100,000 are pasture, 40,000 are arable, and not fewer than 15,000 are laid out in market gardens for the supply of the metropolis. Much of the clay round London is made into bricks; an acre is said to yield about a million, and their value to amount to £500. But the greater part of the land has been converted into rich pasturage; there is reason to believe that 8500 milch cows are kept in Middlesex, and 1500 in Kent and Surrey for the supply of the inhabitants of London. To obtain hay for the London market is the principal object of the farmers in the county, and they raise annually on an average a quantity sufficient for 30,000 horses.

Middlesex participates in all the advantages of inland navigation. The immense line of canals and rivers, that extend along and across the kingdom, communicate with the Thames and London by means of the Grand Junction, which enters the county from the north at Rickmansworth, and falls into the Thames at Brentford above, and at Limehouse below, the metropolis. Another branch terminates at Paddington on the north-east of the former.

The verdant fields and the woods extending along the banks of the Thames, almost to the gates of London, form a singular contrast with the movement and activity on the river, with unnumbered masts apparently rising from the water. Other signs announce at a greater distance from the metropolis, the capital of a powerful empire, the most populous city in Europe, and the most commercial in the world. The last assertion may be easily confirmed; indeed the proofs of it may appear to be exaggerated. It has been ascertained that the total value of property annually shipped and unshipped on the Thames, is upwards of £70,000,000; and that in addition to the crews of the vessels, 8000 watermen and 4000 barges are employed in lading and unlading ships. The average number of British ships and vessels always lying in the Thames and docks is about 13,000. It is not less certain that about a thousand steam-vessels sail to and from London in the course of the year. As to the inland trade, 40,000 waggons and other heavy carriages enter or leave the metropolis annually, and the value of the goods, which are thus transported, is not less than £50,000,000. If £10,000,000 be added as the value of goods otherwise conveyed to and from London, and of the cattle and sheep driven to it, the annual amount of the trade may be estimated at £130,000,000. This does not include the various private methods of intercourse with the capital, nor the fifteen hundred methods of leaving London by stage coaches and other public conveyances in the course of a day, nor the mail coach establishment for the conveyance of passengers, small parcels and letters, the most expeditious mode of travelling ever carried into effect in any country, communicating with every part of the kingdom, and travelling continually day and night at the rate of ten miles an hour.^a

^a Capper's Topographical Dictionary.

The foundation of London is generally believed to have been anterior to the Christian era. According to Tacitus, it was the great mart of British trade and commerce in his time. The Romans called it *Londinium*; the *Trinobantes*, the *Atrebates* and the other British tribes, *Lundayn*: under the Saxon domination, it received the names of *Londeuceaster*, *Lunden-Byrig*, *Lundeu-Wye*, and lastly London. The history of its successive additions, and of the privileges that were conferred on it, is not without interest. In the sixth century it was made the metropolis of Essex, or the kingdom of the East Saxons. It became under Alfred the capital of England, and the rights which it had obtained from former princes were confirmed by the Conqueror. Henry the First extended its jurisdiction over Middlesex, and empowered the inhabitants to choose their sheriff and justiciary among the citizens, but reserved to himself the right of nominating the portreeve or mayor. Not long after the death of the same king, the citizens purchased from his successors, the conservancy of the Thames, and the right of electing their magistrates; lastly, the municipal government of London assumed under Richard the First, the same form which it has since retained, if some modifications and additional privileges be excepted. Thus, during the reign of John, Henry Fitz-Alwyn took the title of mayor, instead of *custos* or *bailiff*, under which titles he had held the same dignity during twenty successive years. In the reign of Edward the First, the city was divided into twenty-four wards, every one of which was governed by a magistrate or alderman, and each ward chose some of the inhabitants as a common council, who were sworn to assist the alderman with their advice in all public affairs. Edward the Third united the town with the southern bank of the Thames,^b conferred the title of lord on the mayor, and granted him the privilege of having a gold or silver mace carried before him on public occasions. Richard the Second seized the chartered liberties of the city, which were afterwards restored on payment of a heavy penalty.

Henry the Fourth conferred additional privileges on the city; but his reign is distinguished by the burning of "obstinate heretics," and by a plague which carried off thirty thousand persons in London. The town was first lighted in the year 1416, by lanterns suspended from cords placed across the streets; the same method is still used in France.

The reign of Edward the Fourth is remarkable for the establishment of the first English printing press by William Caxton in 1472; it was erected, however, in Westminster, not in London. Henry the Eighth not only caused the streets to be paved, but removed various nuisances, among others, the crowded monastic institutions. The long and prosperous reign of Elizabeth was marked by rapid advances in trade, industry and wealth, more than by improvements or architectural embellishments of the capital. The Exchange, the principal edifice erected during the reign, was built by a merchant, not by the queen. In 1588, when the country was threatened by the Spanish Armada, the city raised ten thousand troops, fitted out sixteen of the largest ships in the river Thames, and defrayed the charge both of men and ships during the time they continued in the queen's

^b By a charter of Edward III. Southwark was added to the jurisdiction of London. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

service. In 1615, the sides of the principal streets, which had been formerly covered with pebbles or gravel, were laid with flag-stones. Two years before that period, viz. in 1613, the New River was made to communicate with London by Sir Hugh Middleton, an undertaking worthy of a sovereign.^a While Charles the First was actually opposing the liberties of his subjects, he granted the citizens of London several charters, by which he confirmed all their former privileges, and added several new ones. The town embraced the cause of the republican party, and it displayed in the year 1660 the same zeal in bringing about the Restoration. On account of its conduct on the last occasion, Charles the Second granted a confirmation of all its ancient charters, privileges, liberties, rights and customs.

The short reign of James the Second, remarkable for want of faith, corruption and other public vices, is not less so for the establishment of the most important manufacture in London, that of silk in Spitalfields, begun by French protestants who were driven from their native land by the revocation of the edict of Nantes. After the Revolution, to which the citizens of London contributed, all the privileges they had received from former monarchs were anew confirmed by William and Mary; not long afterwards, under the reign of the same princes, the bank of England was established. An act was passed in the reign of queen Anne by which fifty additional churches were built. But it was in the long reign of George the Third that the limits were enlarged beyond example. Two leading causes may account for it; the first, or the great advances in commerce and manufactures, dates from the end of the American war; by the second or the increasing public debt, a new race of capitalists in the funds were naturally attracted to the metropolis.^b

If Constantinople be excepted, it is doubtful that any other city in Europe has suffered so much as London from pestilence, famine and conflagrations. The most dreadful instance of pestilence is perhaps the one known by the name of the *Great Plague*, which was found in the course of five months to have carried off 68,596 individuals. Hardly had it ceased, when a terrible conflagration commenced on Sunday the 2d of September 1666. A violent easterly wind spreading the flames, the fire continued four successive days, and within that time were consumed four hundred streets, 13,200 houses, the cathedral of St. Paul's, eighty-six parish churches, six chapels, the Royal Exchange, the Custom-house, several hospitals and libraries, fifty-two of the Companies' halls, three of the city gates, four stone bridges, as many prisons, and a great number of other buildings. The value of the property destroyed, is said to have amounted to £10,730,500. It is remarkable that six persons only lost their lives during this great devastation. The monument, a fine column 200 feet in height, serves still to record the calamity.

London is divided into twenty-six wards, and each of them is subject to the jurisdiction of an alderman, chosen by the householders or freemen at large, in assemblies termed wardmotes. One of these aldermen is elected

Lord Mayor on Michaelmas day, but he does not enter on his office until the ninth of November following. The two sheriffs elected annually by the livery are appointed both for the city and the county. The recorder, a serjeant learned in the law, is chosen by the lord mayor and aldermen for their instruction and assistance in legal proceedings and matters of justice. The same person is the orator of the city on all extraordinary occasions, and when seated on the bench, delivers the sentence of the court on criminals. Besides these officers, there are several others, as the coroner, the town clerk, the common serjeant, and the city remembrancer. The suburbs in Middlesex are under the jurisdiction of the justices of the peace for the county, and there are besides several courts in which magistrates sit every day for the examination of offences, and the summary determination of various complaints.

The form of London is very irregular; it extends in a direction parallel to the Thames, and the greater part of it is situated on the northern bank of the river. If Westminster and Southwark be included, the length of the town is equal to seven miles, while the broadest part is little more than four, and the narrowest is upwards of two. The streets are for the most part wide, few of them being so narrow as to prevent two carriages from passing abreast, and many of them broad enough to admit of five or six. The finest are those in the west end of the town, the residence of the nobles and the wealthy; the narrowest are in the city, the most ancient and the most central quarter of London, and the principal seat of commerce. But the east end is also inhabited by opulent merchants, particularly by those engaged in the foreign and colonial trade. In the same quarter are situated immense basins or docks, constructed for the reception of ships, and the largest storehouses in the world. The latest additions made to the town are situated on the north, where by means of different streets, several villages have been united to the capital.

The uniformity of the houses, almost all consisting of three stories, and almost all built of brick, and covered with plaster, the cleanness of the streets, the broad pavements for foot passengers, and the brilliant light with which they are every evening illumined, render London unlike most of the continental towns. The finest streets are Oxford Street, Piccadilly, Pall-Mall, Portland Place, Haymarket and Regent Street. The last, both for its length and the magnificence of its buildings, may rival any in Europe.

There is nothing in London like the *Boulevards* which are so much admired in Paris, and there is nothing in Paris like the squares in London. Some of them are very large; Grosvenor Square, surpassing in many respects every other, contains five acres; the buildings, which enclose it, are perhaps the most magnificent in the capital; an equestrian statue of George the Second is placed in the centre, and the ground round it is planted with trees, evergreens and shrubs. Portman Square holds the next rank, but it is smaller, and the houses are not so large. Berkley Square is ornamented with an equestrian statue of George the Third in the costume

^a The New River supplies the metropolis with thirteen millions of gallons of water every day. Although the original projector was ruined by the undertaking, in consequence of the difficulty he experienced in obtaining support, so great, however, is the benefit, which

the inhabitants have derived, that a share in the New River Company, which was at first sold for £100, is now worth £15,000. See Results of Machinery, page 83.

^b Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopaedia, vol. i.

of Marcus Aurelius ; and in Cavendish Square, which is for the most part surrounded with good houses, there is a statue of William, duke of Cumberland. Lincoln's Inn Square, the largest of any, covers the same extent of surface as the Great Pyramid of Egypt.

London contains few monuments worthy of its extent or its wealth. A stranger looks in vain for the public fountains, that he is accustomed to see in other capitals, and to admire not only as architectural embellishments, but as giving the towns in which they are situated, an appearance of freshness and cleanliness. The ornament, however, is all that is wanting ; the use and advantages of public fountains are more commodiously supplied by subterranean pipes, by which abundance of fresh water is conveyed to every dwelling. Although the new buildings in Covent Garden market, render it one of the best in Europe, London, on the whole, is not so well supplied with markets as Paris.

The Royal Exchange, which was founded by a private citizen, Sir Thomas Gresham, is entered by a detached Corinthian portico at its principal front in Cornhill. It has been improved by a new entablature, balustrade and bas-reliefs. The Guildhall is remarkable for its spacious hall, in which the civic entertainments are held. The Mansion House, the residence of the Lord Mayor, is a very clumsy building ; according to Ralph, it looks as if it had been built by a ship-carpenter.^a The Bank of England in the heart of the city, is a vast and characteristic pile, covering an indented area of about eight acres. The prevailing orders are the Corinthian and the Doric. Somerset House, although incomplete, is one of the largest buildings in the metropolis ; it communicates with the Strand by means of three arcades. A vestibule with Doric columns leads into a large quadrangular court with a bronze group in the centre. It has three fronts, of which the one overlooking the court is rich in architectural ornaments, and the one commanding the river, is adorned with a fine terrace. The buildings which bound the quadrangle, consist partly of public offices, connected with the army and navy, and also of the apartments of the Royal Society and Royal Academy. The British Museum, a brick building by the celebrated Puget, in the taste of the age of Lewis the Fourteenth, is a large and imposing rather than a graceful edifice. It is chiefly remarkable for the purposes to which it is devoted, and the interior abounds with objects of antiquity, paintings and statues ; among the last are the Elgin marbles, models of sculpture, comparable to any that have been left by the ancients, and exercising at present a beneficial influence on the fine arts in England. Although the library contains a great many volumes, it is immethodically arranged, and deficient in the selection of editions. The ancient fortress of the Tower contains several streets, and occupies an area of twelve acres and five roods square, within an embattled wall and ditch. It was for many ages the residence of kings, and the White Tower was built by William the Conqueror. The small armoury, a spacious apartment, not less than 345 feet in length, contains complete stands of arms for 200,000 men. The royal train of artillery, the horse

^a The celebrated amateur architect, Lord Burlington, to whose taste London is indebted for some fine private mansions, sent the corporation an original plan for the mansion house, by Palladio. Who is this Palladio? Is he a freeman? said a magistrate. Having been answered

armoury, and the jewel office, where the regalia are preserved, are situated within the Tower. The same building serves still as the great state prison in cases of high political misdemeanour and treason.

The palace of St. James is an ancient brick building of irregular architecture, by no means resembling a royal residence. The exterior forms a singular contrast with the magnificence and costly furniture of the interior. Another palace, originally destined for George the Fourth and his successors, is almost finished, at least more than enough is completed to enable one to judge of its architecture, and to be convinced that it may bear a comparison with the finest structures in London. It was in Whitehall, a large square building formerly inhabited by kings, that the unfortunate Charles the First was beheaded.

Of the three hundred and forty-six churches in London, three are chiefly worthy of notice. The first of these, or St. Paul's cathedral, is confined in a narrow area on the north bank of the river, between Cheapside and Ludgate Street. The body of the church is in the form of a cross ; a stately dome which rises from the centre is adorned on the outside with Corinthian columns, and surrounded at its base by a balcony ; it is crowned by a gilded ball and cross, the highest ornaments of the edifice. The length of the church is five hundred feet, the breadth two hundred and fifty, the height to the top of the cross, three hundred and forty, and the entire circumference, two thousand two hundred and ninety-two. St. Paul's is adorned with three porticos ; the one at the principal entrance faces the west, while the other two at the extremities of the cross aisle, front the north and south. The western portico consists of twelve lofty Corinthian columns below, and eight composite above, supporting a grand pediment ; the whole rests on an elevated base, the ascent to which is by a flight of twenty-two square steps of black marble. The interior of the church is relieved by several statues and monuments that have been erected to the memory of eminent men. It may be added, that St. Paul's was built at the national expense by Sir Christopher Wren ; the sums laid out on it amounted nearly to £750,000. It was completed in thirty-five years, having been begun in 1675, and finished in 1710.

Westminster Abbey was originally founded by Sebert, king of the East Saxons. The present church was begun by Henry the Third, and continued by Edward the First, as far as the extremity of the choir ; the nave and west front were erected in succeeding reigns, and the western towers were completed by Sir Christopher Wren. The length is three hundred and sixty feet, the breadth seventy-two, and the length of the transept or cross aisle, a hundred and ninety feet. The interior of the church cannot be too highly commended ; it is in the form of a long cross, and the choir is one of the finest in Europe. It is there that the ceremony of crowning the kings and queens of England is performed. The sepulchral monuments of illustrious men are situated in twelve small chapels at the eastern extremity of the church, and these memorials strike the beholder with endless variety. It

in the negative, a discussion arose, lasted for some time, and was abruptly terminated by somebody saying, "Palladio is a papist." The result was the building of the Mansion House by the city architect See Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopaedia, vol i p. 26.

is to be regretted, however, that they have been of late profaned by the indiscriminate admission of obscure and vulgar names.

The church of St. Stephen's Walbrook is perhaps the finest monument of the genius of Wren. The area is divided and adorned, and the roof sustained, by sixteen Corinthian columns, eight of which support a hemispherical cupola.

Six bridges communicate with both banks of the Thames. New London Bridge is not yet finished; it is to consist of five arches, and the central one is a hundred and fifty feet wide. Southwark Bridge, at a short distance above it, is a noble structure of cast iron, having three arches, the central spanning two hundred and forty feet. The middle arch, seen from the Southwark side, with the dome of St. Paul's towering in conjunction above it, is perhaps one of the grandest architectural combinations in London.^a Blackfriars Bridge was finished in 1769; it is remarkable for the lightness of its construction, and the length of it is equal to 1100 feet. Waterloo Bridge is massive and simple, and one of the grandest fabrics in the metropolis.^b Westminster Bridge has been deservedly admired; it was finished in 1750, and cost £389,000. The expense of the Waterloo Bridge was upwards of a million.

In addition to these communications, a tunnel,^c a stupendous work, forming a subterranean passage beneath the bed of the Thames, was attempted at Rotherhithe, and suspended when it had reached half way by an irruption of water; but enough had been accomplished to show the practicability of the undertaking, and it is not improbable that London may ere long be indebted to the genius of a Frenchman,^d for a work to which nothing comparable has been achieved either by the ancients or the moderns.

The parks or the most frequented public walks have been happily denominated the lungs of the metropolis. Into them and into the neighbouring villages London discharges its multitudes on Sundays and holy-days to the amazement of foreigners. These parks, although not numerous, are sufficiently spacious. St. James' and the Green Park may be regarded as one. Hyde Park is the resort of the gay and fashionable, promenading in their carriages along the drive, or on foot in Kensington Gardens, which although detached, are supposed to form a part of it. A building, called the Coliseum, but which bears a greater resemblance to the Pantheon, has been erected in Regent's Park. The purpose for which it was built is worthy of notice; it was to exhibit a panorama of London and its neighbourhood on a surface of 4000 square feet, consequently the largest representation of the sort, that has been painted. Adjoining to the building are a covered walk of great extent, gardens, Swiss cottages, and three cascades, one of which falls from the height of sixty feet.

Of the thirteen theatres in London, the most important are Drury-Lane, Covent-Garden and the King's Theatre or Italian Opera. As a building, the last is little inferior to the finest theatres in France and Italy, but it is deficient in machinery and decoration; indeed

the want of scenic illusion, which strikes a stranger so forcibly, would not be tolerated on the continent. The national drama has of late fallen into disrepute; it is affirmed that persons of distinguished rank no longer frequent Drury Lane and Covent Garden, and it is equally true that there are at present no dramatic writers of distinguished merit.^e The stage for which Jonson and Shakspeare wrote, has been degraded by dramas taken from popular novels, or from such French plays as are acted in the minor theatres of Paris. Thus, if the theatres are not well attended, it is because dramatic literature has declined, and not, as has been idly alleged, on account of the increasing morality and piety of the British people.

It may be seen from the following list, which is by no means complete, that London surpasses every other capital in the number of its scientific and benevolent institutions. There are two universities,^f sixteen schools of medicine, and as many of law, five of theology, eighteen public libraries, three hundred gratuitous elementary schools, the royal society, the society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures and commerce, that of antiquaries, those of chemistry, geology and pharmacy, those of horticulture and statistics, that of Palestine for the advancement of geography and natural history in Palestine and Syria, another for the encouragement of discoveries in the interior of Africa, the royal Asiatic society, of which many excellent memoirs have been published, and lastly, the Bible society, which has diffused an immense number of Bibles in a hundred and forty different languages and dialects. To avoid too long details, it may be added that there are a hundred and forty-seven hospitals or houses for the reception of the infirm and indigent,^g seventeen hundred dispensaries where medicine and medical attendance are provided for the poor, and fourteen spacious prisons, in which many improvements have from time to time been introduced in the physical and moral treatment of the inmates; it is still to be regretted that similar improvements have not been adopted on the continent.

If the immorality of a town is always in a direct ratio with its population, it follows that there must be an immense number of profligate and abandoned persons in a capital, which contains, on a surface of more than seven geographical leagues, 1,500,000 inhabitants, 170,000 houses, 8000 streets, fourteen markets and seventy squares. According to the calculations of a London magistrate,^h twenty thousand individuals rise every morning without knowing where to obtain their daily food, or where to find a bed during the night. To the above number it is necessary to add 16,000 beggars, 100,000 sharpers or swindlers, and 3000 receivers of stolen goods. The total number of domestics of both sexes, who are out of place, amounts to more than 10,000. The number of public women is not less than 40,000; the haunts of vice and debauchery which they frequent, must be proportionate to so great a number. Such is the afflicting spectacle that the greatest capital in Europe presents, a capital in which philanthropy is by no means an empty name; on the contrary, the benevolence of pri-

^a Idem. Ibid.

^b It was begun in 1811, and opened in 1817, on the anniversary of the battle of Waterloo. It is built of granite.—P.

^c The Thames Tunnel.

^d M. Brunel.

^e Idem. Ibid.

^f The London University and King's College.

^g Hospitals and almshouses.

^h Colquhoun on the Police, edition of 1822

vate individuals is fostered both by public opinion, a powerful engine in England, and by the influence of government. London, however, possesses the sad advantage of being in proportion to its population, infinitely more corrupt than Paris. More than eight thousand individuals are annually put into the different prisons; but a stranger, particularly a Frenchman, may admire the manner in which the business of the police is performed; it is done without ostentation, without military parade, and without any thing that gives the duty of preserving order, the appearance of an abuse of power. The watchmen, to whom the public safety is committed, are very numerous; they walk the streets during the night, cry the hours, give alarm in case of fire, warn the inhabitants, if their doors have been left open by negligence, and arrest those who commit crimes, or disturb the public peace; all this is done without arms, unless their baton or staff can be considered one. Their duties are in a great measure pacific; their number enables them to preserve order, but not to prevent crimes in an immense town, where more than one individual out of every fifteen is a knave, a sharper or a pickpocket.

London has been examined in different points of view; the greater part of it, it has been seen, is situated in Middlesex; some other places in the same county may be mentioned. Hackney, near the Paddington canal, contains 23,000 inhabitants; it was the birthplace of Howard the philanthropist; the same place is also memorable from its antiquity, and the remains of a Roman road may still be seen in the vicinity. St. John's palace, a very ancient building, was inhabited by the prior of St. John of Jerusalem; the Knights Templars had a residence at no great distance from it, but as it has been long converted into flour and lead mills, it is now better known by the name of Temple mills.^a Hampton Court,^b on the banks of the Thames, is adorned with a royal palace and extensive gardens.

Chelsea, about a mile and a half from London on the Westminster side, is also situated on the banks of the Thames. It contains more than 27,000 inhabitants, but it is principally worthy of notice on account of its hospital for decayed and maimed soldiers, one of the finest buildings and the best institutions in the kingdom. Chelsea Hospital was begun by Charles the Second, continued by James the Second, and completed by William the Third. Sir Stephen Fox, the ancestor of the celebrated statesman, was the first projector of the building, to which he contributed £13,000. The pensioners are veterans, who have been either disabled or twenty years in the army. Their number amounts to 336; there are besides 20,000 out-pensioners, and their allowance is proportionate to their length of service. The expenses of the institution are defrayed by a poundage from the pay of the army, and the deficiency, if any, is made good by parliament. The Royal Military Asylum, lately erected in the same town, serves as a place of education for one thousand children of non-commissioned officers and soldiers. The whole army contributes one day's pay per annum in support of this institution.

The county of Surrey, in which that part of London on the left bank of the Thames is situated, was inhabit-

^a Hackney is said to have been the first village near London, to which carriages ran at stated times for the convenience of passengers; hence the term hackney-coach, has been derived.

ed by the *Regni*, and during the period of the heptarchy, it was included in the kingdom of the South Saxons. Contiguous on the north to Middlesex and part of Buckinghamshire, on the west to Berkshire and Hampshire, on the south to Sussex, and on the east to Kent, it covers an area of 758 square miles. As an agricultural county, Surrey is much inferior to many others; of its 485,120 acres, only 80,000 are arable; it is true, however, that the quantity of garden-ground, cultivated for the supply of the London market, exceeds 4000 acres. The mineral products are important; they consist of iron-ore, firestone, limestone, fuller's-earth and chalk. Two sorts of fuller's-earth are obtained, the one of a blue, the other of a yellow colour; the latter is chiefly used in fulling the finer cloths of Wiltshire and Gloucestershire, while the former is sent to Yorkshire for the coarser manufactures. The firestone, obtained in the neighbourhood of Gadstone, Gatton, Mersham and other parts of the county, is extremely soft when first worked, and incapable of resisting a moist atmosphere, but after being kept some months under cover, it becomes so compact as to resist the heat of a common fire; it is therefore in great demand in London. Surrey has four canals, which communicate with London and the sea. The principal manufactures and products of industry are distilleries, vinegar works, potteries, paper, snuff and gunpowder mills, starch, bats and calicos.

Guildford, the capital of the county, does not contain four thousand inhabitants; it is pleasantly situated on the declivity of a chalk hill on the banks of the Wye. The town has often been the residence of English monarchs, and it retains the traces of its former grandeur. Some parts of its ancient castle are still visible, and the square tower or Keep, as it is called, must have been at one time a place of great strength. It is not known by whom it was built.

Kew, on the banks of the Thames, and about six miles west from London, may be mentioned on account of its botanic gardens, which are laid out in a very judicious manner, and contain an immense number of flowers and exotic plants. It is admitted, however, that they have been comparatively neglected since the time of George the Third. Richmond, about two miles to the south of the last village, is peopled by six thousand inhabitants, and in its church are deposited the remains of Gilbert Wakefield and Thomson the poet. The small town of Putney in the same county, is distinguished as the birthplace of Gibbon, the historian.

Berkshire, contiguous on the east to Surrey, is separated on the north from Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire by the Thames, and bounded on the south by Hampshire, and on the west by Wiltshire. The shape of the county is very irregular, being about forty-eight miles long, twenty-five broad in some places, and in others only six.

Windsor, situated near the eastern extremity of the county, has been for more than seven hundred years the favourite residence of British kings. The castle, erected soon after the conquest by William the Conqueror, was much enlarged by succeeding princes. It was there that Edward the Third was born, and it was there also that he

^b Hampton Court is the name of the palace, adjoining the village of Hampton.—P.

instituted the order of the Garter, of which the knights have always been installed in the chapel of St. George, an addition made by the same king to the palace. It is situated on a height above the Thames, and commands an extensive view of a rich and romantic country; but it might occupy too much space to describe the various parts of the edifice, the additions it has received, the internal decorations, and the valuable paintings. It may be sufficient to remark that a grant of £500,000 was made by parliament in 1824, for the purpose of repairing and embellishing Windsor Castle. St. George's Chapel, which may be considered a part of the building, is not inferior to any Gothic structure in the kingdom.

Reading, the capital of the county, has been the scene of several important events in civil and ecclesiastical history. It is situated on two small eminences, and their declivities terminate in a pleasant valley, through which the branches of the Kennet flow, and join the Thames at the extremity of the town. It possessed since the twelfth century, a magnificent abbey, one of the richest in the kingdom at the period of the dissolution. It was afterwards distinguished by its woollen manufactories, which have fallen into decay, and their loss has been inadequately supplied by the making of sail and sack-cloth. It is still, however, a place of considerable population, and much business is carried on at the wharfs on the Kennet, in the import and export of commodities, particularly of flour, which is sent to the metropolis.

Newbury, on the banks of the Kennet, was famed, in the reigns of Henry the Seventh and Henry the Eighth, for its woollen manufactories, a branch of industry in which John Winchcombe, commonly called Jack of Newbury, rose to celebrity. Abingdon, like many other places in England, owes its origin to a monastery, which continued in great splendour until the dissolution. It carries on at present a considerable trade in malt, with which it partly supplies the metropolis. Wantage, a small market town on the border of the vale of Whitehorse, is remarkable as the birth-place of Alfred the Great, from which it has been inferred, that it was then a royal residence.

The county was inhabited, in early times, by the *Atrebates*, a tribe that migrated from Gaul, probably from the neighbourhood of Arras, before the island was invaded by the Romans. It is impossible, indeed, to examine Berkshire without observing many memorials of different epochs. A Roman camp of a quadrangular form, may be seen near Wantage, on the banks of a canal in the northern part of the county. The remains of a Roman fort are still visible at Lawrence-Waltham, and it is supposed that the castle of Cherbury near Denchworth, was originally founded by king Canute. A range of chalk hills extends towards Oxfordshire, and one part of it, destitute of herbage, bears some resemblance to the gigantic figure of a white horse; hence the plain which these hills enclose, has been called Whitehorse-vale. A white horse, it is well known, was represented on the standard of king Alfred, and the country people still believe that the figure, which covers an extent of more than an acre, was intended to commemorate a victory over the Danes. The inhabitants of the neighbouring villages meet every year on St. John's day, in order as

they say to clean the horse, or in other words, to take away the grass and plants, which might alter its appearance. When their work is finished, the rest of the day is devoted to rural mirth. A number of stones standing on end, at no great distance from the valley, are supposed to indicate the burying place of several Danish kings. It is certain that the neighbourhood has been the scene of frequent battles between the Danes and Anglo-Saxons.

Oxfordshire, contiguous to the northern limit of Berkshire, is bounded on the west by Gloucestershire, on the north by the counties of Warwick and Northampton, and on the east by Buckinghamshire. Like Berkshire, its figure is very irregular; the northern portion is much broader than the southern, and a narrow neck, if it may be so called, extends between the two. The three counties of Berks, Oxford and Buckingham, although separately much broken and indented, form together a figure resembling a circle.^a The soil of the county may be divided into three distinct sorts: viz. 1st, the red land of the northern district, which in fertility is superior to any other portion of equal extent; 2d, the stone-brash district; and 3d, the Chiltern Hills: besides these there are different loams in different parts of the county. The following are supposed to be the proportions of the different soils—red land, 79,635 acres; stone-brash, 164,072; Chiltern, 64,778; different soils, 166,400.^b The same county is watered by not fewer than seventy distinct streams or rivers; few of them, it is true, are large, and the most remarkable have been already mentioned. The products of Oxfordshire are chiefly those of the midland farming counties; corn and malt are exported by the Thames to the metropolis. Good cheese is made in the grazing districts, but it is chiefly used for home consumption. The products of the dairy are more abundant in the central or enclosed districts, and many calves are reared of which the veal serves to supply the London markets. The hills yield ochre, pipe-clay and other useful substances.

Oxford, the capital, has been considered the great glory of the county. Besides the lustre which it derives from its university, the city is venerable from its antiquity. Some have invested it with the honours of fable, and traced its origin to a thousand years before the Christian era. But the authentic history of Oxford dates from the time of Alfred, who resided there. The town was stormed by William the Conqueror on its refusal to admit him, and the inhabitants at a later period took part with King Stephen against the empress Matilda. The ruins of Beaumont palace rise near Worcester College; it was built by Henry the First, and was afterwards the residence of Henry the Second, but it is chiefly famed as the birth-place of Richard Cœur-de-Lion. In later times, Oxford has not only been often inhabited by English kings, but it has been the seat of frequent parliaments. The unfortunate Charles the First held his court there during the whole of the civil wars, and it then became the centre of various military operations in the adjoining country. In the year 1643, in one of these combats,—the skirmish of Chalgrave near Watlington, John Hampden, the celebrated patriot, was slain.

Oxford is pleasantly situated on a gently rising ground in the midst of meadows, at the confluence of the

^a Aikin.

^b Agricultural Survey.

Isis and the Cherwell. It surpasses other cities in the beauty and magnificence of its buildings. The University consists of twenty colleges and five halls; the latter are all that remain of the numerous halls, hostels or inns, which were originally the only academical houses of the students.^a The total number of members in the University books is upwards of three thousand, and of these a thousand are maintained on the revenues of the different colleges. The university is governed by a chancellor, generally a nobleman, a high steward, a vice-chancellor, a province chancellor,^b two proctors, a public orator, three esquire beadles and other inferior officers. To give a view of the system of education would far exceed our limits. Suffice it to say that lectures are delivered on every branch of literature and science. To obtain academical honours requires some degree of capacity and diligence, but the ordinary degree, which qualifies for ordination and the learned professions, may be very easily acquired. It cannot be denied that the university affords the most valuable means of obtaining knowledge, and that the students have it in their power to make a good or a bad use of the advantages which they enjoy. In Oxford, literature is chiefly cultivated; in Cambridge, science. The former was distinguished for its tory politics, the latter for its liberal principles; but the distinction has been less marked in later times than at the period of the Revolution.^c

Vain deluding pleasures are supposed to be banished from Oxford, the abode of useful or intellectual occupations. It is true that there is a theatre, and one which displays the architectural talent of Wren, but the only actors are the students, and the only plays, those of Greek or Roman authors. The same interesting city is indebted to several wealthy individuals for different useful institutions. The botanic garden was founded in 1632, by Henry Danvers, earl of Danby, but it was completed and adorned by Dr. Sherard, who added a library to it, endowed a professorship, and furnished the garden with many rare and valuable plants. The Ashmolean museum was presented to the university in 1682, by Elias Ashmole, together with the manuscripts of Sir William Dugdale, his father-in-law. The Clarendon press^d was erected in 1712, from the profits arising from the sale of

Lord Clarendon's history of the Rebellion. The fund for the Radcliffe library was bequeathed by Dr. Radcliffe in 1749,^e and to the same person the university is indebted for an observatory worthy of Oxford. In an apartment of a quadrangular building, called the Schools, are arranged the famous Arundelian marbles, collected in Greece and Asia by the earl of Arundel, and presented to the university by his grandson, the duke of Norfolk. The Bodleian or university library, added by Sir Thomas Bodley to the remains of the library of Humphrey, duke of Gloucester, may be considered, with the exception of the one in the Vatican, the most valuable in Europe. Oxford contains fourteen parish churches, many chapels for dissenters, some gratuitous schools, and other charitable institutions.

The roads in Oxfordshire have been of late much improved, and its commerce has been increased by the canal which was cut in the northern part of the county.^f The principal manufactures are those of blankets at Witney shag at Banbury, and gloves and polished steel at Woodstock. Many of the poorer classes are employed in spinning or making lace. But notwithstanding the famous forest of Wichwood, the want of fuel is everywhere felt; it is apparent in the condition of the lower orders, and it accounts for their comparative poverty. The county, inhabited in ancient times by the *Dobuni*, included by the Romans in the province of *Flavia Caesariensis*, and forming part of Mercia in the time of the Heptarchy, possesses still two Roman roads, one of which, called Ickenild Street, crosses the Thames at Goring, and then passes north-north-east to Bucks, while the other, called Akeman Street, extends across the county to Burford.

Buckinghamshire is contiguous to Oxfordshire on the west, to Northamptonshire on the north, to Middlesex, Hertfordshire and Bedfordshire on the east, and to Berkshire and a small portion of Surrey on the south. Its greatest length from north to south is about fifty miles, while its greatest breadth is not more than sixteen. It contains 518,400 acres, of which 240,000 consist of clay and loam, and 7000 of sand; the rest is of a very mixed nature, composed of chalk, gravel, sand, clay and clayey loam. The Chiltern Hills run across the county from east to west; the Ickenild way, which has been

^a The following are the different Colleges in Oxford. First, Baliol College, founded in 1269, by John Baliol of Bernard Castle, father of John Baliol, king of Scotland. 2d, Merton College, erected in 1267, by Walter de Merton, Bishop of Rochester and Lord Chancellor of England. 3d, University College, supposed to have been founded by Alfred, but principally restored by William, Archdeacon of Durham, and Walter Shirlaw, Bishop of Durham, and Henry Percy, Earl of Northumberland. 4th, Exeter College, founded in 1314, by Walter Stapledon, Bishop of Exeter. 5th, Oriel College, founded in 1324, by Adam de Brome, Almoner to Edward the Second. A tenement called *L'Orielle* or *L'Oricle*, was annexed to it by Edward the Third, from which the College derives its name. 6th, Queen's College, founded in 1340, by Robert D'Eglesfield, chaplain to Queen Philippa, consort of Edward the Third. 7th, New College, or Winchester College, founded in 1379, by the celebrated William of Wykeham, bishop of Winchester, and Lord High Chancellor of England. 8th, Trinity College, founded by Sir Thomas Pope in 1594. 9th, Lincoln College, founded in 1427, by Richard Fleming, bishop of Lincoln. 10th, Worcester College, founded by Sir Thomas Coke of Bentley in Worcester-shire in 1714. 11th, St. John's College, founded in 1557, by Sir Thomas White, Alderman of London. 12th, All Saints' College,^{*} founded in 1438, by Henry Chichele, archbishop of Canterbury. 13th, Magdalen College, founded in 1458 by William of Wainfleet, bishop of Winchester. 14th, Brazen Nose College, founded in 1502 by William Smith, bishop of Lincoln, and Sir Richard Sutton of Prestbury in Cheshire. Its singular name appears to have been derived from an

iron ring fixed in a nose of brass, and serving as a knocker to the gate. 15th, Corpus Christi College, founded in 1516 by Bishop Fox, Lord Privy Seal to Henry the Seventh and Henry the Eighth. 16th, Christ Church College, founded by Cardinal Wolsey in 1525. 17th, Jesus College founded in 1571 by Queen Elizabeth. 18th, Wadham College, founded in 1613 by Nicholas Wadham of Merrifield in Somersetshire. It was in this College that the plan of the Royal Society was first proposed. 19th, Pembroke College, founded in 1620, by Thomas Tesdale of Glympton in Oxfordshire, and Richard Wightwick, rector of Illey in Berkshire. 20th, Hereford College, founded in 1312, by Walter Stapledon, bishop of Exeter.†

^{*} All Souls College.—P.

† Hereford College, originally Hart Hall (founded by Walter de Stapleton, bishop of Exeter,) and attached to Exeter College, till raised to the rank of an independent college by Dr. Newton, A. D. 1740. (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

^b The vice-chancellor nominates four deputies, or pro-vice-chancellors. (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

^c Lardner, volume first.

^d The Clarendon Printing-house.

^e The Radcliffe library was erected in 1749. (M. B.)—The building was erected between 1737 and 1749. Dr. Radcliffe died in 1714.—P.

^f The Oxford canal. It leaves the Coventry canal at Longford, four miles N. of Coventry; passes S. E. to Braunton, where the Grand Junction Canal branches off eastwards to London; then passes S. W. to Napton, where a canal branches from it to Warwick; then S. through a tunnel to the valley of the Cherwell at Claydon; then following the Cherwell, by Banbury, to the Isis at Oxford.—P.

already mentioned, lies on these hills, and on the right side of the same road,^a towards the vale of Aylesbury, the soil is much more valuable, letting to the amount of 10s. per acre more than on the left. Lastly, as an agricultural county, Buckinghamshire has been divided into three parts, namely, arable farms, dairy farms, and farms partly grazing and partly arable.

No part of the county is situated at a great distance from a navigable way to London. Thus, the Thames is navigable on the south from Henley by Marlow, Maidenhead, Windsor and Staines; while the Grand Junction Canal, and its auxiliary branches from Wendover, Aylesbury and Buckingham, are equally navigable on the east. The mineral products are not numerous; marble, however, is obtained at Newport-Pagnell, and there are several pits of excellent fuller's-earth on the confines near Woburn, but few of them are worked. Lace is the principal manufacture: it is true that there are many paper mills, and that a cotton manufactory has been erected at Amersham, still more lace is made in Buckinghamshire than in any other county; in this branch of industry, and in plaiting straw for hats, almost all the poor women and girls are employed.^b

Aylesbury and Buckingham are the capitals; the former, much more populous than the other, contains about 18,000 inhabitants. It gives its name to the rich vale of Aylesbury in the middle of the county, one of the most fruitful tracts in the kingdom, extending to the distance of many miles, from Tame on the borders of Oxfordshire to Leighton in Bedfordshire. The town was a strong place in the time of the Saxons, and was included in a royal manor by the Conqueror, who parcelled it out to different tenants, and from the nature of their tenure, some notion may be inferred of the luxury or simplicity of the Norman court; they were obliged to find litter or straw for the king's bed-chamber three times a year, if he passed in that direction so often, and to furnish him besides with three eels in winter, and three green geese in summer. It was erected into a corporation by a charter of queen Mary in 1553. The streets lie round the market-place, in the middle of which a spacious hall has been erected for the quarter sessions and the lent assizes; it is also adorned with a market-house, which is built after the model of the Temple of the Winds at Athens.

Buckingham, the ancient capital of the county, and venerable from its antiquity, was fortified with a rampart and tower in the year 918 by Edward the Elder, to defend it against the incursions of the Danes. It is situated on the river Ouse, over which there are three stone bridges, but the number of inhabitants does not exceed four thousand. Buckingham, indeed, has long been in a state of decline; having lost the privilege of holding the assizes, which were removed to Aylesbury, it was recovered in 1758 for one half of the year. Lace-making is the only manufacture in the town.

Eton, the only other place in the county that shall be mentioned, is situated on the Thames opposite to Wind-

sor, with which it is connected by means of a bridge. It was rendered a seminary of learning by Henry the Sixth in 1440; having been originally endowed for a provost, ten priests, six clerks, six choristers, twenty-five poor grammar scholars with a master to teach them, and twenty-five poor old men. It now supports a provost, vice-provost, seventy scholars, and many officers and assistants. Besides the king's scholars, there are seldom fewer than three hundred noblemen's and gentlemen's sons who are educated at Eton.

Among the eminent men that the county has produced, may be mentioned Francis Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, a prelate distinguished by his wit and learning, but suspected and not without reason, of having been engaged in a plot to bring in the pretender. Richard Cox, bishop of Ely, the framer of the liturgy, was a native of Whaddon. Sir Kenelm Digby, born at Gothurst in 1603, was an elegant scholar, a naval commander, a visionary in philosophy and religion, at one time a protestant, at another a catholic convert; an admirer of Cromwell, and yet imprisoned by the parliament during the civil wars. Believing it practicable to prolong the life of man to the antediluvian period, he laboured to discover the means by which it could be accomplished, and was assisted by Descartes in the vain attempt.

If we cross the Grand Junction Canal near the boundary between Buckinghamshire and Hertfordshire, we may arrive at the capital of the last county, in the vicinity of which the rivers Lea, Maran, Rib and Quin unite, and form the New River, which flows in an artificial channel forty-two miles, supplies the inhabitants of London with water, and communicates with the Thames. Hertford or Hartford bore in ancient times the name of *Durocobriva*, which signifies the Red-Ford, so called from the colour of the gravel at the bottom of the Lea, which waters it. As there were formerly many deer in the county, it has been maintained that its modern name is derived from Hart, a deer. It has been alleged in support of this opinion, that the arms of the town are a hart couchant in the water. This, however, cannot be considered any proof of the etymology, as the arms were devised from the name of the town.^e The Saxon kings often held their court at Hertford; a strong castle was erected in the same place by Alfred, to check the incursions of the Danes, who frequently laid waste the country from the Thames to the Ware. A spacious building, a dependance of Christ's church hospital^d in London, and serving as a country residence to part of the scholars, has been erected in the town. The commerce of Hertford consists principally in the exportation of malt to London, but as a place of trade or industry, it is nowise remarkable. The county was inhabited before the Roman invasion by the *Tauni*, the *Trinobantes* and the *Cassii*, tribes whose territory extended to the shores of the ocean.^e Under the Saxons, it was divided between the kingdoms of Kent and Mercia.^f The traces of several Roman camps may be seen in different parts of the county; the ancient *Duroletum* is supposed to have

^a On the north.—The Chiltern Hills (of chalk) occupy the southern part of Bucks, and the Vale of Aylesbury, the centre; the northern part is diversified with sand hills, connected with those in the west of Bedfordshire.—P.

^b Aikin.

^c Capper's Topographical Dictionary.

^d Christ's Hospital, for the education of poor children.—P.

^e "The county was inhabited by the *Catticuchlani*, by the *Trinobantes*, a people that extended to the shores of the ocean, and by the *Cassii*." (M. B.)—The *Catticuchlani*, called also *Cassivellauni* or *Cattivellauni*, and *Cassii* or *Cattii*, inhabited Bucks, Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire. The *Trinobantes* (*Trinovantes*, or *Trinoantes*) inhabited Middlesex and Essex. (Camden.)—P.

^f Between the kingdoms of Essex and Mercia. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

occupied the site of Cheshunt, and *Cæsaromagus*, that of Braughlin.

St. Albans and Hertford are the only boroughs in the county, and the former is as populous as the latter. It is also distinguished by its abbey church, a very large edifice, formerly the church of a celebrated abbey, founded by Offa king of the Mercians, in honour of St. Alban, the protomartyr of England; and it is certain that the abbots rose to the dignity of taking precedence of all others in the kingdom. When the monasteries were abolished by king Henry the Eighth, the abbey church of St. Albans was offered to the inhabitants by Edward the Sixth for £400. The offer was accepted and the church was preserved. But besides the abbey church, there are two others of great antiquity, those of St. Michael and St. Peter; in the former has been placed the monument of the great Bacon, who with his mother was interred within its walls. The remains of the ancient town of Verulam,^a one of the most important places in England during the Roman period, are situated in the immediate neighbourhood of St. Albans, and many relics of that celebrated people have been found under its ruins.

St. Albans was the scene of two battles during the bloody wars between the roses. The first combat between the parties was fought near the town in 1455, and terminated in favour of the Yorkists. In that engagement king Henry the Sixth was taken prisoner, while the brave Clifford and the great earl of Somerset were slain. In the second battle in 1461, queen Margaret at the head of the Lancastrians obtained a decisive victory. A bloody battle was fought during the same wars on the field of Barnet, between St. Albans and London. Gladmore heath was also the scene of a memorable engagement between the Yorkists under Edward the Fourth, and the Lancastrians under the king-making earl of Warwick, in which the latter lost his life. The action is recorded by a monument raised on the spot, where the roads to St. Albans and Hatfield divide.

The boundaries of the county are nowhere marked by nature, except where the Lea and the Stort separate it from Essex. It is contiguous on the north to Bedfordshire and Cambridgeshire, on the east to Essex, on the south to Middlesex, and on the west to Bedfordshire and Buckinghamshire, with which it is much intermixed. It contains 337,920 acres, of which three-fourths are in tillage, and the rest in pasturage. The northern part of the county is hilly, forming a portion of the chalky ridge which extends across England. The soil throughout is nowhere very rich, but it is made productive by the chalk and lime that are dug and burnt, and by the soot, ashes, bones and other substances that are transported from the metropolis. It is thus rendered very favourable to wheat and barley, the principal agricultural products of the county. The town of Ware in particular sends more malt to London than any other place in the kingdom, but it must not be imagined that it is all the produce of Hertfordshire, part of it is undoubtedly obtained from the adjoining counties. The manufactories are too insignificant to require notice.

Of the eminent persons that Hertfordshire has pro-

duced, not more than two shall be named. The celebrated traveller, Sir John Mandeville, a native of St. Albans, was as remarkable for his credulity as for his enterprise and research. Nicholas Brekespere is better known by the title of Adrian the Fourth; he too was a native of St. Albans,^b and the only Englishman that ever rose to the papal chair. One of his acts is connected with English history, for he issued the celebrated bull, which gave the sanction of the church to the conquest of Ireland by Henry the Second.

The maritime county of Essex is bounded on the north by Suffolk and Cambridgeshire, from the first of which it is separated by the Stour, on the west by the counties of Hertfordshire and Middlesex, from the last of which it is separated by the Lea, on the south by the Thames, which divides it from Kent, and on the east by the ocean. It has been remarked in the account of the coasts that the maritime side is broken and indented. The area of the county is supposed to be equal to 1525 square miles; it is divided into twenty parts, of which fourteen are hundreds, five half hundreds and one a royal liberty. The soil and the face of the country are sufficiently varied. The south-western portion is occupied by Epping Forest, which is covered with rich pasturage, not with trees as its name imports. The same part of the county, watered by the Roddon, that runs parallel to the Lea, yields the best butter that is sold in London. Northwards the country becomes less uniform and level; Saffron-Walden, in this part of Essex, indicates by its name the product for which it is famous. Saffron, which was at one time cultivated in many parts of England, is now almost confined to the country between the last place and Cambridge.

A threefold crop of coriander, carraway and teasel may be mentioned as a singular product of Essex. The two first are cultivated on account of their aromatic seeds, and the last is used in the manufactories of woollen cloth. They are all sown together, but they come to maturity at different periods, and the succession of the whole lasts three or four years.^c

Potatoes are grown in greater quantities in Essex than in any other southern county; but they are mostly cultivated in the south-western portion between the Lea and the Thames, for the purpose of supplying the London market.

The central portion of Essex is in general a fine corn country, varied with hills and adorned with woods. It becomes gradually marshy towards the sea-coast; some parts are exposed to frequent inundations, while others are formed into islands by inlets of the sea. The northern part of the coast is more elevated and more healthy, but the proverbial insalubrity of the Hundreds of Essex,^d is not compensated by their fine pastures, and the same may be said of the marshy tracts along the Thames from the junction of the Lea to the mouth of the river, for they are equally unhealthy.

Essex is but scantily supplied with minerals; the most important are the lime and chalk quarries in the neighbourhood of Purfleet, on the north of the Thames, where they extend across the river from the county of Kent.

^a The *Verolanium* of the Romans.—P.

^b He was born at Abbot's Langley, three miles S. W. of St. Albans.—P.

^c Aikin.

^d The hundreds in Essex, situated near the Lea and the Thames, are emphatically styled the *Hundreds of Essex*. (Ed. Enc.)—The Hundreds of Essex are situated along the southern coast of the county (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

The principal manufactures are those of cloths, baize and woollen stuffs. Calico-print-works have been erected in the neighbourhood of the metropolis, and there are several mills for making sheet lead on the banks of the Lea. Not fewer than two hundred vessels from eight to fifty tons are employed in the oyster fisheries in Essex, and it is calculated that 20,000 bushels are annually sent to the metropolis, or exported to the continent.

Chelmsford claims the rank of capital, but it contains little worthy of notice. Situated at the confluence of the Chelmer and the Cann, the population is little more than five thousand inhabitants. If a great part of the business of the county is transacted at Chelmsford, it may be attributed not so much to the circumstance of its being the chief town, as to its convenient and central position. The most remarkable buildings are a spacious county hall, and a large prison constructed according to the improved plans of the celebrated Howard.

The ancient town of Colchester, much more important than the last, formerly the Roman colony of *Camalodunum*, is situated on the banks of the Colne, in the north-eastern part of the county. It was an important place in the early period of English history, and its venerable castle is supposed to have been built by Edward, the son of Alfred the Great. At the time of the persecutions in the Low Countries under the Duke of Alva, a number of refugees settled in Colchester, and introduced the manufacture of baize, which succeeded so well that the town became not long afterwards the most wealthy and populous in Essex. Although this branch of industry has been abandoned, Colchester may still be considered one of the few important towns in the county. The walls of its old castle are nearly entire, and some notion may be inferred of its ancient strength from their solidity and extent. The same place sustained an obstinate siege during the civil wars, but it was at last forced to surrender to the parliamentary forces under Fairfax, and it may be added that the two commanders of the besieged, Sir Charles Lucas and Sir George Lisle, were shot under the castle wall, for no other cause apparently, than their courage in defending the town. Colchester may also be remarked for its commodious work-house, its large hospital, and for several charity schools and other benevolent institutions. It has long been famous for its oysters; those that are known by the name of Pyefleet, are sold for the highest prices in the London markets.

The position of Harwich, the principal port on the Essex coast, has been already indicated. The harbour, independently of the bay, is not only safe, but very large and commodious. The post-office packets sail and return regularly twice a-week to and from Holland and Germany. More than 5000 tons of shipping, navigated by 500 men, are employed in the North Sea fishery, and other vessels are engaged in the London and coasting trade. Harwich possesses also a yard for the Royal Navy, at which ships of inferior rates are built and repaired.

Coggeshall on the Blackwater, Braintree to the west of it, and Bocking on the north of the last place, were formerly in great repute for their woollen manufactures, the raw material of which was principally supplied from

Lincolnshire. The goods were exported to Spain, Portugal and Italy through the intervention of London merchants; of late years, however, the trade has been diverted into a different channel; it has been transferred to the northern towns. Some other places may be briefly mentioned. It was at Ashburn near Rochford that King Edward Ironside was defeated with great slaughter by Canute, King of Denmark, in 1016. Danbury attests by its name the presence of the Danes; it is built on the highest eminence in Essex. Borking was once the seat of a Benedictine nunnery, of which the abbess was one of the four who were baronesses in right of their station; she lived in great splendour, and had several officers in her household. Tilbury Fort, on the Essex shore, opposite to Gravesend, is the principal defence of the passage up the Thames. It is a regular fortification, mounted with a great many cannon, and well manned in time of war; its principal strength, however, on the land side, consists in the practicability of laying the whole level under water. Purfleet, on the same bank of the river, deserves notice as the great depot of gun-powder for government. A very large magazine erected for the purpose, has been secured by every contrivance against fire and lightning.

The Stour separates the county of Essex from that of Suffolk; the other boundaries of the last county are Norfolk on the north, Cambridgeshire on the west, and the German Ocean on the east. The Waveney and the Little Ouse form the northern limit, and the Stour almost the whole of the southern. The Larkc and another small stream bound it on the north-west, but the greater part of its western limit is not marked by nature. The county is equal in superficies to 1566 square miles; it has been subdivided into twenty-one hundreds.^a

The soil is generally level, but of different qualities; it may be included, however, under three varieties. The coast and the inland districts near it, are for the most part sandy; they consist of arable land, heaths and marshes. The first is fruitful in barley and different sorts of grain; the second are well adapted for sheep, and numerous herds of oxen are reared in the marshes. The inland part from south to north, or the larger portion of Suffolk, is covered with a rich clayey or rather sandy loam, resting on a retentive clay marl bottom. It is very fertile in corn and other plants, and much butter, milk and cheese are obtained from it. The butter is exported in great quantities to London and different parts of England; the Suffolk cheese is said to be the worst in the kingdom, but it is principally owing to the manner in which it is made. The north-western portion is an open, sandy country, forming part of the extensive heath-tracts in this part of England; it is mostly laid out in rabbit-warrens and sheep-walks. Besides the ordinary crops which are raised in Suffolk, turnips, mangel-wurzel and cabbages are in many places as common as in Norfolk.

Some of the domestic animals differ from those in the counties that have been mentioned. The Suffolk draught horse, it has been seen, is middle-sized, short-made and capable of great exertion, but of late years comparatively light active horses, and almost as large as the blacks in the midland counties, have become common. All the

^a Suffolk is divided into two grand divisions, viz. the franchise or liberty of Bury St. Edmunds, and the Guildable land, or body of the county, each of which furnishes a distinct grand-jury for the county

assizes. These are subdivided into 21 hundreds. (Shoberl's Suffolk Ed. Enc.) P.

cows are of the polled kind, and they are inferior to none in England for the abundance of their milk, in proportion to their size. The Suffolk sheep differed little from those of Norfolk, but they are now rare; they have been succeeded by the South Down.

If shell-marl be excepted, by which the soil has in many places been much improved, the other fossils are not very valuable.

Suffolk was once as much distinguished for its manufacturing, as it is now for its agricultural industry. Sudbury was formerly peopled by a colony of Flemings, who were invited by Edward the Third to instruct the English in the art of manufacturing wool. This circumstance accounts for the former populousness and wealth of the town. It continued to flourish during several centuries, and many of the inhabitants were employed in manufacturing different sorts of woollen stuffs. Although it is long since its ancient trade has fallen into decay, Sudbury still exports serges, and possesses an extensive silk manufactory. An additional impulse has been given to the industry of the place since the Stour has been made navigable for barges to Manningtree.

Ipswich, the county town, has also lost much of its ancient splendour; it is situated on the Orwell; it contained at one time not fewer than twenty-one parish churches and other religious houses, in particular, a monastery of Dominican friars, of which the cloisters are still entire. Once noted for its broad cloths, and for the best sail-cloth in England, it had several companies of traders, possessing distinct charters, and according to the unwise policy of former times, exclusive privileges. But the woollen trade began to decline during the latter part of the seventeenth century, and was gradually transferred to a different part of England. The commerce of Ipswich consists at present in malting and exporting corn; it is not without some foreign and coasting trade, but both are inconsiderable. There are two yards for building ships, and vessels of five hundred tons have been constructed in them. Packets sail every tide from Ipswich to Harwich. The famous cardinal Wolsey, a native of Ipswich, endowed a college and grammar school, as a place of education preparatory for his college at Oxford; but his disgrace, before the building was completed, put an end to his benevolent intentions. The same town was the seat of a mint during the heptarchy, and it received a charter during the reign of king John. It still possesses many rights and privileges, among others, an admiralty jurisdiction on the Suffolk coast, and on that of Essex to the neighbourhood of Harwich.^a

Bury St. Edmunds, situated on the Larke, need not be mentioned for what it now is, but for what it was at a former period. Edmund, king of the East Angles, in the latter part of the ninth century, was cruelly murdered

^a The admiralty jurisdiction of Ipswich extends to the coast of Essex beyond Harwich, and to that of Suffolk beyond Landguard Fort, including the estuaries of the Stour and the Orwell.—P.

^b This conduit, from which Cambridge derives so much advantage, was built and given to the town by a very worthy man, Mr. Tobias Hobson, a carrier between Cambridge and London, and the first person who let out horses to the students of the university. Observing that the scholars rode hard, he kept a large stable of horses, with boots, whips and spurs, that the young gentlemen might be speedily equipped. If a person came for a horse, he was led into the stable, where there was a great choice, but he was obliged to take the horse nearest the stable door, in order that "every customer might be served according to his chance, and every horse ridden with equal justice." Hence the proverbial expression, "Hobson's choice," "This or none." A short

by the Danes, and received after his death, the honours of martyrdom: his body having lain unnoted during thirty-three years, became suddenly an object of great veneration, and shortly afterwards an abbey was erected on the spot. Other religious edifices were built at different periods, and at the time of the Reformation, Bury possessed forty churches and chapels, most of them richly endowed. It has at present several charitable institutions; it is still the seat of the county assizes, and if the absence of trade and industry can entitle a town to such a privilege, it is likely to preserve it.

The greater part of Newmarket is situated in Suffolk, but the whole of the race-course lies in the county of Cambridge; perhaps on that account, the claims of the latter county have been preferred, and Newmarket is generally included in the towns of Cambridgeshire. It has been long famous for its horse-races, which take place in April, July and October. The passion of James the First for racing appears to have first rendered it fashionable, and it is well known that he sent for some Cambridge divines, to hold a conference with him at Newmarket. Charles the Second, also a patron of the turf, built a house in the same place, which is still a royal residence. The town consists chiefly of a long and well built street, and the fleetest horses in England are kept in the neighbourhood, and trained for the course.

The ancient Granta or the modern Cam waters the chief town in the county, the *Camboritum* of the Romans, which derives its modern name of Cambridge, from a bridge over the river. The gate-house of a castle built by William the Conqueror, has been converted into a county gaol. The town was destroyed in the reign of William Rufus, and often laid waste during the baronial wars by outlaws from the Isle of Ely, before Henry the Third secured it by a deep ditch. The followers of Wat Tyler and Jack Straw were not idle in Cambridge; having seized the records of the university, they burnt them in the market-place. It is about twice as long as it is broad, and it is not more than a mile in length; old and clumsy houses, and narrow and irregular streets, attest its antiquity. The market-place is formed by two squares, and in that part of it opposite the county hall, is situated Hobson's conduit, which furnishes the inhabitants with a plentiful supply of excellent water.^b

According to an old observation, Oxford is an university in a town, and Cambridge, a town in an university; it is literally true that the buildings of the university encircle the town of Cambridge. The police is jointly governed by the corporation and the university, the vice-chancellor being always a magistrate by virtue of his office. Nay more, the proctors not only attend to the discipline and behaviour of all the under masters of arts, but are also clerks of the market, and have cognizance

account of this extraordinary person appeared in the Spectator, No. 509. The lines on the death of Mr. Hobson, by Milton,* are perhaps the most ordinary of the great poet's productions; unlike his other juvenile performances, they contain few indications of rising genius. Their mediocrity is reluctantly admitted by Dr. Newton, the learned editor of Milton.

* There are two short poems by Milton on the death of Hobson (On the University Carrier, Nos. xi. xii. Occasional Poems.) The criticism above is rather unnecessarily severe, since they can only be considered *jeux d'esprit*, in the taste of the age; not very lively, it is true, but well worthy, for their pun-gency, of a place in Hood's Comic Annual.—

c. g. He died for heaviness that his cart went light—
Yet (strange to think) his wain was his increase.—P.

over weights and measures. It is certain, too, that without this source of prosperity, Cambridge might fall into decay; it is not a manufacturing town, nor is it distinguished in any branch of industry.

The university, it is said, was first founded in the year 630, by Sigibert, king of the East-Angles; but the colleges were not built before the reign of Henry the Third, and as a corporate body, it dates its first charter from the time of Elizabeth. The privilege of sending two members to parliament, conferred on it by James the First, has since been preserved. The senate-house, an imposing edifice, is built of Portland stone, and adorned with pilasters, supporting an entablature. In the same building, the election of all officers takes place, the appointment of magistrates, the admission to degrees, and every important business connected with the university. St. Peter's College claims the distinction of being the most ancient; founded in 1284 by Hugh de Balsliam, bishop of Ely, it is nowise remarkable for its architecture. Clare Hall^a was founded by Richard Badew or Badow in 1326; having been destroyed by fire, it was afterwards rebuilt by Lady Clare. Among the illustrious men educated in this college, were archbishop Tillotson and Cudworth, the author of the Intellectual System of Philosophy. Pembroke Hall was founded in 1363 by the "virgin-wife" of Andomer de Valentia, the unfortunate earl of Pembroke, who was killed in a tilting match on his wedding-day. The chapel built by bishop Wren from a design of his brother Sir Christopher, is one of the finest in Cambridge.^b Corpus Christi College, founded by two societies or guilds, the one called Corpus Christi, and the other the Virgin Mary, was begun in 1344, and completed by Henry duke of Lancaster in 1356. Archbishop Parker enriched it by the addition of fellowships and scholarships, and also by a collection of books and manuscripts. The manuscripts, relative to the ecclesiastical history of England, are considered of great value. Caius College was originally founded by Edward Gonville, rector of Terrington in Norfolk, and afterwards endowed by Dr. Caius, physician to Queen Mary.^c It consists of three courts and as many gates, those of Humility, Virtue and Honour. In the chapel is the tomb of Dr. Caius, and from the epitaph, of which the Doctor himself was the author, it is evident that he formed very high notions of his own merit, a delusion to which the secluded life of a college is by no means unfavourable.^d It is undeniable, however, that several truly great men are ranked in the number of its students; among the divines are the names of Jeremy Taylor and Samuel Clarke; among the physicians, none is more eminent than William Harvey, the great discoverer of the circulation of the blood. King's College, founded by Henry the Sixth, has enabled Cambridge to vie in architectural grandeur with Oxford, and it is very doubtful that King's College chapel has any rival in the sister university. If the intention of the royal founder had been carried into effect, the college might have been one of the most magnificent buildings in the kingdom; but he was prevented from accomplishing his purpose, by

the calamities and misfortunes of his reign. A range of buildings, in the Roman style, was erected to form the side of a quadrangle, which should be afterwards continued, and the whole was recently remodelled and completed. The dimensions of the quadrangle, much inferior to those of the original plan, are 280 feet in length by 270 in breadth. The chapel was begun by the same king; Henry the Seventh completed the outside, and Henry the Eighth, the stalls, relievos and painted windows. It combines extent and solidity with grace, and it is not less admirable for the minuteness of its details. Sir Christopher Wren, it is well known, was in the habit of visiting it every year, and that great man considered it the finest specimen of Gothic architecture in England. Catharine Hall was founded in 1475, by Robert Woodlark, chancellor of the university, and in the chapel belonging to the college are some memorable sepulchral monuments. Jesus College was originally a convent of nuns, established about the beginning of Henry the First's reign, or the end of king Stephen's. Adjoining lands were assigned to it about the year 1160 by Malcolm the Fourth, king of Scotland, and earl of Huntingdon and Cambridge. The monastery was at last dissolved by Henry the Seventh and pope Alexander the Fourth, on account of the illicit conduct of the nuns. The possessions were made over to John Alcock, bishop of Ely, and preceptor to Edward the Fifth, for the maintenance of a master, six fellows and six scholars, but the number has since been increased in consequence of succeeding endowments. Jesus College is not remarkable for its architecture, but it was the place where Crammer and Bancroft, Hartley, Jortin and Flamstead were educated. Christ's College was first built on the site of an hostel called God's-house, by William Bingham, rector of St. John's, London. It was removed to its present site by Henry the Sixth, who intended to increase the number of scholars to sixty, but was prevented from doing so by the ensuing civil wars. His maternal sister, Margaret, countess of Richmond, and mother to Henry the Seventh,^e completed the building, and endowed the college for a master and twelve fellows. Some superstitious objections having been urged against this number, as containing an allusion to our Saviour and his twelve apostles, a thirteenth fellowship was added by Edward the Sixth, and two others by different individuals at a subsequent period. Christ's College boasts of having educated Milton, but from its treatment of that great man, it seems to have been unworthy of the honour. There is still in the gardens a decayed but venerable mulberry tree, which was planted by the poet when a student. St. John's College was also founded by the mother of Henry the Seventh, at the request of her confessor Fisher, bishop of Rochester. It reckons Cecil, the minister of Queen Elizabeth, Ben Jonson, Otway, Prior, Ambrose Philips and John Horne Tooke among the number of its students. Trinity College, founded by Henry the Eighth, is the largest, and in some respects the finest, in the university. It consists of three quadrangles, and is entered by two magnificent portals, adorned

^a Halls and colleges are synonymous at Cambridge.

^b Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopaedia, volume first.

^c Gonville and Caius College, originally founded in 1348 by Edmund Gonville—enlarged in 1557 by Dr. John Caius, who procured a charter of incorporation under its present name.—P.

^d Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopaedia, volume first.

^e The countess of Richmond was interred in Henry the Seventh's chapel at Westminster, where an altar tomb, with a statue of brass, was erected to her memory. Around the monument is a Latin inscription written by Erasmus, for which he received *twenty shillings* from the university of Cambridge.

with statues and lofty towers. In the chapel is Roubiliac's marble statue of the great Newton, and underneath it the following inscription from the third book of Lucretius—"Qui genus humanum ingenio superavit." Emanuel College, an extensive and elegant building, was founded in 1548 by Sir Walter Mildmay, a privy counsellor to queen Elizabeth. Sidney-Sussex College, originally a monastery of Franciscans, was granted at the Reformation by Henry the Eighth, to the master and fellows of Trinity, but it was purchased from them, and endowed as a separate institution by Frances Sidney, countess of Sussex. It reckons Oliver Cromwell among the number of its students, and it may be added that a plaster impression, taken of the protector's face after death, was sent into Italy, and a bust made from it by the celebrated Bernini; the same bust has lately been placed in the library. Queen's College, founded in 1448 by Margaret of Anjou, the intrepid consort of Henry the Sixth, is the one in which Erasmus was professor of divinity. There are besides two other colleges, those of Downing and Trinity Hall; the foundation-stone of the former was laid with much solemnity in 1807; the latter was a hostel for the entertainment of students before any colleges were erected. Thus it appears that there are not fewer than seventeen colleges in Cambridge.^a As an university, it enjoys a higher reputation in the exact sciences than Oxford; and although a long period has elapsed since the time of its great luminary, the advantage may still be attributed to the impulse communicated to these sciences by the genius of Newton.

The town of Ely in the isle of the same name, may be remarked on account of its cathedral, a very large edifice, which affords a striking object to an extensive surrounding country. The revenues of the sea are considerable, and the bishop possesses the rights of a palatine,^b and exercises temporal jurisdiction in the isle. The town is the only episcopal city in England, that is not represented.

The county of Cambridge was in ancient times inhabited by the *Iceni*, and afterwards included in the third province, or that of *Flavia Cesariensis*. It contains about 858 square miles, and the Ouse divides it into two parts. The northern, in which the Isle of Ely is situated, forms an immense plain, broken on the south by some comparatively high hills; on the north, however, the elevations are very inconsiderable, being merely sufficient to raise the villages that have been built on them, above the general level. The whole tract, naturally a marsh, is still in rainy seasons subject to inundations by the rivers, which move slowly through it to the sea. It has been rendered habitable by means of great labour; unnumbered drains are cut through it in various directions, and the water, raised in many places by windmills, is thus pumped from the ditches, which everywhere intersect the low grounds, and which are confined by banks on a higher level than that of the surrounding country. The most remarkable of these works are the Old and New Bedford rivers, so called from the noble family that has given its name to the whole tract,^c which they were so instrumental in improving. These rivers which enclose the Isle of Ely, branch from the Ouse at Earith in Huntingdonshire, and communicate again with

the same river at Denver-sluiice near Downham in Norfolk. The Nen, which waters the north-western part of the county, is also conveyed through an artificial channel. The county is varied by bleak moors, luxuriant meadows and in some places by cultivated fields. In the lower tracts oats is almost the only sort of grain; in the higher, wheat and barley are raised. The drier spots are marked by villages and groups of trees. Coleseed, a common crop in this part of Cambridgeshire and in all the low counties, is valuable as winter feeding for sheep, and also on account of its seed, from which oil is extracted.

The south-western part of Cambridgeshire is a very different country; it is fruitful in corn, particularly in barley, which is malted and exported in great quantities. The south-eastern portion, extending from the Gogmagog Hills to Newmarket, is connected with the vast tract which stretches southwards into Essex, and northwards into Norfolk, and forms one of the largest plains in England. The soil is poor and in many places covered with gravel; saffron is cultivated in some places, and in others scanty crops of barley are raised, but sheep-walks cover the greater portion of the surface. Cherry-Hinton, at the foot of the Gogmagog Hills, is noted for its large chalk-pits, for the marine productions contained in them, and for many rare plants that grow in the neighbourhood.

Washed on the north and the east by the German Ocean, the county of Norfolk is bounded on the south and south-east by Suffolk, and on the west by part of Lincolnshire and Cambridgeshire. Presenting an almost regular curve to the sea, and a convex line somewhat indented to the land, its figure resembles an ellipsis, of which the shorter axis may be about forty-eight miles from north to south, and the other about seventy from east to west. According to the statistical returns, it contains 1,094,480 acres, and of these not fewer than 730,000 are arable. It has been divided into thirty-three hundreds, and these are again subdivided into many parishes, in all 756, a greater number than in any other county in England.

The inland limits are marked by rivers. The Great Ouse forms part of the south-western side, and falls into the sea below Lynn. The Nen, part of the western limit, communicates by several channels with the Ouse, and empties itself into the Lincoln Wash. The Little Ouse rising from a marsh on the southern part of the county, divides Norfolk and Suffolk, flows westwards, and joins the Great Ouse. The source of the Waveney is only separated by a causeway from that of the Little Ouse; it forms the remaining portion of the Suffolk boundary, and falls into the Yare, a short way above Yarmouth. These and other rivers mostly rising in marshy lands, and proceeding slowly through a level country, diffuse themselves over the lower tracts, forming large pools, to which the country people have given the name of *broads*. They are stocked with fish and different sorts of wild-fowl, and the rivers have at least one advantage, they may be easily rendered navigable or converted into canals.

Norfolk has long been distinguished as an agricultural county; cultivation has been extended and improved,

^a Thirteen colleges and four halls.—P.

^b Lord of a county palatine.—P.

^c The Bedford Level.

and, on the whole, the various implements of husbandry are superior to those in many parts of England. The face of the country is more uniform than in other tracts of an equal extent. It cannot be said to be wholly level, for it is broken by gentle inequalities, but there is not a single hill in the county. The low and marshy grounds in Cambridgeshire and Lincolnshire extend from the western extremity of Norfolk to Lynn. On the east, a narrow and humid tract runs from Yarmouth to a considerable distance up the country. Other marshes, less extensive than the former, are situated in the northern part of Norfolk. A considerable tract on the west, from Thetford northwards, consists of open heaths. The other parts are in a state of cultivation, but the soil varies in different districts. In the north-eastern it is composed of a light sandy loam, easily cultivated, and by no means unfruitful; on the south-east the land is deep or humid, and the central and southern districts are covered in many places with a rich clay. The agricultural products depend on the situation and the nature of the soil. The light and sandy districts are fruitful in barley; wheat, on the other hand, thrives best on the strong clayey lands. Norfolk is also noted for its turnips; they are more generally cultivated in the county than in any other part of the kingdom. The field cultivation of turnips dates from the reign of George the First; before that period they were confined to gardens, and merely used as a culinary plant. Lord Townshend, who accompanied the same king to Hanover, as secretary of state, having observed whole fields of turnips in the electorate, brought home some seeds, and recommended them to his tenants in Norfolk. The experiment succeeded beyond expectation; turnips became a common crop, and were afterwards gradually extended to every part of the country. It is not the least advantage of this culture, that the ground never lies fallow, or in other words, the turnips prepare it for corn. The same root is principally used by the farmers for feeding cattle, and numerous herds of oxen, bred in Scotland, are fattened in Norfolk. Thus, there is a weekly market for Scotch cattle at Norwich, and one every fortnight at Setch.^a

Buck-wheat, an ordinary crop on the light soils, is used for feeding poultry, or fattening pigs. A great quantity of butter is exported from the fenny districts, and sold in London under the name of Cambridge butter. The sheep are much valued on account of their mutton, and their wool serves to supply the manufactories of coarser cloth in Yorkshire. The poultry is supposed to be the best in England, and the rearing of turkeys is an object of profit to the small farmers, and a considerable trade is thus carried on with the metropolis. The same county abounds in game, in hares, partridges and pheasants; the latter are so numerous that the crops in many places are injured by them. According to a calculation, which is believed to be correct, the value of the different sorts of grain, and of the flour and malt, exported annually from Norfolk, amounts to more than £900,000. The wool and the provisions that are exported, including merely the profit arising from feeding Scotch cattle, are estimated at £250,000. No better proof need be adduced of the industry and good husbandry of the inhabitants.

^a Sechy, or Seeching—4 miles S. of King's Lynn. (Luckombe.)—P.

Although the ancient city of Norwich was not founded by the Romans, it is by no means unlikely that it owes its origin to that celebrated people. When the camp at Castor, the famous *Venta Icenorum*, was no longer used, the rude beginning of a town became visible on the road which leads from it to the present city. The one increased as the other fell into decay, and Norwich was in all probability a place of some importance, when the first authentic mention was made of it in the Saxon Chronicle, in consequence of its having been laid in ruins by Sweno the Dane, in the year 1004. Some notion of its populousness at a later period, may be inferred from the ravages which the plague made among the inhabitants. It is said that 58,000 persons were carried off by that disease in the year 1348. Although some allowance ought to be made for exaggeration, still the exaggeration cannot be supposed to have been greater with respect to Norwich than to other towns, which suffered from the same calamity. The same city, it is undeniable, bears many traces of antiquity, and although adorned with numerous public buildings, the streets are narrow, ill arranged and ill paved. The cathedral was founded by Herbert de Losinga in 1096, after he had removed with his monks from Thetford to the neighbourhood of Norwich. The general style of the building is Norman, characterised by semicircular arches and short columns; it is likely, however, that it has since been much altered or improved. The number of parish churches in Norwich is greater than that in any other town in England, with the exception of the metropolis. At one period there were not fewer than fifty, but they have been since reduced to thirty-six. The finest are those of St. Peter, St. Stephen and St. Andrew, but the small church of St. Julian is considered the most ancient. It appears as if the number of dissenting chapels and meeting-houses corresponded with that of the churches; both are out of all proportion to the size of the city, or the number of inhabitants. The other public buildings are the ancient castle, the town and guild halls, the theatre, the new corn-exchange, and the hospital or infirmary.

It is as a manufacturing town, and as a place of commerce and industry, that Norwich is chiefly celebrated. The woollen manufacture was first introduced in the reign of Henry the First at a place called Worsted, from which the name of the article was afterwards derived. In the latter part of the fourteenth century, other Flemings, driven from their country by oppressive enactments, settled in Norwich, and laid the foundations of its trade. About two hundred years afterwards, it received an accession of most useful hands, by the arrival of many Hollanders and Walloons, who fled from the sanguinary Duke of Alva. But even before the settlement of the last colony, Norwich had become an important town. According to Blomefield, in the time of Henry the Eighth, the annual sale of stuffs made in the city only, amounted in value to £200,000, exclusively of stockings, which were estimated at £60,000. From an act passed in the fourteenth year of the same reign, it appears that the making of worsteds and stammins, which had greatly increased in the city of Norwich, and county of Norfolk, was now more diligently practised in Yarmouth and Lynn. The wardens of these towns were therefore made subject to the jurisdiction of Norwich. New manufactures were introduced in the reigns

of Edward the Sixth and Mary, and regulations were passed for the making of satins, satins-reverses, Naples-fustians and other articles. The prudent and politic Elizabeth, by the advice of the duke of Norfolk, offered an asylum and protection to the persecuted inhabitants of the Low Countries. These colonists, it has been already stated, formed a great accession to the industry of Norwich; they afforded too an example of the folly of interfering with religious scruples, and the wisdom of an enlightened toleration. New fabrications were made from the intermixture of silk, mohair and wool; new names were also introduced for them, and bayes, sayes, arras and mochades were then first exposed in the English markets. In the year 1575, the Dutch elders presented in court a specimen of a new article called bombazine; such is the earliest date of a manufacture, for which Norwich has since been distinguished above other cities in England. It may be right to add that exclusive privileges were unwisely conferred on the Flemings and the other foreign settlers, and that their descendants enjoy some of them at the present day. The trade of the town was further extended in consequence of a liberal enactment of George the Second. It was determined to open the port of Yarmouth for the importation of wool and woollen yarn. The advantage, however, was insufficient to enable it at a later period to compete with Manchester. The cottons of the latter town, from the cheapness and rapidity with which they are manufactured by the admirable inventions of Arkwright and other ingenious men, proved destructive to the home trade of Norwich. Extraordinary efforts were made by the industrious inhabitants, and new outlets were created for their products. Foreign connexions were improved and extended, the taste of every climate was consulted, and Norwich goods found many purchasers in the great annual fairs of Frankfort and Leipsic. To supply the demand thus occasioned, the distaff and the loom were continually plied in Norfolk and Suffolk; it was calculated that in the former county fifty thousand tods of wool were annually spun; the quantity, however great, proved insufficient, and yarn was imported from Scotland and Ireland. It appears from a computation which has been published, that the yarn then imported every year from Ireland to Norwich was greater than the quantity imported about fifty years before that period into the whole kingdom.^a The trade, however, fell a second time into decay; its connexions were abridged, and its foreign outlets were shut, in consequence of the long and destructive war that followed the French revolution. Norwich has not recovered its ancient prosperity, but it is still a populous and industrious town. It is situated on the Yare, over which six bridges have been erected. The Wensum, which falls into it in the neighbourhood, has lately been enlarged so as to make Norwich a port.^b

Yarmouth, although formerly much more flourishing than at present, is still a place of importance as a harbour and fishing town. Situated on a peninsula at the eastern extremity of the county, it possesses by means

of rivers all the export and import trade of Norwich and other places on the same side of Norfolk and Suffolk. It carries on a foreign trade with the Baltic, Holland, Portugal and the Mediterranean; it sends likewise several vessels to the Greenland fisheries. The home fishing is carried on at two seasons; that for mackerel in May and June, and the other for herrings in October and November. The latter is the more important; not fewer than 70,000 barrels of herrings are often taken and cured in the course of the season. The town was formerly enclosed with walls, and the plan, according to which it is laid out, renders it probable that it was the object of the architect to contain as many persons as possible in a given space. Thus, the streets run from north to south, and are joined by nearly two hundred lanes.^c Yarmouth consists only of a single parish; it is encompassed on the east and the south by the sea, on the north by the main land, and on the west by the Yare, over which a handsome drawbridge, that has lately been erected, unites it with Suffolk.

King's Lynn or Lynn-Regis, at the other extremity of Norfolk, is also a great commercial outlet; it carries on by means of its inland communications, a considerable trade with the neighbouring counties, and supplies them with wines, coal and other articles. These advantages it possesses from its situation at the mouth of the Ouse; but it is likewise watered by four rivulets, over which eleven small bridges have been erected. A custom well deserving praise has been long established in the town; it is usual to hold every month a feast of reconciliation, or in other words, a meeting of the mayor, magistrates and clergymen, who for the purpose of preventing law-suits, hear and determine the disputes that arise between the inhabitants.

The parsonage house of Burnham-Thorpe, a very simple building, may be mentioned as the birth-place of Nelson, the greatest and the bravest admiral of his age. The unfortunate Ann Boleyn, one of the celebrated victims of Henry the Eighth, and the mother of Queen Elizabeth, was born in the old mansion-house of Blickling Hall.

The large maritime county of Lincoln, the third in point of size in England, is bounded on the east by the German Ocean and the Wash, which separates it from Norfolk, on the north by Yorkshire, from which it is separated by the Humber, on the west by the last county and those of Nottingham and Leicester, on the south by those of Northampton, Rutland and Leicester.

It was included in the province of *Britannia Prima* by the Romans, and before the period of their invasion, it was inhabited by the *Coritani*. It was called *Lincollnscyre*^d by the Saxons, and *Nicolshire* by the Normans. The Anglo-Saxons united it first to the kingdom of Mercia, and afterwards to Wessex. The whole county was divided after the conquest among the followers of William.

The area of Lincolnshire is stated to be 1,758,720 acres or 2748 square miles, and the number of inhabitants to each square mile, not more than ninety. The

^a Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopaedia, volume first.

^b Norwich is situated on the Wensum, a little above its confluence with the Yare. (Some accounts erroneously represent Norwich as situated on the Yare. Ed. Enc.) The Wensum, which is navigable for barges, divides Norwich into two unequal parts, the southern the largest.—P

^c It has four principal streets running from N. to S. and 156 narrow lanes or rows intersecting them in the opposite direction. (Luckombe.)—P.

^d *Lincollnscyre*. (Camden.)—P.

discriminating features of the county are strongly marked by nature, and although many parts are now very fruitful, they have only been rendered so by the gradual labour of centuries. Originally covered with fens and marshes, it is now fertile; it abounds in flocks and cattle, but it is destitute of beauty, humid and unhealthy. The heaths on the north and south of Lincoln, the only heights that can be observed, are calcareous hills, commanding an extensive view of the low lying plains.

The whole county has been divided into three districts, those of Holland, Kesteven and Lindsey. The first, by no means unlike the country from which it derives its name, occupies the south-eastern portion of the county, from the neighbourhood of Wainfleet to the shallow inlet of the Wash. It consists of two divisions, Upper and Lower Holland, both abounding in marshes, some still in a state of nature, others intersected by numerous drains or canals, and crossed by raised causeways. The lower or the southern district is the most humid; indeed it is only protected against constant inundations by vast banks raised along the rivers and the coasts. The air is damp and unwholesome, the water, brackish or unfit for domestic purposes, and the inhabitants are therefore provided with cisterns for rain water. Industry, however, has triumphed over every obstacle, and has diffused comfort and wealth; the richest pastures in the kingdom have been formed out of swamps and marshes; nay more, they have been converted into arable lands, and crowned with luxuriant harvests. Much still remains to be done, but some notion may be inferred of what has been accomplished from the fact, that within a period of thirty years, from 1780 to 1810, 100,000 acres in Lincolnshire have been drained, restored to agriculture, and let on an average at a rental exceeding fifty shillings an acre.^a The aquatic fowls that frequent the fens, are wild ducks, teal, widgeon and other birds of a like sort; the largest decoys in England, are kept in these parts, and more than three thousand wild ducks are often sent to London in the course of a week. The same tracts abound in wild geese, grebes, godwits, whimbrels, ruffs and reeves, that find plenty of food in the fishy pools and streams. The avoset or yelper appears in numerous flocks near the Fossdike-Wash, where the knot and the dotrel, that are considered great delicacies, are taken and sent to London.^b

The district of Kesteven, or the south-western portion of Lincolnshire, extending from the centre to the southern extremity of the county, is distinguished by the variety of its soil, and although interspersed with several large heaths, is on the whole a fruitful country. The largest of these heaths are Ancaster and Lincoln, but much of them has of late years been enclosed. The fens in Kesteven are not so numerous or so large as those in Holland. Lindsey, the largest division of the three, comprehends all the country on the north of the Witham and Fossdike. It may be said to be destitute of hills, but it is the highest part of the county. The extensive heaths, called the Lincolnshire Wolds, are situated in the north-eastern part of the district. Many flocks of sheep are fed throughout this tract, and it has been computed that in the whole county, 2,500,000 are reared, which are supposed to yield 22,000,000 pounds of wool. The river isle of Axholme, formed by the Trent, the Dun

and the Idle, a rich low tract in which much flax is cultivated, is situated in the north-western part of Lindsey.

If Lincolnshire is no longer a manufacturing county, it may partly be attributed to the extraordinary decay of its ports, which although once numerous, are now either choked with sand, or wholly deserted by the sea. The higher grounds yield all the ordinary sorts of grain in abundance, and the lower are fruitful in oats, hemp, flax, woad, sainfoin and other plants. But Lincolnshire is chiefly noted as a grazing county, and the domestic animals that are reared in its pastures are the largest of their sort in England. Thus, the ox weighs from eighty to a hundred stone, while the horse and the sheep are distinguished by similar properties. The latter afford a thick coarse wool, well adapted for the worsted and coarser manufactures of Yorkshire.

The Humber and the Trent water the northern and the western sides of the county. Some of the other rivers are the Witham, the Anholme, the Welland and the Glen. The inland navigation of the county has been much extended and improved by means of canals. One from Boston by Brothertoft on the Witham, proceeds to Lincoln, enters the Fossdike canal, and thus communicates with the Trent. The canal from Grantham to Nottingham, which is about thirty-three miles in length, was completed in 1796, and cost £100,000. It passes near extensive plaster beds, and lime is brought in great quantities from Crich in Derbyshire. The Stainforth and Keadby canal commences at the river Don, about a mile west of Fishlake, waters Crowle and Keadby, and passes onwards to the Trent. Thus by means of these works, Lincolnshire communicates with all the manufacturing towns in Lancashire and Yorkshire.

Boston and Lincoln are the most important towns in the county; the first, situated in the district of Holland near the mouth of the Witham, is surrounded by rich pastures and recent enclosures, fruitful in corn. The harbour was almost blocked up about half a century ago, but the channel has of late years been opened and deepened. Thus restored to the purposes of commerce, it carries on a considerable trade with the Baltic, and more than a hundred small vessels sail from it every year in the fishing season. The town was chosen as the site of a monastery by Botolph, a Saxon monk, and the church of St. Botolph is considered the largest parish church in England, being about three hundred feet long within the walls, and a hundred wide. The height of the tower is not less than 282 feet; it is crowned by a very large lantern, which serves as a pharos to the dangerous channels of the Lynn and Boston Deeps. The same place was at an early period more opulent than at present; even in the time of Henry the First, it afforded a rich booty to a gang of robbers, who came to its fair in the disguise of monks, and laid it in ashes. It was incorporated by Henry the Eighth, and Elizabeth gave the corporation a court of admiralty with jurisdiction over the neighbouring coasts. It has already acquired something of its ancient prosperity from the new enclosures and the improvements in its harbour, and it possesses an advantage which was wanting in past times; it communicates with Lincoln, Nottingham, Derby and many other places by means of canals.

^a Stone's View of the Agriculture of Lincolnshire.

^b Aikin.

Lincoln, the capital of the county, is situated on the banks of the same river, about thirty-six miles above Boston. It occupies the site of *Lindum*, a town built in the form of a large square by the Romans. The ancient *Lindum* was surrounded by walls, and defended by towers; one of its gates, still remaining and built in the form of a semicircular arch ten feet in diameter,^a and as many in thickness at the base, has been considered one of the most perfect relics of Roman architecture in Britain. Other monuments of the same period are not wanting: several stone coffins were found in 1739; beneath them was a tessellated pavement, and still lower down a Roman hypocaust; lastly, a sudatory was discovered in another part of the town in 1782. During the earliest struggles between the Saxons, the Danes and the Normans, the name of the town is frequently mentioned; and at the epoch of the conquest, it was ranked with the largest and wealthiest cities in England. The castle, erected by the Conqueror to keep the citizens in awe, was long supposed impregnable, and even at so late a period as the civil wars, the possession of it was eagerly contested both by the royal and parliamentary forces.

The cathedral, a very lofty building, was founded in the year 1086; it has been much injured and in many places repaired. It consists of a nave with its aisles, three transepts, one near the centre, the two others near the eastern and western extremities; there are besides a choir and chancel with aisles; lastly, three chapels and cloisters are connected with the last divisions. On the whole, it is only inferior in size and grandeur to that of York, and the west front is perhaps unequalled on account of the richness and lightness of its Gothic architecture. In former times, it was one of the wealthiest English cathedrals, and according to some authors, Henry the Eighth took from it 2921 ounces of gold, and 4285 ounces of silver. Some of the shrines were of pure gold, others of silver, and the mitre of the bishop was resplendent with diamonds, sapphires and other precious stones. The see of Lincoln, although much reduced from what it once was, is even at present the largest in England. The town, independently of its religious edifices and its vestiges of Roman times, possesses other monuments of past days. Some notion may be formed of the strength and grandeur of the ancient castle from what remains of the massive walls and embattled towers. Fort Lucy^b is now in ruins, but its old tower was connected with the citadel by a subterranean communication. Antiquaries have not determined whether the priory was originally intended as a religious or military edifice. It is known that the house inhabited by John of Gaunt, the celebrated Duke of Lancaster, added greatly to the strength and magnificence of Lincoln, but the site and a few detached parts of the building are all that remain. In the same city Henry the Second repeated the ceremony of his coronation, and it was the seat of a parliament in 1301 under Edward the First. It is certain that in former times Lincoln was a wealthy and magnificent town, but neither its past wealth nor magnificence can be attributed to the industry or commercial greatness of the inhabitants. It appears as if its rise in the darkness of the middle ages was owing to the number of its churches and monasteries,

and also to the choice of it as a place of residence by many noble and royal personages. It is true, however, that particular privileges were conferred on it at different times, and of these the most important, or the one granted by Edward the Third, rendered Lincoln a staple for wool, leather and lead. The present trade consists chiefly in corn and wool, and the latter furnishes employment to many of the lower orders. It has been already remarked that Lincoln is built on the Witham, but that part of the river which passes along the principal street is arched and concealed. The Fossdike canal forms a communication between Lincoln and the Trent, and by means of that river with the principal canals in the kingdom.

The other places in the county may be briefly mentioned. Gainsborough on the Trent, a place famous for its beer, carries on a considerable trade in corn and other commodities, and participates also in the commerce of the Baltic. Great Grimsby, a decayed port near the mouth of the Humber, has become again flourishing in consequence of the improvements made in its harbour. Louth on the banks of the Ludd, rose into importance after a canal was cut parallel to that river from the town to the neighbourhood of Tetney creek. By this channel vessels of considerable burden sail to the metropolis and to different parts of Yorkshire. Stamford, a place of great antiquity, was divided at one time into fourteen parishes. Although now fallen into decay, it derives some advantage from its situation on the great northern road.

In no part of the kingdom are to be found in the same extent, so many early ecclesiastical monuments as in the fenny tracts of Lincolnshire, where stone is wholly wanting, and where the soil does not apparently afford a secure foundation to a building. Their situation, however, was a sort of natural defence against the attacks of freebooters, and the conveyance of heavy materials might have been facilitated by the drains or canals, which must have been cut before such a situation could be rendered habitable.

Lincolnshire has produced several eminent men. Lord Burleigh was born at Bourne in 1521;^c and the two Wesleys, the founders of the Arminian methodists, were natives of Epworth. The small manor-house of Woolsthorpe in the neighbourhood of Grantham, was the birthplace of Newton, who completed what Copernicus and Kepler had left unfinished. In this great man, qualities which are seldom combined, were united; genius with patient perseverance, a most comprehensive mind with great powers of concentration, an almost unerring judgment, and a sagacity that enabled him more than once to lay open the veil of nature, and to predict truths, which were confirmed in a later age.

Yorkshire is out of all proportion in point of size with the other counties. It extends the length of a hundred and thirty miles from Spurn-Head at the mouth of the Humber, to the north-western frontier, while it is ninety miles in breadth from Flamborough-Head to the borders of Lancashire. The circumference is not less than 460 miles, and the superficial extent exceeds 6000 square miles. This great extent gave rise in all probability to its division into three ridings. The North Riding is

^a Sixteen feet in diameter. (M. B. Rees' Cyc.)—P.

^b Lucy-tower.

^c 1520.—P.

bounded on the north by the Tees, which separates the county from Durham, on the east and north-east by the German Ocean, on the south-east by the East Riding, on the south by the ainsty of York,^a and the West Riding, and on the west by the county of Westmoreland. It is eighty-three miles in length from east to west, and thirty-eight in breadth from north to south. The East Riding, the least of the three, is partly separated from the North Riding by the Hertford^b and the Derwent; an irregular line from the Derwent to the Ouse, commencing a short way above Stamford Bridge, forms the rest of the boundary in the same direction; lastly, the Ouse divides it from the West Riding on the south-west.^c The West Riding is the largest of the three; the ainsty of York and the Ouse form its eastern limits, while it is contiguous to the North Riding on the north, to Lancashire on the west, to the counties of Chester, Derby and Nottingham on the south, and to Lincolnshire on the south-east.

The North Riding, it has been seen, comprehends the whole northern part of the country from side to side. The country along the shores of the German Ocean is cold, bleak and mountainous. The cliffs on the coast vary in height from fifty to a hundred and fifty feet, and the neighbouring lands rise very rapidly to the elevation of four or five hundred. The soil consists chiefly of a brown loam, and the hills near the sea abound in aluminous shale, which is worked in many places. The district of Cleveland is remarkable for its fertility; the same may perhaps be said of the vale of York, but both are surpassed by Swale-dale, or the plain on both sides of the Swale. The eastern Moorlands, a wild, barren and mountainous tract, occupy a space not less than thirty miles in length, and fourteen in breadth. They are intersected by ravines and vallies, some of which are very large, and in many of them cultivation reaches to a considerable height. The western Moorlands form part of the mountainous range, which extends from Scotland to Staffordshire. The mineral products of these lofty tracts are not without value; aluminous shale, the most important of any, has been already mentioned, and iron-ore and coal are common to many parts of the eastern Moorlands. It is supposed that veins of copper are scattered in different parts of the western; the fact, however, requires additional confirmation, and it is certain that none of them are worked. Lead is wrought to great advantage, and next to alum, it is considered the most valuable mineral product of the district.

The East Riding admits of almost every variety of soil from the heaviest clay to the lightest sand. The country near the sea from the Humber to the North Riding, is naturally unfruitful, and rendered more so by the climate. But from Spurn-Head to Bridlington, a distance of thirty-eight miles, the shore is low, and the blasting effects of cold winds are less severely felt. The sheep district or the Wolds occupies 300,000 acres, and extends almost from the northern to the southern limits of the Riding. The tract bounded by the Wolds, the Ouse and the Humber, is flat in most places, and the soil consists of a stiff clay or sandy loam. The same may be said of the country watered by the Humber from the

neighbourhood of Hull to Spurn-Head. The whole extent of the Riding is equal to 819,000 acres, and of these 350,000 are pasture, and more than 150,000, arable lands. Agriculture has been much extended of late years throughout this part of the county. Large tracts, formerly flooded the greater part of the year, and yielding nothing but rushes and a coarse scanty grass, are now covered with abundant harvests, and the value of the land has been increased in more than a tenfold proportion. The Wolds have been rendered more fruitful, and the vallies and the declivities of the hills, where oats and barley were lately the only kinds of grain, wave with plentiful crops of wheat. Rabbit-warrens are rapidly disappearing, and the sheep have been crossed and improved with the best breeds of Leicestershire. The manufactures are not so numerous, nor the population so dense as in the other districts; but in point of trade, Hull has become, from its situation, the emporium of Yorkshire, and of several other counties.

The West Riding, the largest of the three, is equal to ninety-five miles in length, and forty-eight in breadth. There is a great variety of soil, but it consists in most places of a strong and deep loam. The number of acres amounts to 1,671,000, and of these more than a fourth are arable. The greatest part of the country is enclosed with hedges or fences, and not the least valuable of its products are corn and cattle. But it is principally as a manufacturing district that the West Riding is distinguished; in this respect it possesses many advantages; it contains within itself the necessary materials, as it abounds in coal and iron-ore, limestone, lead, and other metals and minerals of inferior value. The rivers facilitate its inland navigation, by which the products are not only conveyed to the different ports in the county, but to every part of the kingdom.

In respect of soil, products and the appearance of the country, Yorkshire exhibits in miniature the whole of England. It has been seen that the northern and north-western portions have all the grandeur and variety of mountainous scenery, while a central belt from north to south is little inferior in fertility to the richest plains in the country. Marshes and abundant pastures are scattered in the south and south-eastern districts, and in the numerous list of minerals are found the most valuable and useful that are wrought in England.

It possesses besides all the advantages that water communications afford, and the different rivers are admirably arranged by nature. The Tees separates it from Durham, and cannot be exclusively considered a Yorkshire river, but the greater number rise, continue their course, and discharge themselves in the county. They issue, for the most part, from the lofty tracts in the north and south-west, join each other as they water the central districts, and form a main channel, that terminates in the Humber. Thus, in as much as they can be rendered navigable, all the parts of this large county communicate with each other and with the sea. But independently of these natural advantages, others of the same sort have been obtained by art. The Grand Trunk canal, one of the noblest works of the kind in the kingdom, unites Hull

^a The city of York, which is a liberty independent of either of the Ridings, has jurisdiction over 36 villages and hamlets west of the Ouse, called the Liberty of Ainsty. (Luckombe's Gazetteer.) P.

^b Harford (Luckombe)—rises near Filey Point on the eastern coast, and runs westward to the Derwent.—P.

^c The Ouse first separates it from the Liberty of Ainsty, and then from the West Riding. It is bounded on the south by the Humber and on the east by the German Ocean.—P.

with Liverpool and Bristol, and thus facilitates the interchange of their products. Leeds is united to Liverpool by the canal which bears the name of these two towns, and Huddersfield, by means of its canal, communicates with Manchester.

York, the ancient *Eboracum*, the residence of several Roman emperors, has lost much of the splendour and populousness, that enabled it at an early period to rival London. Although no longer distinguished either by industry or trade, it was long considered the capital of the north of England, and in point of rank the second city in the kingdom. Situated in that part of Yorkshire where the three ridings meet, it forms a county of itself; it is watered by the Ouse and the Fosse; a stone bridge of three arches was erected over the former in 1820, while the other is crossed by three bridges, one of which, the finest in point of architecture, was lately finished. Although by no means a manufacturing place, it is not without importance as the capital of an archiepiscopal see, and the residence of a numerous priesthood. The number of churches is equal to twenty-four, while the population does not amount to twenty-one thousand. York has been stationary or perhaps retrograde, while other towns have made rapid advances; still, as it possesses the courts for the civil and ecclesiastical business of a large province, it is amply provided with proctors and attorneys. The ancient fortifications are in many places entire; the city is entered by four gates and five posterns, and although the walls are falling into decay, they still form an agreeable walk.

The cathedral of York,^a the largest in England, may bear a comparison with any other building of the same sort in Europe. The see had its origin in Roman times, and one of its bishops was present at the council of Arles in the year 347. In the same period the diocesan church of York is mentioned on account of its magnificence; but when the city was taken in the ninth century by the Danes, it was levelled with the ground. A new edifice was raised not long afterwards on its site, but it was destroyed by fire in 1069. A third building, surpassing the two former both in its dimensions and in the magnificence of its architecture, was almost consumed in the year 1137. The calamity, it is said, was soon repaired by the piety and the zeal of the archbishop; but it is equally certain that no part of the church as it then stood, remains at present. The south transept, or the oldest part of the present structure, was built by Walter de Grey in the thirteenth century; succeeding prelates vied with each other in continuing the work which their predecessor had begun, and which was not completed before the lapse of two centuries. The entire length of the cathedral is equal to 524 feet, the breadth of the eastern end to 105, and that of the western to 109; the height of the lantern tower to 213, and of each of the two western towers to 196. The western front is remarkable for its magnificence; the lantern, and the two western towers, exhibit different styles of architecture, and the south transept is distinguished by pointed arches and slender columns. As the building was carried on at different periods, it is marked by the styles of different ages, so that the students of architecture may contemplate the successive progress of their art. But even an uninitiated person cannot contemplate

it without admiring the vastness of its dimensions, the beauty of the several parts, and the majesty of the whole. The late calamity by which part of this venerable structure was destroyed, has shown in what estimation it is held by the English; the expense of restoring it to its original form is defrayed neither by government nor by the church, but by the subscriptions of individuals.

In a county so extensive and so populous as that of York, it is chiefly such places as are distinguished for the wealth, industry or enterprise of their inhabitants, that can be mentioned. But in this point of view no place is more remarkable than Leeds, the most populous town in the county, and the commercial capital of Yorkshire. It is situated about twenty-four miles to the south-west of York, and some notion of its rapid rise may be inferred from the circumstance, that it contained only a single church in the reign of Charles the First. In 1811, the population amounted to 62,534; in 1821, it was equal to 83,796 individuals. Leeds has thus become the principal market of the woollen cloths that are manufactured in the West Riding. The building, which is used as a place of sale for the coloured or mixed cloths, is 380 feet long by 180; it has six double rows of stalls or shops, and the total number of stalls is equal to two thousand. The skill of the architect is displayed in the admirable way in which the building is lighted, an advantage almost essential to the purposes for which it is intended, and one that gives it a great superiority over every other structure of the same sort in France. The white woollen cloths or all those that are not dyed, are sold in a different building, which although less spacious than the former, contains not fewer than 1210 stalls. The market for mixed cloth is held on Tuesday and Saturday; it commences at eight o'clock in summer, and at nine in winter. The different stalls are filled in a few minutes; each vender stands behind his goods, the benches are covered with cloth, and the different pieces are placed as closely together as they can be laid lengthwise, and all this is done without noise or confusion. When the bell ceases to ring, the buyers and agents from different parts of the country enter the hall. According to the regulations of the market, the business is transacted in a whisper; the purchaser fixes on the cloth, leans over the benches, and addresses the clothier in too low a voice to be audible by his neighbour; both, however, agree or differ about the price in a few seconds. In this way, cloth to the amount of £20,000, and sometimes much more, is sold in less than an hour. The market for the sale of white cloths opens as soon as the other is closed, and in both the same regulations are observed.^b The manufactories from which the halls are supplied, extend to a considerable distance from the town; to about ten miles on the south, to nearly fifteen on the south-west, and to more than eight on the north and west. The other branches of industry are of secondary importance; there are, however, several manufactories of linen and cotton stuffs, and of Scotch and Wilton carpets, and also extensive potteries, from which both the home and foreign markets are partly supplied. A considerable trade is also carried on in tobacco, for the preparation of which numerous mills have been erected. Leeds enjoys many advantages for commerce; the long line of canals and rivers extends to Hull on the eastern, and to

^a Called York Minster.—P.

^b Capper, Idem.

Liverpool on the western sea. It is situated in the vicinity of abundant coal mines; it possesses, besides, easy means of communication with the metropolis and every trading district in the kingdom. Such advantages, aided by the spirit and industry of its inhabitants, account sufficiently for its present importance, and it resembles other flourishing towns, in as much as it is not yet represented in parliament.

However great the trade of Leeds may be, it is not sufficient for the numerous woollen manufactories in the west of Yorkshire; these commencing below Craven, occupy a tract of which Leeds, Bradford, Halifax, Huddersfield and Wakefield may be considered the centres. But the principal trade of Bradford consists in its numerous worsted manufactures, which are supposed to be more extensive and varied than those of any other town in Yorkshire. Coal and iron are obtained in the neighbourhood, and the most ponderous articles in malleable and cast iron are wrought. Bradford is pleasantly situated at the junction of three valleys on the south of the Aire, about twelve miles west from Leeds; a navigable canal, drawn from that of Leeds and Liverpool, passes through the middle of the town, and enables the inhabitants to export iron, coal, flagstones and slates.

Wakefield, the handsomest of the trading towns in the West Riding, is finely situated on an eminence above the waters of the Calder, at the distance of eight or nine miles to the south of Leeds. Although long noted for its woollen trade, it has made more rapid advances within the last thirty or forty years than at any former period, and the numerous manufactories that have been erected in the town and in the neighbouring villages, partly supply the markets of Leeds and Huddersfield. It carries on, besides, a great trade in corn and coal, and it is also a mart for the wool that is imported for the Yorkshire manufacturers from different parts of the kingdom. It communicates with Huddersfield by means of a canal, and with Leeds by the Calder, which, having been rendered navigable from Ealand to its junction with the Aire, has greatly contributed to the prosperity of the adjacent country.

Huddersfield, sprung up in the last century, surrounded by bleak moors, and built near the site of the ancient *Cambodunum*, has become the mart of narrow cloths. This manufacture extends ten miles to the south, where the coarser cloths that are exported to the Mediterranean, are made. The Huddersfield canal, which opens a communication with Ashton-under-Line, Manchester and some of the most important manufacturing districts, has been already mentioned; but another extends from the same town to the Calder, whence the river navigation is continued to Wakefield.

Halifax, near the borders of Lancashire, is an ancient and flourishing town. It appears to have possessed no inconsiderable share of the cloth trade during the sixteenth century, while its barbarous gibbet law was in force, by which theft could be punished by decapitation within the limits of its extensive parish. It has been affirmed that the Halifax machine differed little from the guillotine, and that Lord Morton, when regent of Scot-

land, carried a model of it into his native country, where it was used and known under the name of the maiden. The many rivulets that water Halifax have facilitated the erection of numerous mills and extensive machinery. Although it participates largely in the cloth trade, other articles are manufactured. Many shalloons are woven for the Turkey market; they are sent to Hull, and thence shipped to the Levant. Of late years great quantities of woollen stuffs have been exported to the South American states.

Such are the most important of the clothing towns in the West Riding of Yorkshire. The merchants attend the several markets, and deal in the manufactures of other districts as well as of those they inhabit. The woollens not only supply the home market, but are exported to the places that have been mentioned, and also to Holland, Germany, Russia, Italy and Spain.^a The raw materials are obtained from different quarters: Spain, Saxony, and the south of England, Shropshire and Norfolk, supply the wool for the finer cloths; the counties of Lincoln and Leicester furnish an inferior sort for the worsted and the coarser stuffs.

Iron and coal are found in the country in which the manufactures are carried on; in other respects it possesses few advantages. As to climate, it is even more variable than many parts of England. It is naturally difficult of access, and for the most part sterile or unfruitful. The means of communication were formerly few, but at present they are numerous and varied. Hills, on which heath was only found, are now adorned with country houses, surrounded by plantations and verdant pastures. Plains that yielded a scanty herbage, and in which the divisions were marked by loose stones, are enclosed by lofty hedges, and covered with luxuriant harvests. It is not wonderful, then, that the same district was long thinly peopled, and one of the poorest in England; nor is it likely to excite surprise, if the obstacles which industry can surmount be considered, that it is now little inferior to the most populous and wealthy in the kingdom.

But, although all the natural products have been mentioned, it is necessary to enumerate other products of industry. Thus, in Sheffield and the circumjacent villages, more than fifty thousand persons find employment on a soil rich in iron and in coal. The town is pleasantly situated on an eminence near the southern extremity of the county, at the confluence of the Sheaf and the Don, the one bounding it on the east and the other on the north-east. It is regularly built, and adorned with several public buildings, and two modern bridges; but the stranger who enters it for the first time, is less likely to admire its edifices than the extensive works and unnumbered forges, that are never suffered to remain at rest. The town was famed for its hardwares at so early a period as the thirteenth century, and it is more than once mentioned in the writings of Chaucer;^b its rise, however, dates from modern times. An enterprising townsman began to trade with the continent in 1750, and much about the same period the navigation of the Don was extended and improved. Not long after-

^a It might be added, to America.—P.

^b Chaucer, who wrote in the reign of Edward III., mentions the "Sheffield Whittle" in one of his poems. (Rees' Cyc.)—

A Shefeld thwitid bare he in his hose.

(The Reve's Tale, line 13.)

Thwitid. In the Cholmondely MS. and the former editions, it is *Thweetell*, *Thwytell*, or *Thwittell*, a whittle. Ang. Sax. *hwitel*, a little knife. (Urry's Chaucer. Poems, p. 31. Glossary, p. 66.)—P.

wards, the silver-plating of brass and copper buttons was introduced, and the profitable manufacture of plated goods has been gradually carried to an unparalleled extent. The situation of the town, the two rivers that water it, and the abundance of coal, have facilitated the use of machinery, by means of which, and the improvements that the workmen have made in their art, the manufacturers of Sheffield are now able to undersell every market in Europe. According to the census of 1821, the town contains 42,000 individuals, but the whole parish, of which it forms a part, is peopled by 62,015 persons. It may be added, that it possesses ample means for the instruction of its inhabitants, such as mechanics' institutions, numerous schools, and a Lancasterian one for the education of eight hundred children. It requires, indeed, but a superficial knowledge of the present state of England to be convinced that the education of the people in the different towns is everywhere in the ratio of their commerce and industry.

Although the East Riding is neither so wealthy nor so populous as the one that has been described, Hull^a may be ranked with the most important towns in Yorkshire. It owes its foundation to Edward the First, who, on his return from the conquest of Scotland, visited the confluence of the Hull and the Humber, and thought the position well adapted for a place of defence. It has also been supposed that the king entertained other and nobler views, and discovered in the future port the centre of commerce between the north and south of Britain, and between the interior of England and the coasts of Flanders, Holland, Denmark and Sweden.^b

Notions so enlightened accord ill both with the times in which Edward flourished, and with the bent of his genius, which excited him to war and conquest rather than the useful arts of peace. It is certain that he built a strong town, to which he gave the name of Kingstown, and that it became the place of a garrison, and was considered impregnable; as a proof of the last assertion it may be remarked that even at so late a period as the civil wars, the royal troops made many attempts to take it without success. It is equally certain that its commerce first rose into notice, when it became of secondary importance as a garrisoned town.

Little more than fifty years ago Hull had no other harbour than the bed of the river,^c and as it has but little depth of water, vessels were left aground at low tide. In 1774, a company was authorized by act of parliament to build within the period of three years a dock and warehouses on the northern front of the old fortifications.^d The new works on the dock, quays and warehouses occupy a surface of thirty-three acres. Another

dock was commenced in 1807 on the western front of the old fortifications;^e it is a hundred and twenty yards long, and three hundred and twenty wide, and the quays and warehouses belonging to the New Dock Company cover a space of three acres. A third dock, which was begun in 1814, and left unfinished, was commenced anew in 1817; it is provided with an admirable ballast machine, that is set in motion by a steam-engine.^f Thus, in place of fortifications the old town is surrounded by the three docks and the waters of the Humber and the Hull. The prosperity of the place may be attributed to its situation, which affords it the means of a very extensive intercourse with the interior, communicating by the Humber with all the navigable rivers and canals in Yorkshire, and connected by means of the same river with the Trent and its numerous artificial ramifications. Possessing such advantages, it retains the export and the import trade of many of the midland and northern counties. It carries on an extensive traffic with the Baltic, for which it is very conveniently situated, and it has also commercial relations with the southern countries of Europe, and with America. The act of parliament by which individuals are permitted to undertake on their own account certain branches of commerce with the Indies, has laid open a new and an important trade to the inhabitants. But its earliest trade and the first sources of its wealth were derived from the Greenland fisheries, and more ships are still fitted out for that country than from any other port.^g The streets in the old town are narrow, dirty and irregular, but in the new town, or the part beyond the ancient ramparts, the streets are clean, spacious and well-built.

Other towns might be added to the above list; thus, a number of vessels are fitted out from the port of Scarborough, and Doncaster has become wealthy from its manufactures; still, however, they must be considered of secondary importance in comparison of those that have been mentioned. If the populous county of York has risen to a state of prosperity, to which it is vain to look for a parallel in its past history, it may serve to illustrate the importance of a liberal government and free institutions, promoting the arts of peace, encouraging private industry, giving full scope to individual enterprise, and rendering property inviolable. The present state of the country forms a remarkable contrast with its history during the darkness of the middle ages, and even at a later period. The venerable city of York was destroyed by the Conqueror, and a great part of the country converted into a desert. Afterwards exposed to the incursions of the Scots, the habitations were burned, and the country laid waste by David king of Scotland, who was at last defeated with great slaughter in the battle

^a Called in all documents, Kingston upon Hull.—P.

^b C. Dupin, Force Commerciale, volume 1st. ^c The Hull.—P.

^d It opens into the Hull, and divides the town into two parts, the old town on the south, and the new town on the north.—P.

^e Called the Humber Dock. It opens into the Humber, and by extending it a little farther north, it would meet the old dock, and thus completely insulate the old town. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f Idem, *Ibid.*

^g The inhabitants of Hull began to frequent the coasts of Greenland about the end of the sixteenth century; but afterwards about the middle of the eighteenth century, that lucrative trade declined not only in Hull but in all the ports of England.—Mr. Standidge, a persevering and speculative merchant, and a native of Hull, was anxious to promote this important branch of commerce. He fitted out a vessel on his own account, which he sent to Greenland, an enterprise that had never before been undertaken by any but companies. The success of

his undertaking was long doubtful. From her first voyage, the vessel returned with one whale and four hundred seals. At this period the skin of the seal was considered useless, and the sailors threw them into the sea. It appeared to Mr. Standidge, that they might be tanned with profit; but the tanners of Hull refused to soil their pits with the skins of fish. Having applied to the tanners of a neighbouring town, whose notions about the purity of their pits were less scrupulous, the plan succeeded beyond the projector's expectations, and shortly afterwards he and his family wore seal-skin shoes. Mr. Standidge had thus the merit of having enriched his country with a new product and a new article of trade, which has become an important branch of revenue to the government. Seal-skins, that were formerly sold at most for 2d. or 3d. each, now rose in value to five and six shillings. The Greenland fisheries, which had fallen into decay, began to be carried on again with fresh vigour. (C. Dupin, Force Commerciale, volume 1st.)

of the Standard. It was destined to become the scene of the wasteful conflicts between the Yorkists and Lancastrians, and Edward the Fourth gained a victory near Sherburn, which was purchased by the slaughter of 35,000 men. It was alternately pillaged by the king's troops and the parliamentary forces during the civil wars; and the rise of Cromwell, and the continued adverse fortune of Charles, date from the battle of Marston-Moor, which was fought in the neighbourhood of York.

The *Brigantes* formed one of the most powerful nations in ancient Albion; originally settled in Thrace, they diffused themselves over Germany and Gaul, and passed from those countries into Britain. They occupied almost the whole of Durham and Yorkshire, and a part of Northumberland and Cumberland, in which last county, one of their tribes assumed the name of *Cumbri*. The migrations of the same people are attested by ancient authors;^a but history takes no notice of the causes which induced them to leave their native land. It is apparent from a very slight examination, that neither the excellence of the climate, nor the productiveness of the soil, were likely to attract them to these northern regions. Much less can it be supposed that the mineral treasures in which the country abounds, possessed any value in the estimation of barbarians. In the Roman period, Durham was included in the province of *Maxima Cæsariensis*, and in the time of the heptarchy it formed part of the kingdom of Northumberland. But when the sovereigns of that petty kingdom embraced Christianity, the superstition of the period induced King Egfrid to make over the whole county in the year 685, to St. Cuthbert, bishop of Lindisfarne,^b and his successors. The donation was confirmed by the Conqueror, who conferred the title of counts palatine on the bishops, and invested them with so great authority that they were said to be as powerful in their diocese as the king in his dominions. Hence it happens that the county is frequently styled the Bishopric of Durham.

Durham, situated between the rivers Tees and Derwent, is contiguous on the east to the German Ocean. It is bounded on the north by Northumberland, from which it is separated by the Derwent and the Tyne,^c on the south by the river Tees, which divides it from Yorkshire, and on the west by Cumberland and Westmoreland. The superficial area has been computed at 1040 square miles, and it is divided into the four wards of Chester, Durham,^d Easington and Stockton.^e The air, which is cold and piercing, might be still more so, if the ice and snow were not dissolved by the vapours from the German Ocean. The northern part of the county is barren, and in many places thinly peopled; the western is bleak and hilly, being crossed by the central ridge, which, however, is no where very lofty in Durham. But these heights give rise to numerous streams that flow eastwards, and lower eminences, connected with the higher, extend in different directions. The southern as well as the eastern districts are fruitful and, although the farms are in

^a Herodotus, Book vii. Strabo, Book xii.

^b The see of the bishopric was originally at Lindisfarne, but was removed to Durham, A. D. 995.—P.

^c The Derwent crosses a corner of Durham, before it enters the Tyne.—P.

^d Darlington. (Rees' Cyc. Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e Besides the main body of the county, there are two detached portions, viz. a larger portion on the north of Northumberland, bounded S. by that county, N. W. by the Tweed, which separates it from Scotland,

general small, well cultivated. The abundance of coal has been already mentioned; the other mineral products are iron and lead, which are obtained in Teesdale from upwards of forty mines,^f excellent mill-stones, fire-stones for ovens and furnaces, freestone for building, and slates for roofing.

The city of Durham was founded by the monks of Lindisfarne, who removed to it in the year 995, and carried along with them the bones of St. Cuthbert. It is situated on an eminence, and almost surrounded by the windings of the Wear, of which the banks are covered with woods, or broken by precipices. The loftiest part of the city is enclosed with walls, and in the same quarter the cathedral and the castle are the most conspicuous buildings. The first is worthy of notice for its size and costly ornaments, but the architecture is of a mixed sort, and the Norman style is contrasted with the additions of later ages. It may have a solemn and imposing effect, but as it is inferior to other English cathedrals, it does not correspond with the character of the see, its great wealth and extraordinary privileges. The castle is converted into an episcopal palace, and although very different from the last building, it must at least be considered a more perfect specimen of Norman architecture. Besides the cathedral, there are six other churches, two catholic chapels, and several meeting-houses for quakers, presbyterians, methodists and other dissenters. Some of the improvements in the town date from a very recent period; the principal streets are now covered with broad pavements for foot passengers, all of them are lighted with gas, old and ill built houses have been pulled down, and others more commodious and elegant are erected on their site. Few of the episcopal cities in England are distinguished by the trade or industry of their inhabitants, and Durham forms no exception to the general rule. It possesses manufactories of shalloons, flannels and carpets, but they are not supposed to be in a flourishing condition.

An old cross^g at no great distance from the town was erected by Ralph, Lord Neville, to commemorate a victory gained by the English over the Scotch; the former were commanded by Philippa, the wife of Edward the Third; the latter were routed with great slaughter, and David Bruce their king, together with many of the nobles, was taken prisoner.

Sunderland, at the distance of thirteen miles to the north-east of Durham, may be considered a more important town than the capital of the county. It is situated at the mouth of the Wear, and although now populous and prosperous, it was at one time merely a part of Wearmouth parish. The High Street, the principal one in Sunderland, is about a mile in length, and not less than thirty yards in breadth; it is adorned in many places with well built houses. The Low Street which extends parallel to it, and along the banks of the river, may be termed the Wapping of the town; it communicates with the other by a great many narrow and dirty

and N. E. by the German Sea, and divided into Islandshire on the east, along the coast, and Northshire on the west, along the Tweed, and a much smaller portion, on the coast of Northumberland, between the rivers Coquet and Blyth.—P.

^f This clause should refer only to the lead mines.—There are about 86 lead mines wrought in this county, of which 48 are in Teesdale. The iron mines are in the western part of the coal district, which occupies the north-eastern part of the county, and does not extend to Teesdale. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g Neville's cross.

lanes, where it is in vain to look for the cleanliness which characterises English towns. The trade arises principally from the exportation of coal, and in that branch of industry, it is only inferior to Newcastle; the other exports are lime, glass, grindstones and copperas; the imports consist of Baltic produce and various articles for domestic consumption. The Wear, it has been already remarked, does not admit merchant ships of a great tonnage, but vessels get much more readily out to sea than from the Tyne. The manner in which the harbour is constructed adds to its security; it consists of two piers, one on each side of the Wear. In common with the great commercial towns in England, it possesses charitable institutions, and others of which the object is to diffuse knowledge among the lower orders.

Bishop Wearmouth, a place of antiquity, and situated in the immediate vicinity of Sunderland, may now be said to form a part of the modern town; the inhabitants participate in the same trade, and are engaged in the same branches of industry. It is there that an iron bridge, one of the wonders of modern art, crosses the Wear, and connects Sunderland with Newcastle and Shields.^a The dimensions of the bridge have been already mentioned; it may be added that it was erected in consequence of the patriotic exertions of Rowland Burdon, the member for Durham. Monk-Wearmouth, which is not more than a mile from Sunderland,^b derives its name from a monastic institution of the seventh century, some remains of which may still be traced. The town is not very populous, but the inhabitants are industrious; they are employed in building ships, and in other branches of industry connected with the Sunderland trade.

On the north of Sunderland, and on the southern bank of the Tyne, is situated the town of South Shields, which is separated from North Shields by the river, the boundary between the counties of Durham and Northumberland. Some of the largest coal vessels in England take in their lading at the same place; indeed its principal business consists in providing vessels for the coal trade, and on that account several naval yards and docks for the construction of ships have been at different times erected. The making of salt from sea water furnished employment to a great number of hands, but that branch of industry has declined, since an abundant and strongly impregnated brine spring was discovered near Newcastle. More glass, however, is now made than at any former period, and there are at present upwards of twelve large glass-houses. The town consists chiefly of a long, narrow and crooked street almost two miles in length; a square near the centre of it, which serves as a market place, is adorned with the town hall and other public buildings. From what has been already said, it may be inferred that South Shields is a dirty town, but independently of its smoke-covered houses, and the narrow and crooked street, which is never very clean, it has an unseemly appearance from many artificial hillocks, formed by ballast and the refuse of the glass, salt and soap works.

The many lives that had been lost at sea near Shields, induced a number of the inhabitants to form themselves into a society for the purpose of saving mariners from

shipwreck. A reward was proposed by the society to the person who should furnish the model of a boat better adapted for resisting the impetuosity of the waves than any that had been hitherto used. The result of the proposal was the invention of the Life-Boat by Mr. Greathead.

No port has been built at the mouth of the Tees on account of the breadth and shallowness of the river; but Stockton, at no great distance above it, may be considered its harbour. A fine bridge of five arches, of which the central one is about seventy-five feet wide, was erected over the Tees at Stockton in the year 1777. The town, on account of its well built houses and numerous public buildings, has been considered one of the finest in the north of England. The manufactures are sail-cloth, ropes, damask, diaper and linen, and it carries on a great trade in proportion to its population; thus it has extensive commercial relations with the Baltic, Hamburg, Norway and Holland, and many small vessels are every year built in its docks. The ancient castle was taken and destroyed during the civil wars, and the only stone houses in the town are built of its ruins. Stockton, it may be added, serves as a port to the manufacturing and industrious town of Darlington, which has been long noted for its table and napkin linen, made partly of English and foreign flax.^c It possesses besides two iron founderies, several mills for spinning wool, and others for grinding optical instruments. The most remarkable building is a large church of ancient and curious architecture, erected in the twelfth century by Hugh Pudsey, bishop of Durham.

It may be remarked that the small island of Lindisfarne, which has been already mentioned, and which is better known by the name of Holy-Island, from having been the ancient residence of monks, is under the civil jurisdiction of Islandshire, a detached portion of Durham, on the north-eastern side of Northumberland.^d No towns of any importance are situated in that part of the county, where Lindisfarne forms part of the mainland at low water, and is surrounded at full tide by the sea. The extent of the island is equal to 1000 acres, and of these more than five hundred consist of sand. The village at the south-western extremity, and all the other houses, do not contain more than 700 inhabitants.

Such are the most important towns in the county of Durham, and the products of industry for which they are distinguished. In many places various articles of wrought iron are made, while in others there are founderies for casting iron and brass; the glass-houses and potteries, and the salt, copperas and sal-ammoniac works, furnish the materials of an extensive trade; linen, cotton and woollen stuffs are made in the county, coal-tar is exported, and paper-mills and other manufactories have lately been established.

Northumberland, the most northern county in England, is washed on the east by the German Ocean; it borders on Scotland and Cumberland on the west, and is bounded by the last county and by Durham on the south.^e Included by the Romans in the province of *Maxima Caesariensis*, the Saxons raised it to the rank of a kingdom, and called it *Northan-Humber-Land*, a name, which with little varia-

^a It connects Sunderland immediately with Monk-Wearmouth.—P.

^b On the opposite (north) bank of the Wear.—P.

^c Partly of English, and partly of foreign flax?—P

^d See note ^e p. 1205.

^e It should be added: and by the detached portion of Durham, including Islandshire and Northamshire, on the north.—P

tion it has since retained. But its ancient limits have been much contracted, for in the time of the heptarchy it included Yorkshire, Durham, Lancashire, Westmoreland and Cumberland, and extended northwards to the Clyde and Forth in Scotland. The modern boundaries, exclusively of the coast, are marked in most places by mountains or rivers, and even in its present reduced form, it must be considered a large county. Thus, the greatest length from north to south is nearly equal to seventy miles, and the utmost breadth is not less than forty. It appears from a return made to the House of Lords, that it contains 1850 square miles, or 1,157,760 acres.

The face of the country is sufficiently varied, and a considerable portion of it is unfit for cultivation. The sea-coast is nearly level, while the central districts are more diversified; they are intersected or broken by rocky hills, running into ridges, of which the bases are watered by the principal rivers. Open hills, moors, waste land and marshes form by far the greater portion of the western districts. The Cheviot Hills near the Scottish border have a more agreeable aspect; they rise in unnumbered forms, and are covered with verdant pastures, and their sloping sides enclose fruitful vales or ravines. They extend from the head of the Coquet to Allentown, and onwards to Prendwick, Brunton, Elderton, Wooller and Mindrim.^a These hills have some influence on the climate, for the snow remains on them several months after it has disappeared in the plains. The most fruitful tracts are the vallies on the eastern side, through which the rivers take their course. The eastern or level part of the country is covered with a strong and fruitful clay, which reaches in general beyond the great northern road. A sandy and dry loam forms the vales of Breamish, Till and Beaumont, and the same sort of soil may be observed in the neighbourhood of Newburn, on the Coquet both above and below Rothbury, and on the Aln from Alnwick to its mouth. A dry loam, mixed with gravel, is the most common soil in the Cheviot tract; but moist loams on a wet cold bottom occupy a great portion, particularly the central and south-eastern districts. Black peat earth, the prevailing soil on most of the hills, extends in many places through the lower parts of Northumberland.^b

Enough has been said to render it apparent that neither the climate nor the soil is favourable to the production of food, but these natural obstacles have been surmounted by perseverance and industry; many hills and lofty tracts, formerly barren or covered with useless plants, are now cultivated, agriculture has been brought to a high degree of perfection, and more than 140,000 acres have been enclosed within the last fifty years. The farms were formerly small, but they are now large, and the advantages that have been gained by uniting many into one, are infinitely greater than the temporary evils which were occasioned by the change. The growth of grain from the investment of capital on the soil has been increased, and large corn tracts in which wheat takes its rotation,

have thus been added to the arable lands of the county. The progress of improvement has been accelerated by the great quantity of lime in almost every part of Northumberland, and by the stone or shell marl, which in some districts is equally abundant.^c The farmers in the pastoral tracts on the Cheviot Hills devote themselves to the breeding of cattle, and oxen not inferior to the finest in the kingdom, have been reared by the graziers on the Scottish border. But however much the agricultural riches of Northumberland may have been increased, they are secondary in importance to its mineral treasures. If the value of an article be estimated by its utility, the coal, for which the county is distinguished, and of which the mines have been already described, forms its real wealth. It accounts in a great degree for that facility and rapidity of production, which has rendered England the emporium of the world, and for the great accumulation of capital, which has enabled the inhabitants to increase the fertility of their soil, and to improve and extend communications of every sort. The most valuable of the metals holds the next rank, and an almost inexhaustible supply of iron-stone is embedded in the strata of the coal districts. The same substance is shipped from Holy-Island to different parts of England and to Scotland.^d Lead ore is found in abundance in the mountainous districts on the south-west, and most of the veins from which it is obtained are rich in zinc, and from some of them silver is extracted. Although the country offers such advantages to industry, and although it is watered by numerous rivers, still many of them are ill adapted for inland navigation, and the deficiency is very imperfectly supplied by means of canals. The Tyne and the Tweed have been long famed for their salmon fisheries, and the metropolis is principally supplied with their produce.^e The fish are packed in pounded ice, and conveyed by this means almost as fresh to the London market as when they were taken from the water. The sea coasts, which afford the means of subsistence to many of the poorer inhabitants, abound with a great variety of fish, such as cod, ling, turbot and soles.^f

Newcastle, the most important place in the county, is situated on the banks of the Tyne, at the distance of about ten miles from its mouth; it is connected by means of a bridge with Gateshead, which although on the other side of the river, and consequently in Durham, forms part of the town. Situated in a country abounding in coal, Newcastle has become the centre of an extensive trade, and a place of great manufacturing industry. The advantages of such a situation are the causes of its wealth and increasing population; but at an early period, while the island was in the possession of the Romans, the ancient *Gabro-Gentum*^g was distinguished for the importance of its military position; it was one of the principal stations connected with the vallum of Adrian, or the old Picts' Wall, which was built to defend the inhabitants

^a Their eastern outline extends from the Coquet by Alnham, Prendwick, Brandon, Elderton and Wooller, to Mindrum. (Atlas Soc. Useful Knowledge.)—P.

^b Agricultural Survey of Northumberland, by Messrs. Bailey and Culley.

^c Both stone and shell marl are likewise extensively diffused. (Ed. Enc.)—Stone and shell marl are distinct varieties. Shell marl is an aggregate of decomposed shells; stone marl, an indurated variety of earth marl, and of an uniform texture.—P.

^d "The iron mines furnish considerable quantities of that metal, which are exported from the island, called Holy-Island, to the neighbouring countries." (M. B.)—P.

^e "The Tyne and the Tweed have been long famous for their salmon fisheries. This fish is exported from the small port of Berwick to London—" (M. B.)—Salmon are no longer caught in the Tyne, but are still taken in great quantities in the Tweed. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f Capper, Idem.

^g *Gabrosentum*. (Camden.)—P.

of the south against the incursions of the barbarous hordes in the north. When the province was abandoned by the Romans, and the English had to trust to their own resources, Newcastle was fortified with great care, and the old walls were flanked with towers, of which several are even at present in a state of preservation. It bore the name of *Monkcester*^a not long before the Norman invasion, and it derives its present name from a castle erected by Robert, son of William the Conqueror,^b after his return from an expedition into Scotland in the year 1080.

Many works and manufactories are situated in the town and neighbourhood; hardwares and wrought iron are exported, and several potteries might be enumerated, in each of which more than a hundred persons are constantly employed. It carries on a considerable trade in the finer sorts of glass: its chemical works are not without importance; they consist chiefly of white-lead, minium and vitriol. The total number of vessels belonging to it is about 850; their burden is not less than 200,000 tons, and they are manned by 9000 men. It has a share in the Greenland fisheries; it imports wines and fruits from the south, and timber, hemp and other articles from the north of Europe. In the coal trade it is the first port in Britain, and waggons for the conveyance of coal were first set in motion by steam in the neighbourhood of Newcastle. Such were the germs of an invention, which has led in its improved and developed state to the rapid communication between Manchester and Liverpool. More than twenty packets sail regularly between the same port and London, and others sail to the principal harbours in England and Scotland.

The town possesses several charitable institutions, one of which, the keelmen's hospital, is wholly supported by contributions from the coal-workers. The children of the poorest inhabitants may reap the advantages of instruction; for their benefit different schools have been erected, and a Lancasterian one was built by subscription to commemorate the fiftieth year of the reign of George the Third.^c

Many yards for building ships are situated on the banks of the Tyne, and the workmen are chiefly employed in constructing vessels for the coal trade. The river is navigable for ships of three or four hundred tons from its mouth to the bridge at Newcastle, but the largest coal vessels anchor off Shields. The bed of the Tyne from the same town to the bar at Tynemouth, may be considered a vast basin in which ships sheltered from the sea and from every wind, receive the valuable products of the mines and manufactories.

Two places below Newcastle, and on the same river, may be briefly mentioned. It has been already seen that North and South Shields are connected with each other by means of an iron bridge.^d The inhabitants of both towns are engaged in the same trade, and employed in the same branches of industry. At no very remote period the former place consisted of only one or two dark alleys, with a few dirty and wretched fishing huts; these

have been succeeded by spacious and airy streets, and by commodious and well-built houses. The trade, which keeps pace with a rapidly increasing population, may soon vie with that of the great towns in England; even at present more than four hundred vessels are annually laden at the harbour. Tynemouth, the other town, is situated about a mile and a half from North Shields, and, as its name imports, at the mouth of the Tyne. It is built on a promontory, which rises almost perpendicularly on the side of the sea, and it is defended by a castle which is chiefly worthy of notice on account of its fine military position, an advantage that did not prevent it from falling into the hands of the Scotch during the civil wars. The bar, a dangerous sand bank, extends across the mouth of the river, and it is broken in several places by rocks. To obviate the danger which might be otherwise occasioned, a light-house has been erected; it is about sixty feet in height, and stands on a promontory nearly two hundred feet above the sea. It is supposed that nearly 800,000 chaldrons of coals are annually shipped from Tynemouth to London.

The other towns in Northumberland are of secondary importance. Hexham, finely situated in the vale of the Tyne above Newcastle, was once an episcopal city, and its ancient cathedral is still its most magnificent ornament. The inhabitants are industrious, and many of them are employed in tanning leather. Morpeth, on the north road, about fourteen miles beyond Newcastle, may be mentioned on account of its cattle fairs. The town of Alnwick, the titular capital of the county,^e is situated midway between Newcastle and Berwick. It is a borough by prescription, but it contains little worthy of notice except its ancient military castle, which has long since been converted into the residence of the Northumberland family. The same place was more than once disastrous to the kings of Scotland. Having been strongly fortified in the reign of William Rufus, it resisted a long time the forces of Malcolm the Third, by whom it was besieged. It was at last delivered from this danger by the cowardly treachery of a soldier, who pretending to give up the keys to the Scottish king, drew his dagger, and pierced him to the heart.^f Edward, the son of Malcolm, wishing to avenge the death of his father, was defeated and slain in the neighbourhood. In the year 1167, Henry the Second of England gained a decisive victory at Alnwick over William the Lion, king of Scotland, took him prisoner, and compelled him to pay a large ransom. The town exhibits a singular spectacle on the day of St. Mark, and one not very creditable to the state of society, or at all events proving the observance of the ridiculous customs that prevailed in the dark ages. Those who are to acquire the freedom of the town, or according to the phrase, *to leap the well*, appear on horseback at an early hour in the market-place. Each man is dressed in white, with a sword by his side, and wears in place of a hat, a white nightcap on his head. The cavalcade, accompanied by four chamberlains in the same costume, proceed to a neighbouring moor, where the future free-

^a Munk-ceastre. (Cyc.)—P.

^b Robert Curthose, a younger son of William the Conqueror. (Cyc.)—P.

^c "The loyalty of the inhabitants was disinterested and noble; George the Third was then insane, insensible to flattery, and unable to reward it." C. Dupin, Force Commerciale, volume 2d.

^d No mention has been previously made in this Geography of an

iron bridge, over the Tyne, between North and South Shields. Is not the iron bridge over the Wear at Sunderland, which is said (p. 1206) to connect Sunderland with Newcastle and Shields, here referred to?—P.

^e The place where the county courts are held.—P.

^f It was on the point of surrendering, when a soldier stabbed him (Malcolm) with a spear, pretending to deliver him the keys on the point of it. (Luckombe. M. B.)—P.

men dismount, run through a muddy pool, and perform other foolish ceremonies.

Berwick-upon-Tweed was an important and strong fortress when England and Scotland were hostile nations, to each of which it belonged according to the chances of war. Although the greater part of it is situated in Northumberland,^a it has never been annexed to any local jurisdiction;^b it is not supposed to be either in England or Scotland, but is separately named when included in public acts. It is defended on the north and east with flanks, bastions and a ditch, and on the south and west by high walls, to which the river serves as a moat. The harbour is by no means commodious; vessels drawing more than twelve feet of water cannot cross the bar, and there is no safe riding in the offing. But in spite of this disadvantage, Berwick carries on a considerable trade with the metropolis, and of late years different branches of industry have been extended and improved.

Cumberland, like the last county, borders upon Scotland on the north, from which the maritime part is separated by the Solway Firth, and the inland by a small brook and the river Liddel;^c on the east it is contiguous to Northumberland and Durham, and the limits in that direction are for the most part artificial; it is washed by the Irish Sea on the west, and it is bounded on the south by part of Lancashire and the whole breadth of Westmoreland. The greatest length of the county is about eighty miles, and the greatest breadth nearly forty. In superficial extent it is equal to 1178 square miles, or 945,920 acres; but of these little more than a half are arable, and the greater part of the remainder is wholly unfit for cultivation, consisting either of lofty mountains, barren moors, or the romantic lakes, of which some mention has been made in a former chapter. The civil divisions form five wards, so called from the inhabitants having at one time been obliged to keep watch and ward against the Scottish borderers.

The various sorts of soil have been classed under four different heads: viz. 1st, a strong rich loam, of which there appears to be but a small portion; 2d, a variety of loams from the rich brown to the light sandy; under this division a great part of the county is included; 3d, wet loam, generally on a clay bottom; and 4th, black peat earth, the most common in the mountainous districts, particularly those in the neighbourhood of Northumberland and Durham.^d

A mountainous ridge in Cumberland forms part of the chain, which runs north and south between the eastern and western sides of England, and another tract in the south-western part of the county is little inferior to the former in height. In the first, and not far from the borders of Durham, is situated Cross-Fell, which rises to the elevation of 3400 feet, and is consequently the highest mountain in England; in the second, Helvellyn attains the height 3324, Skiddaw, or *Skyday*, is equal to 3270, and Saddleback is not supposed to be lower

than 3048 feet. In the former are obtained various minerals useful for different purposes, and also coal, limestone and lead. The last substance is chiefly worked near Aldston-Moor^e on the borders of Durham. The second tract, composed for the most part of the schistus that affords the blue slate for covering houses, is also rich in plumbago or wadd;^f the name which the miners have given to this valuable substance, of which the finest kinds are so abundant in the neighbourhood of Borrowdale, that the mines are opened and closed after certain intervals,^g lest the price of the commodity should be diminished by too great a supply. The quality of the metal^h accounts sufficiently for the superiority of the English pencils, which are so much prized in France and other countries on the continent. It is not many years since copper mines were wrought at Caldbeck and in the neighbourhood of Keswick. Iron ore is obtained at Egremont and in the country between it and Whitehaven.

It appears that Cumberland is in proportion to its size, one of the least populous counties in the kingdom, and the cause of it may be discovered in the nature of the country, and in the difficulty of multiplying communications through a lofty and rugged district. Agriculture in consequence of these natural disadvantages, is in a less advanced state than in other parts of England; the land is for the most part divided into small farms, and much capital has not been laid out in the improvement of the soil. Mountain-torrents or impetuous streams are abundant, but the county is ill supplied with navigable rivers.

Carlisle, the capital of Cumberland, is situated at the confluence of the Eden and Calder,ⁱ of which the united streams fall into the Solway Firth, about five miles below the town. Although the navigation of the Eden is interrupted by shallows, it was not before the year 1823 that an artificial channel was cut between Carlisle and the sea. The name of the town seems to have been derived from the Saxon word *Caerlyall*, signifying the town near the wall,^k and thus indicating its vicinity to the vallum, from which it was only distant a quarter of a mile. As a frontier town, it was exposed to frequent attacks, and for its defence it was fortified with a castle, a citadel and massive walls. The walls were first built in the seventh century by Egfrid, king of Northumberland; the castle and citadel were erected by William Rufus. The former, situated at the north-western extremity of the town, is still kept in repair, and contains, among other buildings, a magazine for gunpowder, and an armoury, in which more than 10,000 stands of arms are generally deposited. It was in the castle that the unfortunate Mary Stuart was confined in the year 1568, and a neighbouring garden which she used to frequent, is still known by the name of the Lady's Walk.^l The principal streets communicate with the market-place which is much disfigured by a guard-house that was built during the civil wars, when Cromwell occupied the town. The ancient fortifications, like other works of the

^a This is not true. It is situated on the north side of the Tweed, at its mouth, and originally belonged to Scotland, of which it was one of the four principal boroughs. It is separated from Northumberland by the detached portion of Durham, called Islandshire.—P.

^b It forms a town and county of itself, with its own separate sizes.—P.

^c See note ^a p. 1146.

^d Agricultural Survey.

^e Alston-Moor.

^f Black lead.

^g The mines are only opened at intervals for a short period. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^h Plumbago is not a metal. It is composed of carbon with a small quantity of iron.—P.

ⁱ Caldew.

^k The name is most probably derived from the Celtic, *Caer*, a city, and *Luel*; signifying the town or city of Luel. Gibson's Camden. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^l During her imprisonment, the royal captive used to walk in front of the castle, which yet retains the name of the Lady's Walk. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

same period, are certainly imperfect, and inadequate to the purposes of modern warfare; the same remark is equally applicable to the comparatively late additions which have been erected for their defence; still, however insignificant both may appear, Carlisle was twice besieged in the rebellion of 1745; it was first taken by the Scotch, and afterwards by the English under the Duke of Cumberland, in both times not without a siege. It may be remarked that it was once a Scotch town, and that Henry the Second received at Carlisle the honour of knighthood from David the First. One or two instances may be mentioned to show how much it has suffered from its frontier position; having been taken by the Scotch in the time of Henry the Third, the greater part of it was destroyed by fire, and it was twice exposed to a similar calamity in the succeeding reign; at a later period Henry the Eighth laid siege to it with an army of 8000 men, inflicted unjust punishments on many of the inhabitants, and reduced the rest to obedience.

The cathedral, for Carlisle is an episcopal city, having been built at different periods, displays different styles of architecture, and although some detached portions of it may be admired, it can neither vie in size nor in magnificence with other buildings of the same sort. Part of the western wing was demolished during the civil wars; the breach or opening thus made was afterwards closed, and the space between the transept and the new wall has been transformed into the church of St. Mary.^a

The population and trade of Carlisle were long inconsiderable, but the latter has been greatly extended within the last forty years, and different manufactures have been introduced by the enterprise of different individuals. Various branches of the cotton trade are carried on with success, printed linens are exported to different parts of the country, and iron works and founderies are established. If the impulse which was first given, has been maintained, it may in part be attributed to the comparative cheapness of labour.

The other inland towns are too insignificant to require notice; they are so in point of population, still some branch of industry is carried on in every one of them. Penrith possesses some trade in fancy woollen stuffs; the inhabitants of Wigton are employed in manufacturing cotton, and extensive waste lands in the neighbourhood have of late years been enclosed. Hats, shalloons, coarse woollens and linens are made at Cockermouth, and several cotton-works have been erected in the romantic town of Keswick.

The maritime town of Whitehaven, situated at no great distance from the promontory of St. Bees Head, and now much more important than the places which have been last mentioned, consisted only of six fishermen's huts in the year 1566. The cause of its prosperity dates from the reign of Queen Anne, when several moles and bulwarks were erected, by which vessels are secured against the Corfe rocks. But these works have been

since much improved, and Whitehaven possesses at present not fewer than six yards for building ships. The same port carries on a considerable trade with the West Indies, and nearly two hundred vessels belong to it. The coal, which is chiefly exported to Ireland, is obtained from neighbouring pits that have been dug to the extraordinary depth of 130 fathoms,^b and extended to so great a distance below the sea, that ships of large burden sail above the miners.

The small town of Workington near the mouth of the Derwent, was the landing-place of the unfortunate Mary, when in an evil hour she fled for refuge to the dominions of her rival.

An island in the Irish Sea,^c about thirty miles from the English coast, is considered a dependence of Cumberland.^d In superficial extent it is not equal to more than 220 square miles, but it is in some places thirty miles in length, and in others more than twelve in breadth.^e The climate, although humid, is mild and salubrious; frost and snow are never of long continuance, but the harvests are retarded by cold and variable summers. The two extremities of the island consist of good arable and pasture lands; the southern side is composed of loam; the soil varies in other parts, but clay and sand form perhaps the most common sorts. The fisheries afford the most important occupation, and so many men are engaged in them, that the cultivation of the ground is generally committed to women. The sea-weed is used for manure, and furze, heath and peats for fuel. Excellent mutton, good poultry, eggs and fish, it is said, are much cheaper than in England.

Ramsay, one of the principal ports, is situated on the north-eastern coast of Man, in the neighbourhood of a bay, which may afford a safe anchorage to a large fleet; but the present harbour is inconvenient, and only fit for small vessels. Douglas, on the south-eastern coast, and about sixteen miles distant from Ramsay, is the most populous town, and contains nearly six thousand inhabitants. The harbour can admit the largest vessels, and it is defended by a strong fort, which renders the place impregnable on the side of the sea. Castletown is the capital of the island, but its port is difficult of access, and its population does not exceed two thousand inhabitants. It is chiefly remarkable for a castle, built on a rock in the middle of the town, and encompassed with so thick walls, that three persons can walk abreast on them. The black marble steps of St. Paul's cathedral were obtained from a quarry in the neighbourhood.

Westmoreland, the next county that shall be mentioned, is bounded on the north and north-west by Cumberland, on the east by Yorkshire and Durham, and on the south and south-west by Lancashire.^f The limits are for the most part formed by lakes, rivers or streams, and mountains. Thus, Winandermere, the largest lake in England, and one remarkable for its romantic beauty, separates it from Lancashire, and the Lune, which rises near the sources of the Eden, is the boundary between it

^a The opening was afterwards closed with a wall, and the space within the wall, and the transept fitted up as the parochial church of St. Mary. (Rees's Cyc.)—P.

^b Capper, *Idem*.

^c The Isle of Man.

^d The Isle of Man is not legally dependent on the county of Cumberland, nor is it even considered a part of England. It has a governor appointed by the king, a council of five persons *ex officio*, two deem-

sters or judges, and a house of commons, called the House of Keys. These, united, form what is called the Tinwald Court.—P.

^e It is about 30 miles in length, and about 10 miles at its greatest width. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f It is bounded in that direction, for a short distance, by the head of Morecambe Bay, and thus separates the district of Furness from the main body of Lancashire.—P.

and Yorkshire.^a The area is equal to 763 square miles or 488,320 statute acres, but of these more than two thirds are uncultivated. The county may be briefly described; indeed its name indicates its nature. Westmoreland or the *west-moor-land* consists of bleak mountains, naked hills and sterile moors or heaths, which are better known in the north of England by the name of fells.^b The vallies, which are watered by the rivers, are not unfruitful, and a plain of considerable extent in the northern part of the county yields abundant harvests. The rest of the cultivated land is made up of glens or ravines, surrounded by lofty heights. No great quantity of corn is raised, and no sort of grain is so common as oats. Herds of Scotch cattle are fattened by the farmers, and many milch cows are kept, by which the inhabitants of London are supplied with excellent butter. Sheep are reared on the mountains, and numerous flocks of geese wander on the moors. Great attention is paid to the rearing of pigs, and the hams of Westmoreland are not the least valuable of its exports.

The mineral riches of the county are not great; it is almost destitute of coal, and the metallic ores lie so deep as to render the working of them unprofitable. Limestone and freestone are by no means uncommon, but slate is perhaps the most abundant and most important of the mineral products. Few of the towns require to be mentioned. Appleby, the county-town, a place of no great consequence, occupies the site of *Aballaba*, a Roman station which communicated with a military way. The market-house, a handsome Gothic edifice, was finished in 1811; each of the two extremities of the town is now adorned with a stone obelisk, and on one of them the following inscription has been placed:—"Retain your loyalty, preserve your rights." It is only in free countries where such inscriptions are observed, and it is only in free countries, that they appear to be unnecessary; thus the English are not unmindful of their duty to their king, still less are they forgetful of their rights and liberties.

In the country between Appleby and Orton, there is a calcareous cavern, which winds to a great distance through numerous galleries; many of these are filled with pools, and others are watered by streams that escape at last by chasms, of which the extent has never been measured, and which the country people have denominated the Badger's den.

Kendal, or more correctly Kirkby in Kendal,^c the church in the dale of the Ken,^d is situated in a pleasant valley about twenty miles to the north of Lancaster. It is the only populous and commercial town in the county; it was one of the places to which Flemish weavers were invited in the fourteenth century, and the cloths made by

them were held in such repute that they were long known by the name of the town. It retained its manufacturing industry, although it was long deprived of the advantages of water carriage, and it possesses at present not fewer than seven trading companies, each having its hall. The present manufactures consist of cottons, coarse woollens, linseys, druggets, worsted stockings, serges and hardwares.

It is not many years since the Lancaster canal was completed, a work which has greatly contributed to the prosperity of Kendal by affording a convenient outlet to its products. It commences at West Houghton in Lancashire, and intersects the Leeds and Liverpool canal between Wigan and Preston, then waters Preston, Spital Moss, Barton and Garstang, crosses the Wier at the last place, and proceeds to Lancaster. It is carried over the Loyne^e above Skeriton by means of a stone aqueduct, supported by five arches, 664 feet in length; from Skeriton it passes to Burton, and onwards through a tunnel to Kendal, a course of seventy-six miles. It communicates with Liverpool by the Leeds and Liverpool canal, and from the last place by the Mersey and the Duke of Bridgewater's canal, with Preston brook, where the Staffordshire canal joins the Trent and Severn, and extends from thence to the Thames by the continuation of the Oxford and Coventry canal,^f an inland navigation of more than 500 miles.

Lancashire, a maritime county, and a county palatine, is bounded on the north by Westmoreland and a part of Cumberland,^g on the east by Yorkshire, on the west by the Irish Sea, and on the south by Cheshire. It is of a very irregular shape, and it has already been remarked, that one portion is separated from the rest by an arm of the sea. The greatest length inclusive of the detached part, is nearly seventy-four miles, and the greatest breadth about forty-five. According to a return made to the House of Lords in 1818, the area is said to be equal to 1831 square miles. The former scantiness of the population may be inferred from the small number of parishes into which Lancashire was divided, and other facts are not wanting to prove that few counties are less favoured by nature, while none are more important by the industry of their inhabitants. Thus, in confirmation of what has been asserted, it may be remarked that the climate is almost proverbial for its moisture, and what is worthy of notice, the eastern part of the county is more humid than the western or the coast. The reason may be easily assigned; the eastern boundary that separates it from Yorkshire, forms part of the ridge which has been often called the *Back-bone* of England, and the clouds that are wafted by the Irish Sea from the Atlantic Ocean, are first checked in their course by the same heights, of

^a Winandermere, for about half its length on the north, separates it from the district of Furness, and the Lune, for only a short distance, from Yorkshire.—P.

^b *Fell* properly signifies mountain (Dan. *feld*, Swed. *fjäll*), and is applied to different ridges and summits of the great chain dividing the eastern from the western counties in the north of England.—P.

^c Kirkby- or Kirby-Kendal.

^d Properly, the church (*kirk*) town (Dan. *by*) in the dale of the Ken.—P.

^e Lune, Lone.

^f This should be stated thus: From Liverpool, a communication is opened by the Mersey, the Duke of Bridgewater's canal, as far as Preston Brook, the Grand Trunk (Staffordshire) canal, the Coventry canal, and the Oxford canal, or the Oxford canal and the Grand Junction canal, with the Thames.—The Duke of Bridgewater's canal extends

from the Mersey at Runcorn to Manchester. The Grand Trunk canal branches off from it at Preston Brook, and extends to the Trent, at the mouth of the Derwent in Derbyshire. The Staffordshire and Worcestershire canal leaves the Grand Trunk at Heywood, east of the town of Stafford, and passes by Wolverhampton, to the Severn at Stourport. The Coventry canal leaves the Grand Trunk near Lichfield, and extends to Coventry. Four miles north of Coventry, the Oxford canal branches off to the east, and extends to the Thames at Oxford. The Grand Junction branches off from the Oxford canal at Braunston, and extends to London.—P.

^g The main body of the county is bounded on the north by Westmoreland. The detached district of Furness, on the south by the sea on the west by Cumberland, and on the north and east by Westmoreland.—P.

which the western side is exposed to frequent and heavy showers. The soil offers few attractions to the husbandman; it is in many places unfruitful, and even in the fruitful parts, the crops are frequently destroyed by incessant rain. The detached portion, or the Hundred of Furness, as it is called,^a abounds in iron, but it is a wild and bleak district, covered with underwood, of which the cuttings are only useful in supplying the numerous furnaces that have been erected. Connistone Meer,^b a lake in the same part of the county, occupies no inconsiderable space, for it is more than seven miles in length. The most fertile part is situated in the neighbourhood of the sea, and near the ancient abbey of Furness; but even there, the land, which is only moderately fruitful, is protected against the boisterous waves of the Irish Sea, by the long and narrow isle of Walney, in all probability, once a part of the coast. The main part of the county is naturally divided into two unequal portions; the smaller extends from the Westmoreland border to the Ribble, while the larger includes the country between the last river and the Mersey. The former has been long known to agriculturists on account of its oxen, which are not inferior in symmetry to any in England. The Fild or Field,^c a low tract between Garstang and Preston, is not unfruitful, but the remaining or eastern portion, in which the ancient forests of Wiersdale and Bowland are situated, is mountainous and barren. The southern part of the country between the Ribble and the Mersey, although neither sterile nor broken by hills, is disfigured in many places by large morasses. They seem to have originated from the stagnation of springs in low grounds, where a perpetual accumulation of vegetables, successively growing and decaying, produces a spongy soil, of which the upper part forms a slaking bog, while the lower consists of a black moss, affording turf or peat for fuel. These moving marshes are liable to disruptions after heavy rains, and on these occasions the neighbouring country is inundated or laid waste by their debris. Some of the bogs are very large; others, not without much labour and great expense, have been drained and rendered productive. The fruitful tracts are well adapted for the growth of potatoes, many of which, it is well known, have been exported to Ireland. But the nature of the soil, and the wetness of the climate, must prevent Lancashire from ever being a corn country; oats is the most common grain; the rest are insufficient for two months consumption of the inhabitants. What then are the causes of the prosperity of Lancashire, of its commercial greatness, and of a population in which, according to the last returns, the ratio to the surface is more than six hundred and twenty persons to the square mile?^d It is certain that if it had been destitute of coal, and if numerous rivers had not afforded many facilities to inland navigation, it might still have been what it was in past times, poor and thinly peopled. Inexhaustible beds of coal, it has been already seen, are wrought in the southern and central districts, particularly in the two southern

hundreds of Derby^e and Salford, which traverse the whole breadth of the county. Products of industry, almost as varied as they are numerous, and every mechanical contrivance by which labour can be abridged, owe their origin to the abundance of so valuable an article over so extensive a tract. The other minerals are of secondary importance in comparison of coal, but limestone is obtained in great quantities in the northern and north-eastern districts, and one sort of it, dug near Manchester and also near Leigh, has been found to resist the effects of water, and is therefore much used in subaqueous works. A quarry of excellent freestone near Lancaster has afforded the materials of which the town is built, and a more extensive quarry near Liverpool has furnished the stone for its public edifices. Flag-stones and whetstones are the products of different districts, and slate abounds in the mountainous tract near Hawkshead.^f

The principal rivers are the Mersey, which rises in Derbyshire, receives several small streams, separates the last county from Cheshire,^g and falls into the sea at Liverpool. The Ribble rises in Yorkshire, crosses the county, and discharges itself into the Irish Sea near Preston. The Wier^h has its source in the moors on the north-eastern border, is enlarged by several small streams, and enters the same sea about twelve miles to the north of the Ribble. Lastly, the Lune or the Loune,ⁱ rising near Kirkby-Lonsdale in Westmoreland,^k waters Lancaster and falls into the sea at no great distance below it. Thus all these rivers rise from the mountainous ridge which has been called the Back-bone of England, and all of them form estuaries at their entrance into the sea. But by means of the system of inland or canal navigation, Lancashire communicates with all the neighbouring counties, with numerous rivers, with the western and eastern seas, with Liverpool and Hull, with the Severn and the Thames.

Lancaster, the capital of the county of which it bears the name, is situated on the banks of the Lune; it contains a population of more than 12,000 individuals; it reckons 85 vessels measuring 9111 tons, but the shallows in the river below Lancaster prevent the larger vessels from reaching the town; they anchor at the mouth, and are unloaded by means of lighters. The same place has been long celebrated for its manufacture of sail-cloth, merchant vessels are built in its docks, and other branches of industry are cultivated, but the principal trade is carried on with the British colonies of North America. A long quay has been built on the left bank of the river for the accommodation of ships; the suburbs rise on the opposite bank, and communicate with the town by a bridge of four arches.

Numerous antiquities dug up in the neighbourhood at different periods, prove that Lancaster had been a station of some consequence in the time of the Romans. It was not, however, before it was made over by Edward the Third, with ducal privileges, to John of Gaunt, that it began to assume the importance which it has since retained. The castle, which is generally believed to have been

^a Furness is not a hundred of itself, but part of the hundred of Lonsdale.—P.

^b Coniston-mere or Coniston Water.—P.

^c Fylde or Field. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d Rickman's Population Returns of 1831.

^e West Derby.

^f In Furness, west of Winander Mere.—P.

^g It first separates Derbyshire from the north-eastern horn of Cheshire, then crossing the latter, divides Cheshire from Lancashire, for nearly 60 miles.—P.

^h Wyre.

ⁱ Lune, Loynne, or Lone.

^k It rises in the fells in the middle of Westmoreland, near Orton, and passes S. to Kirkby-Lonsdale, near the southern line of that county —P

erected about the same period, added to its military strength during the wars between the Roses; but these disastrous convulsions had the effect of desolating the town, which is said to have been inhabited many years afterwards by a few poor husbandmen. The castle, too, was laid in ruins, and it is merely from the walls, which are still mostly entire, that any notion can be formed of its strength and extent. The principal entrance by the eastern gate, under a fortified tower, conducts into a spacious court-yard, surrounded by other strong towers. The keep, a square building, containing several large apartments, and formerly defended by strong military works, is now converted into the county gaol and courthouse of the assizes.^a

Preston, nearly twenty miles to the south of Lancaster, has long been considered one of the best built towns in the county; situated in a fruitful district, on the banks of the Ribble and the Lancaster canal, at a short distance from the sea, and at the junction of six important roads, it derives many commercial advantages from its position. The inhabitants are employed in different branches of industry, principally in weaving and spinning cotton; no small number, however, are occupied in the silk manufactories, and the town has long been distinguished for the excellence of its weaving machinery. An imperfect notion may be formed of the varied commercial relations of Lancashire, from the immense number of public coaches, carriages and stage waggons that are continually travelling to and from Preston. Although the trade of the same place dates from a comparatively recent period, it is by no means a modern town; on the contrary, it appears to have risen while Ribchester, the ruins of which are at no great distance, fell into decay, and it was inhabited during the dark ages by so many monks and ecclesiastics, that it received the name of Priests'-town, which has been gradually changed into Preston.

The Ribble, which waters Preston, and the Mersey, at the mouth of which Liverpool is built, are separated by a considerable tract of coast, and no part of any consequence is situated between them. It is a remarkable fact that there is no important town in England, of which the early history is more involved than that of Liverpool. The numerous conjectures that have been made concerning the etymology of its name, indicate how little is known on the subject. In the reign of Henry the Eighth, Liverpool was "a chapelry or hamlet to the parish of Walton. The king," continues the same author, "hath a castlet there, and the erle of Derbe hath a stone house there. Irish merchants come much thither as to a good haven. Good merchandise at Lyrpool, and much Irish yarn that Manchester men do bye there. Little custom is paid, that causeth merchants to resort."^b The inhabitants petitioned Queen Elizabeth to exempt them from certain impositions, and used the humble title of "her majesty's decayed town of Liverpool." It is known from the rates of ship money that was levied by Charles the First, that it then held a secondary rank among the commercial towns of England. Thus, Chester is rated at £26; Bristol at £1000; and Liverpool at £25. It is equally certain that the first parochial church was built in the reign of William the

Third. Some notion of its progressive population may be inferred from the following table:—

Years 1700.		1750.		1780.		1800.		1820.	
Baptisms.	Burials.	Bap.	Bur.	Bap.	Bur.	Bap.	Bur.	Bap.	Bur.
162	117	824	1031	1579	1486	2905	2782	4540	2944

The next table indicates the progress of its commerce:—

Years	1760.	1770.	1780.	1790.	1800.	1810.
Ships (number)	1245	2073	2271	4223	4746	6729
Customs (duty)	£2330	4143	3528	10,037	23,379	65,782

The disadvantages of its position are a dangerous bay at the mouth of the river, where it was necessary to overcome many natural obstacles. But it is also situated in the centre of the western coast, thus forming the most convenient point of communication with the east of Ireland, and becoming, with the extension of its trade, the mart of the western coasts of Scotland. It received from Ireland an accession of useful hands, when the laborious and peaceable inhabitants left their native land, from which industry was banished, and where the effects of a policy as unwise as it was unjust, are but too apparent at the present day. It was after these men had settled in Liverpool, that the circle of its commerce was enlarged; it competed with Lancaster and Chester, which from their vicinity were the first to yield, and the wealthy merchants of these places removed to the rising town.^c The contest between Liverpool and Bristol was of longer duration. These great ports on the western coast are the depositaries of imports, which are diffused over different parts of England, and the exports by which these imports are obtained, are the products of neighbouring towns and districts. The extent of country through which their home trade circulates, corresponds with their means of communication; in other words, the exports that are more easily conveyed to Bristol, are not sent to Liverpool, neither does the former place receive such as are transported at a less expense to the latter. Having obtained a share of the home trade, proportionate to their local advantages, and to the roads and canals, which have been since multiplied in every direction, the inhabitants of Liverpool sought wealth from the same channels by which it flowed to Bristol, and so extended their commerce with foreign countries. Bristol imported the manufactures of Germany, and sent them out to the American colonists. The merchants of Liverpool found as good, if not better manufactures, in their own country. Ireland supplied them with linen, and Scotland with different articles, which were exported to the same settlers. Much about the same time, the neighbouring town of Manchester made gigantic strides in various branches of industry, and its manufactures, of which Liverpool became the natural outlet, were found to be cheaper, and of a better quality, than any others. This victory, of which Liverpool still reaps the fruits, prepared the way for new contests. The privilege of importing goods into the Spanish colonies having been conferred on a limited number of individuals, they exacted a duty equivalent to four times the amount that the consumers had been

^a Lardner, Id. Ibid.

^b Leland's Itinerary, vol. ii.

^c C. Dupin, Force Commerciale, volume 1st.

accustomed to pay. So great a hardship gave rise to a smuggling trade between the English possessions in the West Indies and Spanish America, and this fraudulent traffic was continued by means of Liverpool vessels with perseverance and success.

The slave trade was not the least lucrative one in which the merchants of Bristol were engaged, and their rivals sought wealth from the same source. The different articles exported to the South American colonies were rendered so many monopolies by the Spanish cabinet, and although the trade in slaves was committed to a company, the profits arising from it served to enrich Liverpool smugglers, who engaged in the traffic of human beings with as much indifference as in any ordinary branch of commerce, and it is undeniable that the resources of the town were increased by immense capitals, which were in this way accumulated.

It may be easily inferred that the war of independence with the British colonies in North America, retarded the prosperity of Liverpool, but no sooner was that war terminated, than the same port became the European emporium of the United States, and the trade thus begun, has since corresponded with the increasing importance, population and wealth of the American republic. England obtained the monopoly of the Brazil trade, in terms of the Portugal treaty, and that vast territory became a new outlet to the exports of Liverpool.

If these facts be considered, the following statement cannot excite surprise:—Liverpool possessed about a century ago only a two and fortieth part of the trade of England; it now possesses a sixth. Thus, it has increased in a ratio seven times greater than that of a nation, whose advances in commerce and industry are unparalleled in Europe.^a It is obvious that the flourishing state of the port is intimately connected with the prosperity of other towns, to which its admirable communications extend; it accounts for the rise of Manchester, Birmingham and other places, in as much as they are in some respects the workshops of Liverpool.

Some of the public buildings in the same place may be briefly mentioned. The exchange may bear a comparison with the finest structures which the mercantile inhabitants of any city have erected from their own resources. The area which it occupies, is twice as great as that of the Royal Exchange in London. The portico of the principal entrance is formed by eight double Corinthian columns, each equal to twenty-five feet in height, and each cut from a solid mass of stone. The inner fronts on the east and west, are composed of a rustic basement, supporting pilasters and Corinthian columns that are surmounted by a balustrade. The northern front corresponds with the opposite one of the town-hall, which completes the quadrangle formed by the two structures. Within the space thus enclosed, three piazzas fifteen feet wide, communicate with apartments for the underwriters, with counting-houses, and with extensive ware-rooms.

The town-hall exhibits an extensive line of pilasters and columns alternating with windows, and the capitals of the columns are divided by basso-relievos emblematical of commerce. A dome, lighted by large lateral windows, and like the Pantheon at Paris, surrounded by

a colonnade of the Corinthian order, rises from the centre of the building, and is crowned by a female statue, holding a spear on which the cap of liberty is attached; this statue represents Britannia.^b

Institutions of merited celebrity prove that the varied occupations of commerce are by no means incompatible with higher pursuits. The Royal Institution of Liverpool resembles the Royal Institution of London, and both are founded on the model of the ancient Lyceum in Paris. The one in Liverpool was formed by a number of subscribers, and professors were appointed to deliver lectures on different subjects. It is, besides, the object of the institution to encourage similar societies and to render assistance to undertakings for the advancement of the sciences and arts. It was opened in 1817, and an excellent discourse, giving a view of the objects of its founders, was delivered by Mr. Roscoe, the enlightened historian of the Medici and Leo the Tenth. It might be difficult to estimate such institutions too highly by judging of the future from the past, by reflecting that since the sciences have been made to minister to the arts, the sphere of commerce has been enlarged, while the products of industry have been so much multiplied and improved that articles which princes could not formerly command, are now deemed essential to the comforts of the lower orders.

The Liverpool Athenæum is the oldest institution of the kind in England; the library consists of more than 20,000 volumes; wise regulations are enforced, and every convenience is afforded to the studious.

The Lyceum is formed by two classes of subscribers, the one to the room for newspapers, and the other to the library. A remarkable fact relative to this institution is mentioned by M. Dupin. In 1807 the news-room had 800 subscribers, and the library 893. This is worthy of notice in a country where the passion for news is, if possible, greater than in France.

The benevolent institutions are not unworthy of the town. More than fifteen hundred persons are received into the public infirmary in the course of a year. The wants of the indigent mariners that frequent the port are relieved by the Seamen's Hospital, of which the principal resources are derived from the monthly tax of sixpence, that every seaman who sails from Liverpool is obliged to contribute out of his pay. A hundred and seventy boys and sixty-six girls are boarded, clothed and educated at the Blue Coat School.^c It was at the school of industry^d in Liverpool, the earliest institution of the sort in England, that an asylum was first opened to the blind. Lastly, the simple mode of tuition adopted in the schools of Bell and Lancaster has been introduced with great success, and in one large building more than a thousand children are instructed.

But the most striking features of the town, and its most important works, are yet to be described. The provisions that have been made for the different ships that frequent the port, may bear a comparison with the first in Europe. Some notion may be formed of them from their dimensions, which shall be briefly stated. The old dock at the east end of the custom-house was constructed in 1710; it is 195 yards long, and 92 wide at the broadest part. The quay of the dry docks is 360

^a C. Dupin, Force Commerciale de la Grande Bretagne, vol. i.

^b C. Dupin, Force Commerciale, vol. ii.

^c Blue-Coat Hospital.

^d The School of Industry for the Indigent Blind.

yards in length, and they communicate with the graving docks, in which vessels are repaired. The quay of Salthouse dock, the second that was constructed, is 640 yards long. George's dock is 246 yards in length, and 100 in breadth, and its quays, which extend to the distance of 700 yards, are lined with storehouses. A communication leads from it to the graving docks, so that vessels can pass from the one to the other without entering the river. The King's dock, which is set apart for all vessels from America, the East Indies and the Baltic, is 270 yards long and 95 broad. The Prince's dock is also one of the largest, and its locks are so constructed as to let vessels in and out at half tide. The gates of the docks are 42 feet wide and 26 deep, and they are each of them provided with a cast-iron bridge. Besides these, the Duke of Bridgewater has a small dock for the vessels that frequent his canals; and the length of the quays which bound all these docks is greater than in any other town in Europe, and consequently on the globe. The management of the revenues derived from these works is vested in the corporation, but their accounts are annually examined by seven commissioners.

The manufactures of Liverpool are of secondary importance, still it possesses extensive works for making ropes and sail-cloth, numerous iron founderies, large buildings in which sugar is refined, and potteries that furnish employment to many of the poorer inhabitants.

Manchester, situated in the south-eastern angle of Lancashire, has become the great centre of the cotton trade, the greatest manufacturing town in the kingdom, and, with the exception of the capital, equal to any other in the number, industry and wealth of its inhabitants. It is besides a very ancient town, and its early history has afforded a subject of research to a learned and laborious, although not very impartial antiquary.^a It has been maintained that it was founded by an ancient British tribe, who gave it the name of *Mancenion*. It became a Roman station in the time of Agricola, and many remains of the ancient *Mancunium* have been discovered since the seventeenth century. It is mentioned as a manufacturing town in the reign of Edward the Sixth, and in the year 1560 its trade is said to have afforded employment to men, women and children. Salford bears to Manchester the same relation that Southwark does to London; and in 1757, nearly a century after the period that has been last mentioned,^b Manchester and Salford contained 19,800 inhabitants; in 1773, 42,900; in 1782, 50,000; in 1791, 70,000; and in 1811, 104,000. But with the extension of the town different villages have been united to it, and the population of Manchester and its suburbs amounted in 1821 to nearly 200,000 persons. Thus within a period of sixty-four years the number of inhabitants has increased in a greater ratio than one to nine.

To account for its rapid and extraordinary rise, much must be attributed to the advantages of its position, which have only been developed by art and ingenuity within a comparatively recent period, and in proportion to their development the population has increased. Manchester is watered by a navigable river;^c it is sur-

rounded by immense fields of coal; and lastly, it is situated near the centre of the kingdom, and numerous communications have been facilitated by the nature of the country. Thus it lies in the line of inland navigation, which extends from the western to the eastern sea, and it is equally open on the north and south by the numerous branches of the Great Trunk. The Irwell and the Mersey afford an easy access to Liverpool; it has three distinct lines of navigation through Yorkshire, and it communicates in the same manner with Nottingham, Birmingham and Bristol.

No article appears to have been made of cotton in Great Britain before the middle of the seventeenth century; even about the middle of the eighteenth, cotton, as an article of commerce, was little used in the country, and the value of the manufacture was estimated at less than £200,000. It now affords employment to more hands than any other manufacture, and it has become the most important of British exports. Europe is thus made tributary to England; the western world is supplied with the same articles from the same country, and the cottons of Manchester find a ready market in Africa and in Asia. But before the trade was so much extended, before the manufactures were so greatly multiplied and so much improved, ingenuity was exerted, and difficulties were overcome. Cotton yarn was first spun on the one-thread wheel, and the quantity obtained by this method was not only very small, but of a coarse and irregular texture. The spinning jenny by which thirty or forty threads can be woven^d at once, was at last invented by Hargreave,^e and it was next discovered that two or three threads thus woven, might be substituted for the warp, which until then had been made of linen. The admirable invention of Hargreave was brought to perfection by the celebrated Arkwright, who in the year 1775, took out a patent for machinery by which any number of spindles could be worked, and a single thread made sufficiently strong and fine for the warp. The two distinguished individuals, who have been mentioned, are deservedly considered the benefactors of their country; they have laid open new sources of wealth, created new elements of productive power, and diffused increased comfort over every class of the community. It has been seen that about the middle of the eighteenth century, the cotton manufactures were estimated at less than £200,000, but not many years after the date of these inventions, their annual value exceeded £7,000,000. The various branches of these manufactures, so diversified in their forms and uses, and which have given rise to so extensive a system of machinery, centre in Manchester, and extend around it in all directions to Carlisle and Derby on the north and south, and to Leeds and Liverpool on the east and west. Manchester is besides the depot from which the raw material is distributed over the district, and in which all the scattered manufactures are again collected to be again diffused over a wider circle, reaching to Liverpool, Hull and London, whence they are exported to every quarter of the globe.

The various means of instruction, which Manchester

^a John Whitaker, in his History of Manchester?—P.

^b More than two centuries.—P.

^c The Irwell, a branch of the Mersey.—P.

^d Spun?—The machine at first contained 8 spindles, but by modify-

ing its construction, a single person was enabled to work 40 spindles.—P.

^e Richard Hargreaves, of Blackburn. He invented the Spinning Jenny in 1767. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

possesses, have greatly contributed to its manufacturing spirit; the children of the poorest inhabitants receive an elementary education, and mechanics' institutions are open to the workmen. The modern history of Manchester affords abundant proofs that the culture of the sciences, and the theory of the useful arts, are essential to the practice and perfection of the latter. The Literary and Philosophical Society of the same place, instituted in 1781, has been raised to its present eminence by the labours of Henry, Dalton and others, who rank with the philosophers of their age.

The town is watered by the Ashton, Bolton, Manchester and Bridgewater canals,^a and by the Irwell and two of its feeders, the Irk and the Medlock. The suburb of Salford communicates with Manchester by three bridges,^b while six have been erected over the Irk, and nine over the Medlock, so that there is an easy access to every part of the town. Fine buildings and spacious squares mark the additions that have been made of late years, but in too many places it is distinguished by densely peopled streets and lanes, built apparently without regularity. It has been remarked in the account of Leeds, that it is not yet represented; in that respect it resembles Manchester, but it is not imagined that a long period can elapse before the elective franchise is extended to these important towns.

It is not many years since the numerous communications between Liverpool and Manchester were found inadequate to the conveyance of goods from the one place to the other. It was then known that the average quantity of goods thus transported, exceeded daily a thousand tons, and that in dry summers, the supply of water being diminished, the barges were not loaded with their usual freights, while in winter the navigation of the canals was sometimes retarded or interrupted by frost. The delay thus occasioned led to a very important result, or rather, to one of the greatest inventions of the age, the successful application of steam to carriages. But the projectors of this great work had to encounter many difficulties even at the outset; the bill for the Liverpool and Manchester rail-road was lost in one session, nor was it carried afterwards without much opposition, nor without incurring an expense of £70,000 in parliamentary proceedings. The most persevering opponents were those, whose influence and exalted station might have led them to support every great work, and to encourage every useful undertaking.

The Liverpool extremity of the railway terminates in a tunnel near the northern end of the Queen's Dock. The excavation, about twenty-two feet deep and forty-five wide,^c affords space to four lines of rails, and between them are lofty cast-iron pillars that support an extensive range of warehouses. The warehouse keepers receive or deliver the finer goods through hatchways in

^a The canals centering in Manchester, are: 1. the Duke of Bridgewater's canal—two branches; one towards Liverpool, entering the Mersey at Runcorn; the other (Worsley canal,) to the Worsley coal mines, continued by Leigh to the Leeds and Liverpool canal at Wigan, forming the Leigh and Manchester canal: 2. the Rochdale canal, extending by Rochdale to the Calder at Halifax: 3. the Ashton and Oldham canal, passing by Ashton under Line, and terminating at Duckenfield, in the Huddersfield canal; it sends out a branch to Stockport, and another ($\frac{1}{4}$ mile in length) to the Peak Forest canal: 4. the Bolton and Bury canal—two branches, one to each of those towns.—P.

^b Over the Irwell, on the north-west of which Salford is situated.—P.

the floors, and the waggons are propelled to the very spots beneath the hatchways, by means of turning rails communicating with the main lines, and attached to moveable wooden circles. Beyond this area or court, the breadth of the tunnel is twenty-two feet, while the height of the arch that supports it, is equal to sixteen, and the radius to eleven.^d The height from the roof of the tunnel upwards to the surface of the ground, varies from fifteen to seventy feet, and the total length of the subterranean work is not less than 2240 yards. Another tunnel, at no great distance from the former, is of smaller dimensions, about fifteen feet in width, twelve in height, and 290 yards in length. On the open road to Manchester and in the neighbourhood of Wavertree, the railway extends along deep marl,^e and beyond it, a ravine seventy feet in depth, has been cut through the solid rock of Olive Mount. This portion of the work is not the least wonderful; the perforation, if it may be so called, is little short of two miles; the traveller advances on a level twenty feet in width, and enclosed on both sides by stone walls that rise almost perpendicularly to the great height that has been already mentioned. The materials dug out of Olive Mount, have served to construct an embankment about fifty feet above the valley of Roby. A bridge that rises above the Rainhill level, and crosses it at an angle of thirty-four degrees, forms part of the turnpike road from Liverpool to Manchester. The line is carried across the Sankey valley and canal,^f and over the top masts of the barges, by a viaduct of nine arches, each fifty feet in diameter. Another viaduct of four arches conducts the railway above the valley of Newton, and a few miles beyond it, the Kenyon excavation commences, from which more than 700,000 cubic yards of sand and clay have been removed to form the neighbouring embankments. It is in this part of the work that the Kenyon and Leigh junction rail-way meets the main line, and by this means Bolton is united to Liverpool and Manchester.^g

The Chat Moss part of the work is not inferior to any other, and cultivation is now extending over this hitherto dreary waste, of which the surface is not less than twelve square miles. These green spots and cultivated fields have appeared within the last two years, forming a sort of oasis in a surrounding desert, destined ere long to become productive, and to afford a striking example of the combined power of agricultural and mechanical resources. The railway is raised above the Worsley canal by a viaduct of two arches; it then proceeds through Eccles and a portion of Salford under six bridges, crosses the Irwell by means of a handsome stone bridge, and is carried over twenty-two brick arches to Water Street, Manchester, a distance of thirty-one miles from the Liverpool station.

It is a remarkable fact in the history of rail-way com-

^c This is an open cutting (at the entrance of the great tunnel,) above which the company's warehouses are erected.—P.

^d The tunnel is 22 feet wide and 16 feet high, the sides being perpendicular to the height of five feet, and surmounted by a semicircular arch, of 11 feet radius.—P.

^e Through a deep marl cutting.—P.

^f The Sankey canal extends from the Mersey below Warrington, to the collieries near St. Helens, 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—P.

^g The Kenyon and Leigh junction joins the main line by two branches, leading to the two towns respectively. The Kenyon branch joins the Bolton and Leigh railway, and thus serves to connect Bolton with Liverpool and Manchester.—P.

munications, that the first experiment on a great scale succeeded beyond the most sanguine expectations. It was not imagined that resistance could be diminished to so great a degree, nor consequently that the engines could proceed at so great a velocity, and for the same reasons their powers of traction could not have been anticipated. It is unnecessary to add that they afford advantages until then unknown for the conveyance of goods, and that they have changed our notions of distances, for if distances be estimated by the times of performing them, Manchester is brought as near to Liverpool, as the two extremities of the metropolis are to each other. Such encouragement has been thus afforded to similar works, that surveys, plans and sections have been already made for rail-roads from Liverpool to Birmingham and onwards to London.^a

It would occupy much space to mention all the other flourishing towns in Lancashire, but some of them are too important to be passed over in silence. Bolton, about twelve miles to the north-west of Manchester, has been distinguished by the addition of Le Moor,^b from its situation in a bleak and dreary country. It contains more than twenty-five thousand inhabitants, and it is believed to have been the first place in which the improved machinery of the cotton manufactories was introduced. The town has rapidly increased in wealth and population, and its muslins and various products of industry supply the markets of Manchester. Blackburn, not more than eight miles to the east of Preston, has become one of the great marts for calicoes. The first calico-printers in the county reside in the town or the neighbourhood, and every department of this useful and curious art has been brought to a high degree of perfection.

Cheshire, or the county of Chester, is bounded on the north by Lancashire and part of Yorkshire, on the east by Staffordshire and Derbyshire, on the south by Shropshire and a detached portion of Flintshire, and on the west by Denbighshire, Flintshire and the river Dee. One of the hundreds, however, situated between the estuaries of the Dee and the Mersey, is bounded at its north-western extremity by the Irish Sea. Although the form of the county may be compared to an oval, two horns extend to the west and east on the northern side: the one or the hundred of Wirral has been already mentioned; the other, a portion of the Macclesfield hundred, stretches between Derbyshire and Yorkshire.

The former inhabitants of Cheshire appear to have lived under a separate government from the rest of England. Thus, after the conquest of the Danes by Alfred the Great, that monarch appointed Etheldred, duke or governor of the county, and it is well known that there were earls of Chester in the time of king Canute. William continued the government of the earls after the conquest, made it a county palatine, and vested Hugh Lupus with sovereign authority. The earls held an independent council or parliament and courts of law in which treason and other offences against the *Sword of Chester* were cognizable, and it is believed that the sword of Lupus is still preserved in the British museum. Barons were created by Lupus; they had their separate courts, in which they exercised the power

of life and death in offences not connected with the earl's sword or the royal authority. Some alterations were introduced by Henry the Third, and the earldom was then vested in the king's eldest son, who is to this day earl of Chester. But Henry the Eighth first made Cheshire subordinate to the crown; as it is still, however, a county palatine, the privileges which it formerly possessed are not wholly destroyed.

The area is equal to 1052 square miles, or 673,280 acres, of which less than a third part are arable. The county is in general flat, but towards the eastern borders some considerable elevations form a chain with the Derbyshire and Staffordshire hills. Another ridge, crossing the county from north to south on the western side, commences near Frodsham, extends along Delamere Forest, and terminates in the neighbourhood of Malpas. The extent of the waste lands appears the more extraordinary, as there are few or no heights in other parts of the county. It is watered by many streams, all of which find a passage to the Irish Sea by the Dee, the Weaver or the Mersey.

The brine springs form a remarkable feature in the physical geography of Cheshire. They are mostly observed in the valleys, which the Weaver and Wheelock water, and generally at no great distance from their banks. The springs near the former river are not strongly impregnated above Nantwich, but at that place they yield a great quantity of salt. They occur at irregular intervals between Nantwich and Weverham, a distance which, if the course of the river be taken into consideration, is nearly equal to six miles. The brine springs on the Wheelock extend to a greater distance, and are scattered over the tract from Lawton on the confines of the county, to Middlewich, where the river falls into the Dane. The proportion of muriate of soda in some of the springs has been found equal to 26.566. It is not wonderful that the brine springs were known to the inhabitants at a very early period, but it may excite surprise that the first bed of fossil or rock-salt was discovered so lately as the year 1670. The miners of Marbury, while they were searching for coal in the neighbourhood of Northwich, observed a bed of rock-salt thirty yards in thickness, and resting on indurated clay. The same substance, it was ascertained by repeated trials, extended to the distance of nearly half a mile in all directions from the place where it was first discovered. In 1781, the proprietors of one of these mines sunk through the indurated clay, and new beds of rock-salt were found below it. But the strata are not confined to the vicinity of Northwich; others are worked near Lawton, and in different parts of the county. Thus, in the township of Wilton, a circular excavation, 108 yards in diameter, is supported by twenty-five immense pillars of rock-salt, and yields annually about 156,000 tons. It has been already seen that the south-eastern portion of Cheshire abounds in coal; the other mineral substances are of secondary importance, but it may be remarked that lead, cobalt and copper are obtained at Alderley Edge, and that the last metal has been worked on the Peckforton hills.

The soil is very various, but clay and sand are perhaps the most common, and according as one or other of them

^a Booth's Description of the Manchester and Liverpool Railway.
VOL. III.—NO. 59. 68

^b Bolton le Moors, or Bolton in the Moor.—P.

predominates, they form sandy or clayey loams. The heaths or marsh lands are extensive, and the largest tracts are those of Macclesfield or Delamere Forest, Frodsham marsh and others on the north-eastern border.^a Great quantities of potatoes are raised in the county, and a ready market is obtained for them in the towns of Liverpool and Manchester. Every branch of husbandry connected with the dairy is well understood, and not fewer than 11,500 tons of cheese are annually made in Cheshire, and of these more than four thousand are exported.

Chester, the capital of the county, contains more than twenty thousand inhabitants, and it reckons sixty-two vessels, measuring more than 4071 tons; these are all that belong to Chester, at a former period, one of the most flourishing ports in the west of England, the mart of the Irish linens and other products that were exchanged for English produce; it is almost unnecessary to add that the trade has been transferred to Liverpool. The town is situated on an eminence, which commands an extensive view of a romantic country, and the Dee waters its ancient ramparts on the south. *Castrum*, the ancient name of Chester, shows that it was once a Roman military station. The two principal streets which cross each other at right angles on the summit of the hill on which the city stands, were formerly the roads that communicated with the ancient camp. These streets lead to the four gates of the city; they were cut out of the hill, which is composed of a soft stone, that is easily worked. The ground floors form a range of shops, and an open portico or piazza above them is surmounted by one or two stories. The story on the level of the portico, forms the ground floor on the back part of the houses. The manner in which the streets are built, may be uncommon, but it is by no means convenient; the shops are small and narrow; the porticos low, irregular and supported by massive columns. The preceding remark is inapplicable to the suburbs, which are not only larger than the town, but much better built.

Chester is watered by two canals; the one communicates with Nantwich, where a branch leads to Shropshire and Montgomeryshire; the other passes to Liverpool, and connects the Dee with the Mersey.^b The making of gloves forms the principal branch of industry, but shot, lead and white lead are manufactured on a great scale. In the shot works there is a tower more than a hundred feet high, and the melted lead is let fall from its summit into a receiver filled with water at the bottom.

The cathedral, an irregular and heavy pile, appears as if it were fallen into decay from the mouldering quality of the stone with which it is built, and a considerable portion of the original structure, now in the state of a

^a Macclesfield Forest is on the borders of Derbyshire, near the town of Macclesfield. Delamere Forest is in the western part of the county, on the ridge of hills separating the valley of the Dee from that of the Weaver. Frodsham is situated near the junction of the Weaver and Mersey. A range of heathy hills runs along the eastern border of the county, connected with those of Staffordshire and Derbyshire.—P.

^b These canals form parts of a system called the Ellesmere and Chester Canal. It commences in the Mersey at Ellesmere Port, and crosses the Hundred of Wirral to Chester (this part called the Wirral line of the Ellesmere canal;) thence extends to Nantwich (forming the Chester canal,) whence the Birmingham and Liverpool canal extends by Wolverhampton to Birmingham: the Ellesmere canal leaves the Chester canal at Harleston, two miles west of Nantwich, and proceeds by Ellesmere to Frankton, where it divides into three branches—one south-east to Shrewsbury (incomplete on the Shrewsbury side,) one north-west to Llandisilio on the Dee, in Denbighshire, and one south-west to Llanymynech, where the Montgomeryshire canal com-

picturesque ruin, forms part of the abbey of St. Werburgh, out of which the see of Chester was founded at the dissolution. The castle of Chester was long one of the petty fortresses in the kingdom, but the greater portion of it has been taken down, and a county-hall, courts of justice, and a prison, are erected on its site. The last building is worthy of notice on account of its interior, which is constructed according to a panoptic plan, so that the keeper can survey the whole of it from the windows of his apartment. The cells are situated in a semicircular building, divided into six equal parts, and each of them communicates with a garden; by this means the prisoners are kept apart from each other, and divided into classes according to the nature of their offences.

In the north-eastern part of the county, and near the wild and bleak tract, that is still called Macclesfield Forest, is situated the market town of Macclesfield, which although important from the industry of its inhabitants, was formerly little better than a village. Not fewer than sixteen silk mills are erected in the town or neighbourhood, and different branches of the cotton manufacture have been introduced with success.

The small town of Nantwich^c may be mentioned on account of its salt mines, which have been worked since the beginning of the last century, and which are little inferior in extent to those at Wieliczka.^d

The Grand Trunk canal, which has been more than once mentioned,^e pursues a course of thirty miles in the county of Chester. A tunnel, which it enters at Preston on the Hill, is equal to 1241 yards in length, eighteen feet in height, and fourteen in width. The same canal passes through two other tunnels in the neighbourhood of Saltersfield; the one is three hundred and fifty yards in length, and the other more than five hundred and seventy.^f

The inland county of Derby is bounded on the north by Yorkshire and part of Cheshire, on the east by Nottinghamshire, on the south by Leicestershire, and on the west by Staffordshire and Cheshire. The limits of the county, it may be easily supposed, are very irregular, and it is doubtful that its superficial extent has been correctly determined; according to one of the latest measurements it is not less than 720,640 acres, and of these a great number are cultivated. The most prominent part of the central chain, which extends southwards from Scotland, and forms a natural boundary between the eastern and western sides of England, covers a considerable portion of Derbyshire, particularly the northern and western districts, and terminates in the same county. Of the numerous rivers that water it, the most remarkable are the Derwent, the Dove and the Trent. The first, which

mences, and thence extends up the valley of the Severn by Welshpool to Newtown.—P.

^c Nantwich.

^d "The Chester canal extends to Nantwich, a town of 5000 inhabitants, which carries on a great trade in cheese and salt. Near the town is a large salt mine, which has been wrought for more than a century, and which, although of less extent, presents a spectacle analogous to that of Wieliczka." (M. B.)—This is a mistake. The salt works at Nantwich are brine springs. The mines of rock salt are near Northwich; the largest in the township of Wilton. The pits of rock salt in Cheshire were first discovered in 1670.—Northwich is the only salt town in Cheshire, that possesses mines of rock salt. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e See note ^f p. 1211.

^f There is a tunnel at Barton in Great Budworth, 572 yards long, and another at Saltersford or Saltersfield, in the same parish, 350 yards long.—(Rees' Cyc. art. Canals.)—P.

must not be confounded with the three rivers of the same name in Yorkshire, Durham and Cumberland, rises in the High Peak, almost divides the county, and joins the Trent on the borders of Leicestershire. The second runs nearly parallel to the former, between Derbyshire and Staffordshire, and falls into the same river. The Trent crosses the southern angle of the county, and separates it from Staffordshire and Nottinghamshire.^a

The loftiest hills are the Axe-edge and the Kinder-scout, but they are much inferior in elevation to the mountains in Cumberland, Westmoreland or Wales. Although Derbyshire does not possess romantic lakes and waterfalls, it abounds in natural curiosities which are not to be found in the northern counties. A laborious writer^b has collected an alphabetical list of 700 hills in the county and its confines, fifty narrow valleys or ravines, ninety mineral springs, and five hundred collieries, of which, however, not more than a half, and many of these no longer worked, are situated within the limits of Derbyshire. The caverns, the natural excavations, and the wonders of the Peak, as they are called, have been described by numerous writers. The most remarkable of the caverns may be briefly mentioned. Poole's Hole near Buxton, is a fissure in a calcareous mass, where a narrow and winding entrance forms a passage into a spacious cavern, of which the roof, floor and sides are adorned with stalactites. A cavern near Castleton,^c a village in the Peak, forms a subterranean passage of 750 yards, which is broken in several places by narrow pools. The sides are composed of different coloured spars, and a petrifying water continually exudes from them. Mam-Tor in the neighbourhood of Castleton has been called the Shivering Mountain, on account of the decomposed shale, that falls from a precipice into the valley below it. Elden Hole, a perpendicular chasm, not more than three miles from the last place, was long considered unfathomable, but by more correct examinations, its depth has been reduced to seventy yards.

The mineral products of the same hills are numerous and valuable. Lead, the most important of any, has been obtained in great quantities, and one sort of it,^d which appears to be confined to Derbyshire, is found in a vertical position, and explodes in mining. Many of these mines are exhausted, but calamine is still obtained in their vicinity. Lime of the best quality is burnt in the Lower Peak,^e and conveyed to considerable distances. Iron ore is chiefly dug on the north-eastern side, and it has already been observed that coal is most plentiful on the same side, and that the strata extend from north to south. The Derbyshire spar^f is wrought into a variety of ornamental articles, and the neighbouring hills are rich in marble, of which the finest kinds are worked at Ashton. The numerous quarries yield different kinds of stone, and gypsum, not the least valuable of their products, abounds in the neighbourhood of Chellaston. Of the numerous mineral springs, the

^a The Trent first separates Staffordshire from Derbyshire, then crosses the southern extremity of the latter, and finally separates it from Leicestershire, and for a shorter distance, from Nottinghamshire.—P.

^b Farey.

^c Called Peak Cavern, or Peak's Hole.—P.

^d Called *Slickenside*.—P.

^e Particularly in the neighbourhood of Crich.—P.

most celebrated or those of Buxton and Matlock belong to the sulphureous class.^g The first were known to the Romans; they are used both externally and internally, and are chiefly resorted to on account of scorbutic, nervous and rheumatic affections. Their temperature is about 82° of Fahrenheit, and the principal difference between them and those of Matlock, consists in the lower temperature of the latter.

Derby, the capital, and almost the only populous town in the county, is situated in the southern part of Derbyshire, and watered by the Derwent, of which the streams set in motion the machinery of the silk and cotton manufactures in the town and neighbourhood. The raw materials and the manufactures are conveyed by means of the Derby canal, which consists of three branches that meet in the same city. The first crosses the Grand Trunk, and falls into the Trent at Swarkstone, the second extends northwards, and the third communicates with the Erewash canal. It was on the banks of the river that the first mill for winding and twisting silk was erected in 1718, by John Lombe, who having discovered the secret from the Italians, is supposed to have been poisoned by them. It may be doubted that there is at present any mill in Italy, of which the machinery is so perfect; a single wheel puts in motion more than 25,000 reel bobbins, and nearly 2000 star-wheels. It may be added that any one of the reels can be stopped at pleasure, and that every time the wheel goes round, which is thrice in a minute, it makes 73,728 yards of thread. The silk and cotton manufactures do not, however, afford occupation to all the industrious inhabitants; the same place is also famous for its porcelain, which in brilliancy of colour, and fineness of texture, may bear a comparison with that of China. Many persons find employment in the marble works, or in turning vases, urns and other ornaments of the spar, which abounds in the vicinity. Other individuals are employed in the iron and lead works, and it is calculated that four-fifths of the inhabitants are engaged in these different branches of industry.^h

Derby is divided into five parishes, and the Church of All Saints is considered the finest in the town, although a rich Gothic tower appears out of place in a Grecian building. Of the other edifices, the most remarkable are the county hall, the town hall and the county gaol, and it may be observed that the infirmary, which was finished in 1810, is one of the most perfect institutions of the kind in England.ⁱ

Chesterfield, the only other important place in the county, rises on the western side of the Rother. Like Derby, it is noted for its cotton and silk manufactories, but several potteries and iron works have been established in the neighbourhood, from which the fuel and the ore are obtained. The products of the lead and the coal mines are conveyed by a canal, that extends from the same place to the Trent.

It has been supposed that the celebrated Sir Richard

^f Fluor spar.—P.

^g Buxton and Matlock waters are simply thermal, with scarcely more mineral impregnation than common water. There are, however, several sulphureous springs in the county, of which the most noted is that of Keddlestone.—P.

^h Capper.

ⁱ The town of Derby is mentioned in history, as the furthest point to which the rebels of 1745 advanced.

Arkwright was a native of the county; this, however, is a mistake; he was born at Preston in Lancashire. But the small town of Tunstead in Derbyshire, was the birth-place of Mr. James Brindley, the greatest engineer of his age, and who in some respects may be compared with Arkwright; both were self-educated, both rose to eminence from the humblest rank, and the genius of both is displayed in the increased resources of their country.

The inland county of Nottingham is bounded on the west by Derbyshire, on the north by Yorkshire, on the east by Lincolnshire, and on the south by Leicestershire. The area does not amount to more than 800 square miles, but the greatest length of the county is equal to fifty, and the greatest breadth to nearly twenty-six. Situated between the Lincolnshire flats on the one hand, and the Derbyshire hills on the other, the climate is comparatively dry, wholesome and not unfavourable to the growth of useful plants. The soil and the face of the country are sufficiently varied, but the former may be included under four divisions. The limestone and coal district is formed by a narrow stripe, which commences at the Derbyshire border, and stretches in a south-east direction to Bilborough and Wollaton. A much broader belt, which extends to the northern extremity of the county, consists chiefly of sand and gravel. The length of this district is about thirty miles, and the breadth varies from seven to ten. In this part of Nottinghamshire is situated the ancient royal forest of Sherwood, the scene of many fabulous adventures. It remained long destitute of trees, and without cultivation, but the greater part of it has been enclosed, and many large parks have been granted to different proprietors by the crown; these have been brought into tillage, and adorned with thriving trees. The turnip husbandry has been introduced with great success in the same district, which is equally fruitful in barley and other sorts of grain. If the level land along the banks of the Trent and the Soar be excepted, the clay district occupies the rest of the county. The former, which appears on both banks of the river throughout an extent of thirty miles, with an average breadth of nearly six, is in general a fruitful vegetable mould, resting on a bottom of sand or gravel, that appears in some places at the surface. The clay thus divided into two parts, which are generally called the North and South Clay Divisions, is not of so tenacious a quality as in other counties, a circumstance which must be attributed to its mixture with sand. The northern division includes the picturesque vale of Belvoir,^a which is little inferior in fertility to any other in England. The Nottinghamshire

^a The Vale of Belvoir is situated in the South Clay Division to the south of Newark.—The natural divisions of the county may be better defined thus: the Coal and Limestone District forms a belt of about two miles wide, along the borders of Derbyshire, from the Trent northwards; the Sand and Gravel District forms a parallel belt, about seven miles wide, from the Trent to the northern boundary; the Clay District occupies all the eastern part of the county, with the exception of the valley of the Trent, called Trent Bank, which divides it into two parts—the North Clay, and the South Clay Divisions, each about five miles wide; the former on the north of the Trent, from Nottingham to Gainsborough; the latter on the south, from Newark to Leicestershire, including the Vale of Belvoir and the Wolds.—P.

^b Lowe's Agricultural Survey of Nottinghamshire.

^c The Nottingham canal extends from the Trent, near Nottingham, north-west fifteen miles, to the junction of the Cromford and Erewash canals, at Langley bridge. From this point, the Cromford canal pro-

ceeds eighteen miles north-west, chiefly in Derbyshire, by Crich to Cromford, and the Erewash canal, south 11½ miles, to the Trent, opposite the mouth of the Soar.—P.

Wolds extend on the south; they were formerly unproductive, but are now enclosed and in a state of improvement.^b The farmers devote their attention to the raising of grain for home consumption or exportation; the rearing of cattle, and the management of the dairy, are objects of secondary importance. Hops are much cultivated in many parts of the North Clay, and in the central districts, particularly in the neighbourhood of Ollerton and Betford. They are inferior in value to the Kentish hops, and are supposed to be of a coarser and stronger flavour.

Coal, lime and gypsum are the most valuable of the mineral products. The first commences near Teversall, and runs southwards to Trowell and Wollaton, including in its range almost every parish within two or three miles of the Erewash. The second lies on the east of the former, between it and the sand district; it forms an equally long but somewhat narrower stripe, and covers the coal, which sinks beneath it. Much gypsum is raised near Newark, and converted into plaster of Paris.

The same county abounds in rivers, but none is so celebrated as the Trent, which after crossing Staffordshire and Derbyshire, enters the south-western extremity of Nottinghamshire, winds along the eastern side, and diffuses fertility over the meadows, which it waters. The same river, to which the others are tributary, partly separates the county from Lincolnshire. The Mann, the Meden and the Poulter, flowing from the middle and north-western part of Nottinghamshire, unite and form the Idle, which falls into the Trent near its confluence with the Ouse.

The artificial channels, which have been cut at different periods, have greatly contributed to improve the trade, agriculture and industry of the inhabitants. The most of them run in different directions from the Trent near Nottingham. The Nottingham canal extends from the town, fifteen miles in a north-west direction, through the county, and onwards to Cromford in Derbyshire.^c The Trent canal proceeds from Nottingham in a south-west direction, unites the Trent with the Mersey, and communicates with the former by different branches.^d Lastly, by means of the Leicester and Grand Junction canals, the first of which enters the Trent a short way above Nottingham, the inland navigation extends to the metropolis.^e

Although the inhabitants of Nottingham are engaged in different branches of industry, the staple manufacture is that of silk and cotton stockings. They are all wrought on the stocking frame, a simple and ingenious machine, which, it has already been remarked, was

ceeds eighteen miles north-west, chiefly in Derbyshire, by Crich to Cromford, and the Erewash canal, south 11½ miles, to the Trent, opposite the mouth of the Soar.—P.

^d The Trent canal is a side cut of 10 miles, along the Trent, from Trent bridge, near Nottingham, to the commencement of the Grand Trunk (Trent and Mersey) canal at Sawley. (See note ^c p. 1211.) It is connected with the Nottingham canal by the Erewash canal.—P.

^e This line is formed by the Loughborough and Leicestershire navigations, (the former commencing in the Trent at the mouth of the Soar, and proceeding up the course of the last river to near Loughborough, and the latter continuing it up the same river to Leicester;) then the Union canal, from Leicester to Market Harborough; the Grand Union canal, (leaving the Union canal near Foxton, two miles W. of Market Harborough, and entering the Grand Junction canal near Buckley wharf, north-east of Daventry;) and lastly, the Grand Junction canal, to London.—P.

invented in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, by Mr. William Lee, a native of the county. It appears that the number of frames amounted about the middle of the last century to twelve hundred, and that exclusively of weavers, they furnished employment to four hundred workmen, to many winders, sizers and seamers. The present number exceeds twelve thousand, and in consequence of the demand for silk and cotton in the manufactories, the spinning of these stuffs has been introduced into the town, into different parts of the county, and also into Derbyshire. Many hands are employed in manufacturing shawls and lace for veils, but the other branches of industry, the tanning and malting trades, for which Nottingham was formerly distinguished, have fallen into decay. It contained 34,253 inhabitants in 1811; ten years afterwards, in 1821, the number had increased to 40,415; but about thirty years ago, when the population was comparatively small, the mechanics attributed low wages and want of employment to the use of machinery; conspiring to abolish it, they became incendiaries and frame-breakers. The vanity of the attempt was only equalled by its injustice, and experience shows what have since been the results of machinery in the same town, for the manufactories are now more than doubled, a half is added to the population, and the condition of the working classes is improved. It is not improbable that most of the English workmen are now aware that the abridgment of labour, or additional facility of production, tends both to diffuse wealth and to increase their comforts.

The town rises on a rock above the meadows watered by the Trent. The same rock is of so soft and porous a texture, that all the cellars are cut out of it, and in the largest are deposited the malt liquors, for which Nottingham was formerly distinguished. It is long since the ancient walls, the fortress and the gates were destroyed; a castle, however, was erected near the site of the fortress by the Duke of Newcastle in the short reign of James the Second. It was on a neighbouring hill that Charles the First hoisted his standard in 1642, the signal for the commencement of the civil wars; but the same height is now intersected by four streets, those of King, Charles, Standard and Hill.

The infirmary is a large building to which additions have been made, in consequence of a donation of £20,000 from an unknown individual. Other institutions, such as hospitals for the relief of the aged and the poor, have been founded by benevolent persons.

Newark, the town next in importance to the capital, is watered by a branch of the Trent, and situated on the great northern road near the eastern confines of the county. It is considered the greatest market for corn in this part of the kingdom, and it carries on an extensive trade in malt, wool, cattle and coal. Limestone and gypsum abound in the neighbourhood; the latter is converted into plaster of Paris, and exported by sea to London.

The august ruins of a castle form the finest ornaments of the place. It is said to have been built by a bishop of Lincoln in the reign of king Stephen, and it is added

that it was long called the *New-Work*, a name which was given to the town. It is certain that king John died within its walls in the year 1216, and at the same place the unfortunate Charles surrendered himself after the defeat at Naseby to the Scotch army, that were then besieging Newark. At no very remote period, the great road in the vicinity was often impassable in consequence of inundations. To obviate this inconvenience, an act was obtained for a new one in 1770. Thirteen bridges of various sizes, and consisting of ninety-four arches, now carry it above the reach of the floods to Muskham bridge, a distance of a mile and a half. This excellent road, which forms a fine approach to the town, is the work of the celebrated Smeaton.

The ancient town of Mansfield, the only other place of any consequence, is situated on the western side of Sherwood Forest, about fourteen miles from Nottingham. It carries on a trade in corn and malt, and the inhabitants are occupied in different branches of industry, but principally in cotton spinning, hosiery, lace and stocking manufactories. The largest cotton mill has 2400 spindles, and furnishes employment to nearly 200 persons. An easy outlet to these manufactures and to the mineral products that are worked in the neighbourhood, is obtained by means of a cast-iron rail-way, which extends from Mansfield to the Pinxton canal, a distance of more than seven miles.

The county of Leicester is contiguous to Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire on the north, to the latter county and Warwickshire on the west,^a to Northamptonshire on the south, and to Rutlandshire and Lincolnshire on the east. The limits are for the most part artificial; but the Soar and the Trent form part of the northern boundary, while the small river Anker, and Watling Street, a celebrated Roman road, are the limits on the Warwickshire side, and the Avon and the Welland separate it from Northamptonshire. According to a return to the House of Lords, the superficial extent is equal to 804 square miles, the greatest length to forty-five, the utmost breadth to thirty, and the circumference to a hundred and fifty. It was inhabited by the *Coritani* before the invasion of the Romans, who included it in the province of *Flavia Cæsariensis*. It formed part of Mercia in the time of the Heptarchy, and its present name is supposed to be derived from the Saxon word *Ledcesterscyre*, which signifies a fortress on the *Scyr*, the ancient name of the Soar.^b

The country is varied by hills and plains; the declivities of the former serve to carry off the water, but their altitude is in few places a barrier to cultivation. The capital is situated on a plain in the centre of the county; the land rises towards the east and the south, but the loftiest heights are those in the west towards Charnwood Forest. Their elevation, however, is not great, for it appears from the Trigonometrical Survey, that no part of Leicestershire is higher than nine hundred or lower than one hundred feet above the level of the sea. The central plain is watered by the Soar, the principal river in the county, and the outlet of the streams from the surrounding hills. All the waters of Leicestershire

(lea,) and *ceaster* (Lat. *castrum*;) a city—the Roman stations or camps (*castra*) having become the sites of the old Saxon towns.) (Bailey's Dict.)—The Soar, anciently the Leire. (whence the name of the county.) (Luckombe.)—P.

^a It is contiguous for a short distance on the west to Staffordshire.—P.
^b *Ledcestrescire*. (Rees' Cyc.)—This signifies the shire (Sax. *scirc*, from *scyr*, to divide) of *Ledceastre*.—Leicester was formerly written *Lege-cestria*, *Legeo-cestre*, and in the Saxon annals, *Leger-cestre*. (Rees' Cyc.)—Leicester (Saxon, *Leagceaster*, from *leag*, fallow ground

serve to enlarge the Trent,^a and thus to form that admirable system of inland navigation, which has so much contributed to the prosperity of England.^b But Leicestershire is more distinguished as a pastoral than a manufacturing county, and the soil has been described as a fine mixture of clay and sand, without the sterility of the one, or the too great tenacity of the other. It is remarkable that the highest districts are in general the most productive, and the lowest, the least fruitful; in other words, the clay of the valleys does not appear to be tempered with a sufficient proportion of sand. According to the agricultural survey, many farms in the south-eastern and central districts are wholly pastoral, but in the north and west a portion of each farm is generally reserved for grain and other crops. The number of acres under occasional tillage is supposed to be equal to 240,000.^c At no distant period, before the fields in this fruitful county were enclosed, it produced plenty of corn, but grass has been found to be more profitable, and every branch of husbandry is now subservient to the rearing of stock. Of the sheep there are three varieties, the Forest, the Old Leicester and the New Leicester; the two first, however, are almost superseded by the last, which are now scattered over most parts of England. This valuable variety was the result of experiments undertaken by Mr. Bakewell of Dishley, who appears to have made the most valuable properties not only of that useful domestic animal, but also of the horse and the ox, subject to his control.

Stilton-cheese is made near Melton-Mowbray, and about two hundred tons of it are sold at the Leicester October fair. Five thousand tons of cheese are annually exported by the Trent from this and the adjoining counties, and it is not supposed that Leicester contributes less than 1,500, the produce of 7,500 milch-cows.^d Coal and lime, the most valuable minerals, are obtained on the borders of Derbyshire. Iron ore is common on the Ashby wolds, but as it is only found below the depth of six hundred feet, the metal does not pay the expense of extracting it. Granite is exported from Mount Sorrel, and slate from the eastern side of Charnwood Forest.

The manufacture of wool is the staple one of the county, and Leicester, the capital, is only inferior to Nottingham in this department of industry; the coarser goods are more common in the former place, and the finer sorts in the latter. It is calculated that the different branches of the hosiery manufactures furnish employment to seven or eight thousand inhabitants of Leicester, and it is certain that in prosperous seasons more than five thousand dozens of stockings have been made in a week. The same place boasts of a high antiquity; anterior to the Roman invasion, it was the chief town in the country of the *Coritani*, and it was known at a later period as the *Rata* of Antoninus. Situated on the Fosse-way, many valuable antiquities have been found near it, and coins, which might afford a complete series from the reign of Nero to that of Valerius. It was afterwards the seat of

a mint, and Saxon money struck at Leicester, is still preserved in more than one collection. The town became memorable at a later period as the seat of a parliament, that enforced by law the burning of heretics. Lastly, in an abbey, of which the ruins still adorn the neighbourhood, the ambitious Wolsey ended his days in poverty and disgrace.

It appears from Domesday book, that Leicestershire then contained 36,000 inhabitants. The extent of surface is equal to 816 square miles, so that the ratio of the population to the surface, must have been about forty-four to every square mile; but according to the returns of 1831, the present number is greater than two hundred and forty. This fact is the more remarkable as Leicestershire has been surpassed by many counties in the career of commerce and wealth.

The small county of Rutland, the least in England, is encompassed on the north by Lincolnshire, on the west by Leicestershire, and on the south-east by Northamptonshire. It contains an area of 200 square miles, but it is nowhere more than eighteen miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. The vale of Catmose, in the central district, is the largest and most fruitful in Rutland, but numerous small vallies are intersected by gently sloping hills, extending from east to west, and bounding many varied and romantic views. Different parts of the county are fruitful in corn, while others are well stocked with sheep. The most prevalent soil consists of a strong red loam, mixed with keal,^e and resting on clay. But in the vale of Catmose, the same loam is mixed with clay, and to that circumstance its fertility has been ascribed.^f Although there are many sorts of soil in the southern and south-eastern districts, they are on the whole the least fruitful in the county. The mineral products are of secondary importance; limestone is worked in different places; numerous chalybeate springs denote the existence of iron ore, but it has not yet been discovered in any part of Rutlandshire. Many brooks and streams enlarge the two principal rivers, the Welland and the Guash.^g The first separates Rutlandshire from Northamptonshire, while the second flows through the middle of the county. No branch of manufacturing industry is established on a great scale; but the trade of different places has been improved, and the conveyance of agricultural products facilitated, since the Oakham canal was completed. It commences at the Melton Navigation,^h waters Wymondham and Market-Overton, and extends to Oakham on the north of the vale of Catmose. Of Oakham, the chief town, it may be sufficient to remark that it contains only 1700 inhabitants.

The inland county of Northampton is bounded on the north by Leicestershire, Rutlandshire, and Lincolnshire, on the east and south by Cambridgeshire, Huntingdonshire, Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire and part of Oxfordshire, and on the west by Oxfordshire and Warwickshire. As it touches on not fewer than nine counties, it may be inferred that it is of a very elongated and irregular form.

^a The streams on the south-eastern border flow into the Welland, and on the south-western, into the Avon.—P.

^b "The most elevated district, called Charnwood Forest, gives rise to six rivers, all of which unite with the Trent, and may thus be considered the centre of that great system of inland navigation, which has contributed so greatly to the progress of agriculture and manufactures." (M. B.)—P.

^c Pitt's Survey of Leicestershire.

^d Pitt, Idem.

^e Small angular fragments of stone, such as limestone, sandstone, or slate.—P.

^f Parkinson's Agricultural Survey of Rutland.

^g The Guash or Wash, a branch of the Welland.—P.

^h At the termination of the Melton-Mowbray navigation.—This last leaves the Leicester navigation 8 miles above Loughborough, and follows the course of the Wreake and the Eye rivers, twelve miles, to Melton-Mowbray.—P.

It appears indeed that it is sixty-five miles long, twenty-five in breadth in some places, and only eight in others. According to the same measurement, it contains 965 square miles, and according to the last population returns, the number of inhabitants to each square mile is greater than a hundred and eighty-five. It has been long noted for its healthful climate, its varied sites, and the number of country-houses with which it is adorned. The ancient forests, still of considerable extent, and still well wooded, occupy nearly 80,000 acres; of these the largest are that of Rockingham on the north, and those of Salcey and Whittlebury^a on the south. They afford shelter to different sorts of game, and the wild cat, the fiercest of the English quadrupeds, still frequents them. They must be considered, however, a very inadequate compensation for the advantages of coal, of which the county is destitute, and of which the high price presses severely on the lower orders. Northampton is principally distinguished as a grazing county, but the grain that is raised for exportation forms no small portion of its products. Wheat, flour, oats, beans and woad for dyeing are exported. Fruitful meadows are scattered in different directions, and the largest tract extends on both sides of the Nen from Northampton to Peterborough. The north-eastern districts, contiguous to Lincolnshire and Cambridgeshire, abound in marshes, and the Peterborough Fen, which reaches to the neighbourhood of Crowland, is not inferior to the richest meadows in England. Many large horses of the Leicestershire breed, are reared in these pastures; the oxen too, are remarkable for their size and weight; they are, however, of no particular kind, but are bought at different fairs, and fattened in the county.

The ground rises on the north and north-west, and becomes gradually lower towards the south-eastern boundary. The loftiest eminences extend along the north-western borders, and in the neighbourhood of Daventry, they reach the height of more than eight hundred feet above the level of the sea. The Nen, the principal river, has its source in this part of Northamptonshire, traverses it nearly its whole length, and is enlarged by many streams. The Cherwell, which like the Nen, flows into the eastern sea, and the Leam, which discharges itself into the western, rise in the same part of the county. Communications have been improved or extended by numerous canals. A branch of the Oxford canal, the first which was cut in Northamptonshire, extends westwards, and communicates with others in the populous districts round Birmingham.^b The Grand Junction commences in Northamptonshire,^c and advances southwards in an unbroken line to the Thames.^d The Leicester canal proceeding in an opposite direction, opens a communication with the Trent and Mersey. These opposite lines are joined by the Grand Union, which enters the Junction near Daventry, and the Leicester at Market-Scarborough.^e

Northampton, the capital of the county, is pleasantly situated on an eminence above the waters of the Nen.

^a Whittlewood or Whittlebury.—P.

^b The Oxford canal runs a short distance in Northamptonshire, on its western confines, near the origin of the Grand Junction canal. The branch, here referred to, is the Warwick and Napton canal, leaving the Oxford canal at Napton in Warwickshire, and extending to the town of Warwick, where it joins the Warwick and Birmingham canal.—P.

It consists of four principal streets, with which several others communicate, and the houses are uniformly built of a kind of freestone that hardens by exposure to the air. The inhabitants carry on a trade in shoes, stockings and lace, but more individuals are employed in making boots and shoes than in any other branch of industry. The mart for these articles is not confined to London; many of them are exported to the colonies. The market-place is built in the form of a square about six hundred feet in length; it is there that the horse fairs are held, to which the dealers from London and York repair, and which for carriage and saddle horses, are considered equal to any in England. The same town is mentioned in history on account of the number of councils which were held in it, and also on account of its monastic institutions, its formidable castle, and its military importance. King John, offended with the citizens of London, commanded the exchequer to be removed to Northampton in the tenth year of his reign. Edward the First made it frequently a place of residence, and one of the numerous crosses, which that monarch erected to the memory of Queen Eleanor, is still to be seen in the neighbourhood. In the year 1460, a memorable battle was fought in the adjoining meadows on the banks of the Nen, between the forces of Henry the Sixth, and the Yorkists, in which the former were defeated, and the king taken prisoner by the earl of Warwick.

The small town of Peterborough on the borders of Huntingdonshire, was formerly distinguished for its monastery, which Henry the Eighth changed by letters patent into an episcopal see, and in the same manner, the conventual church was converted into a cathedral. It is a building of irregular architecture, in which the Norman style predominates; the interior may be mentioned for its sepulchral monuments, particularly for those of Catharine of Arragon, and the unfortunate Mary, queen of Scotland, who was buried there in 1587.^f Peterborough is the least episcopal city in England, but it is a place of considerable industry and trade; many of the inhabitants are engaged in manufacturing stockings, and the commerce consists in coal, corn, malt and timber, that are transported by means of the Nen, which is navigable for barges. The same town was the birth-place of Dr. William Paley, and it may be added that the celebrated Dryden was a native of the county. The ruins of Fotheringay Castle may be traced near the village of the same name. It was there that Richard the Third was born, and it was there also that the queen of the Scots terminated her wretched fate, and suffered with the utmost fortitude the death to which she was unjustly condemned. The same castle was demolished by James the First, and little more than the moats remain to mark its site.

The county of Huntingdon is enclosed by those of Bedford, Cambridge, and Northampton. The first is contiguous to it on the south-west, the second on the south-east and north-east, and the last on the north and west. The boundaries are very irregular and mostly artificial;

^c In the Oxford canal, at Braunston, near the western confines.—P.

^d Through Northamptonshire, Bucks, Hertfordshire, and Middlesex, to London.—P.

^e See notes ^d and ^c p. 1220.

^f The remains of the queen were afterwards removed by her son to Westminster Abbey.

the area is supposed to be equal to 310 square miles, so that if Rutland and Middlesex be excepted, Huntingdonshire is less than any other county in England. It is only distinguished as a farming county; its manufactures are too insignificant to require notice. The Ouse, which enters Huntingdonshire from Bedfordshire, passes by St. Neots, Huntingdon and St. Ives, is navigable throughout its course, and waters meadows that have been long noted for their fertility; of these, Portholme-mead^a in the vicinity of Huntingdon, is not the least celebrated; such too, are the south-eastern districts;^b the central and the western are more varied, fruitful in corn, and by no means destitute of trees. The uplands were formerly covered with woods, and well adapted for the chase; hence they were denominated the *Hunting-Downs*, from which the county derives its name. The Nen, which separates Huntingdonshire from Northamptonshire, forms several lakes or meres,^c and the marshy districts on the north-east are composed of fens which are connected with those of the last county, and with the extensive tract that has been denominated the Bedford Level, that passes through Cambridgeshire and Lincolnshire. Whittlesea-Mere, although much smaller than it once was, is equal in length to six miles, and in breadth to three, and covers an area of 1570 acres; like the others in the same county, it abounds with wild fowl. The fen-lands have been estimated at 44,000 acres, or rather more than a fifth part of the surface but of these more than 10,000, which have been drained, afford good pasturage. Although the village of Stilton is famous for its cheese, the cattle are admitted to be of an inferior kind.^d

The county contains no towns of much importance, but it may be remarked that Huntingdon, the capital, is finely situated on an eminence above the rich and verdant meadows on the northern bank of the Ouse, which being navigable for barges and small vessels, enables the inhabitants to carry on a trade in coals, timber and other articles that are imported at Lynn. The town consists principally of a single street, extending more than a mile in a north-western direction from the bank of the river. It is connected by means of a causeway and three bridges with the ancient village of Godmanchester, of which it is said to have been originally a dependence. It is probable, however, that it was once more important than at present, as it formerly contained fifteen parishes, a number which has since been reduced to two. Huntingdon is well known as the birth-place of Oliver Cromwell, and the parish register of the year 1599, in which his baptism is recorded, is still preserved with great care.

The inland county of Bedford is bounded on the north by Huntingdonshire and Northamptonshire, on the west by Buckinghamshire, on the south by the same county

^a Portsholme Mead (Ed. Enc.) Portsholm, or Portmead (Luckcombe).—P.

^b The borders of the Ouse, flowing across the S. E. part, consist of a tract of most beautiful and fertile meadows, of which Portsholme Mead, near Huntingdon, is particularly celebrated. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c The Nen forms the northern boundary of the shire. On the north-eastern confines are several large meres or pools. The Nen sinks into the fens below Peterborough, but it is not directly connected with the meres, nor can it be considered as forming them.—P.

^d Parkinson's Agricultural Survey of Huntingdonshire.

^e Aikin, *Idem*.

^f Lignite, or Brown Coal—in the Iron sand formation, between the Chalk and Oolitic formations.—P.

^g "A Roman way, called Ickenild Street, traverses the county and passes by the small town of Dunstable; a second crosses the former,

and Hertfordshire, and on the east by the last county and Cambridgeshire. The Ouse and a small river are the only natural limits; the first bounds it a short way on the east and west, while the second waters the south-western confines. The figure of the county, although very irregular, bears some resemblance to an ellipsis, of which the longer axis is about thirty-six miles, and the shorter about twenty. It contains about 296,000 acres, and of these, according to a recent return, more than 80,000 are in a course of tillage, and 168,000 in pasturage. There are few extensive plains, but the country is varied by hill and dale. The ridge of chalk hills rises to a considerable height on the south, and in many places projects abruptly into the valleys. A tract of comparatively sterile land extends beneath the chalk to a considerable distance, but the soil has been improved by the chalky earth, which is used as a manure. A stripe of good land passes from the south-eastern corner to the middle of the county, and terminates northwards in sandy hills. The western part is in general flat and sandy, and well cultivated according to the Norfolk method. Large tracts of deep and barren sand in the vicinity of Woburn appear to be only fit for plantations. Lastly, the cultivation of garden vegetables furnishes employment to many of the inhabitants between the town of Biggleswade and the village of Sandy.^e The minerals are not numerous, and with one exception, not very important. Limestone, coarse marble and imperfect coal^f are obtained in many places, and also a variety of petrifications, particularly different shells and *Cornua Ammonis*. Mineral waters are common, but none of them are held in great repute; some are saline, and others chalybeate, but the greater number have not been analyzed. Fuller's earth, which has been long worked, and is still obtained in great abundance, must be considered the most valuable of the mineral products.

Bedfordshire, like Huntingdonshire, was inhabited in early times by the *Caticuchlani*, better known perhaps by the name of the *Cassii*, who sent ambassadors to Cæsar, and declared their willingness to submit to the Romans. Traces are left not only of the Roman, but of the Saxon and Norman domination. The village of Sandy near Potton stands on the site of the *Magiovinium* of Antoninus. The remains of a Roman amphitheatre may still be observed in the neighbourhood of Bradford-Magna; one Roman way passes by the small town of Dunstable, another extends on the north of the same place, and a third crosses the Ouse and leads to Newport-Pagnel.^g The name of *Bedicanford* in the Saxon annals,^h attests the antiquity of Bedford, the capital of the county, which is watered by the Ouse, and finely situated in a fruitful tract, that is called the vale of Bedford. It is said to have been the burying-place of Offa, king of the

to the north of that town;* and lastly, a third passes the Ouse and leads to Newport-Pagnel." (M. B.)—Only two Roman roads are generally represented as crossing Bedfordshire, viz. the Ickenild and Watling Streets. But there is a difference in tracing the course of the latter through the county. The Ed. Enc. represents it as entering at Dunstable, and leaving it between Heath [near Leighton-Buzzard] and Potsgrove [near Woburn.] Luckombe (Gazetteer, Append. Roman Roads) says it enters at Luton; then turns westward, till it intersects the Ickenild Street, near Dunstable; then northward, by Barton, Sheldford and Sandy, to Bedford, where it crosses the Ouse, and leads to Newport-Pagnel in Bucks. The Ickenild crosses the southern border of the county by Dunstable.—P.

* The Watling Street.—The old Roman Watling Street is crossed by the Ickenild Street at Dunstable. (Luckombe.)—P.

^h *Bedanford*. (Camden.)—P

Mercians; at a later period, it was made over by William Rufus to Pain de Beauchamp, who fortified it with a strong castle. The possession of it enabled Faukes de Brent to sustain a siege against the army of Henry the Third. The castle was destroyed, but the favourite escaped; and the details of the event, at the same time that they illustrate the state of society, are of as singular a nature as any in English history. The town is an ancient corporation, and its first charter bears the date of 1166. It is now divided into five parishes. The charitable institutions are not without importance; a free grammar school, founded in 1556, by Sir William Harpur, a London alderman, was endowed with thirteen acres of land,^a which, having been since let for building, yield a yearly rent of £6000. The surplus funds are applied to different purposes, and among others, £800 are annually distributed as marriage portions among forty poor maidens; each receives £20, but if any do not marry within a month afterwards, the money is forfeited. The town is greatly indebted to the late Mr. Whitbread for its gaol and infirmary. Although the manufactures are of little value, Bedford carries on a considerable trade in corn, coal, iron and timber, which are conveyed by the Ouse from Lynn and Yarmouth. It may be added that the northern and southern parts of the same town are connected by a handsome stone bridge, which was erected over the river in 1814.

The popular author of the pilgrim's progress, a person almost as much distinguished for the profligacy of his youth, as for the religious fervour of his maturer years, officiated long as the anabaptist minister of Bedford. The courage of the man is worthy of admiration; persevering in defiance of the unjust laws that were enacted against dissenters, he incurred the sentence of transportation. It is true that the sentence was not put in execution, but Bunyan passed more than twelve years of his life in prison.

The small town of Woburn near the Buckinghamshire border, was well known in past times on account of an abbey, founded in the twelfth century by Cistercian monks. The same abbey, on the suppression of the monasteries, was granted by Henry the Eighth to John Russel, the founder of a family that has since become illustrious in the annals of English freedom.

Warwickshire, a county of an irregular form, terminating in a point on the north and south, is surrounded by six other counties, namely, by Leicestershire on the north-east, Northamptonshire on the east, Oxfordshire on the south-east, Gloucestershire on the south-west, Worcestershire on the west, and Staffordshire on the north-west. Equal in some parts to fifty miles in length, and to thirty-five in breadth, the area is not more than 902 square miles. Almost a half of the county consists of pasture lands, nearly a third part is arable, and 154,530 acres are in a constant course of tillage. The same county is adorned with many picturesque sites, hills alternating with vallies, woods, limpid streams and rivers. The highest lands are situated in the hundred of Hemlingford, and in the neighbourhood of Packington. The

streams from this ridge descend on one side to the Avon, and onwards to the Bristol Channel, and on the other, to the Blythe, the Tame and the Trent. The Brailes and Edge Hills form part of another ridge on the south-east, less elevated than the former.

The soil, in common with that of other midland counties, is very variable, and it cannot be denied that the varieties occur frequently within a very limited space, or that many of them may be observed in a single field. Agriculture, it may easily be imagined, is modified by these natural causes, and different methods or different rotations are followed according to the nature of the land. The common crops are wheat, barley, oats, leguminous plants and turnips; rye, potatoes and flax are of rarer occurrence. It is also distinguished as a feeding and dairy county; much cheese is made in the northern districts, and the different breeds of cattle have been crossed and improved. The plantations are extensive; the woodlands in the ancient forest of Arden are now under excellent management, and oaks as lofty as any in England may be seen in the parks of different proprietors.

The minerals are coal, limestone, freestone, ironstone, flagstone and marl. The best coal, it has been observed, is wrought near Bedworth. Limestone is common in many parts, and freestone abounds in the light sandy districts. Extensive quarries of blue flagstone, which is much used in paving streets, are worked near Bidford and Wilnecote. The western districts abound in marl of a good quality, and ironstone was formerly wrought in the neighbourhood of Oldbury.

The rivers are the Avon, the Tame, the Leam, the Stour, the Alne, the Blythe, the Cole and the Dove. But if the Avon be excepted, these and other rivers, although they enrich the pastoral districts, and add greatly to the beauty of the country, are too insignificant to facilitate the purposes of commerce. And as Warwickshire is conspicuous for the enterprise of its merchants, and the skill of its artisans, it may readily be supposed that the industrious inhabitants have availed themselves of the advantages which artificial channels afford. The county may bear a comparison with any other in the number and importance of its canals, and the history of its commerce proves that almost simultaneously with the completion of these modern works, great accessions have been made to its products of industry. Although it might occupy too much space to mention all the canals, some of them need not be omitted. The town of Birmingham may be considered the point from which the numerous ramifications diverge. The Birmingham canal,^b extending from the Staffordshire and Worcestershire canal near Wolverhampton, terminates in the Birmingham and Fazeley canal; coals are thus conveyed from Staffordshire, and Manchester and Liverpool receive the manufactures of Birmingham. The Birmingham and Fazeley canal serves for the transportation of the same manufactures to Hull and London, and the boats return laden with grain and other commodities to Birmingham.^c The Warwick and Birning

^a In St. Andrew's parish, Holborn—now forming Bedford Row and the adjoining streets.—P.

^b The Old Birmingham canal.—It is now continued, beyond the Staffordshire and Worcestershire canal, in the Birmingham and Liverpool canal, to the Chester canal at Nantwich.—P.

^c The Birmingham and Fazeley canal terminates in the Coventry canal, near Fazeley; it communicates with Hull, by the Coventry, Grand Trunk and Trent canals, and the river Trent, and with London, by the Coventry, Oxford and Grand Junction canals.—P.

ham canal extends from Warwick to the Digbeth cut;^a the distance between London and Birmingham is thus shortened, and the capital of the county is supplied with coal.^b Lastly, by the circuitous course of the Coventry canal to Birmingham,^c the products of the neighbouring country are placed in the line of communication with London in one direction, and with Manchester and Liverpool in the other. Such are some of the works which the inhabitants have constructed from their own resources to facilitate their commerce.^d

Warwick, the capital, is finely situated on the banks of the Avon in the central part of the county. The streets are regular and well built, and most of them meet on an eminence in the middle of the town. It contained formerly six parish churches, but of these two are all that remain. St. Mary's church, a magnificent Gothic building, was granted as a place of worship to the inhabitants by Henry the Eighth at the dissolution of the monasteries. It was almost destroyed by fire in 1694, and afterwards rebuilt; but of the original structure, the Beauchamp chapel still remains, and it is little inferior to any English building both in its exterior and interior ornaments. Among the latter are several monuments of the earls of Warwick, and one of the Earl of Essex, the unfortunate favourite of Elizabeth. The other church, or that of St. Nicholas, is by no means remarkable for its architecture.

Although the town has been the scene of important events in English history, its origin seems to be unknown; it is probable, however, that it was not founded before the time of the Saxons. It is mentioned after the conquest as a borough containing 261 houses, and not long afterwards it was erected into an earldom, and to this distinction it owed in a great measure its future consequence and prosperity. The fame of Warwick is intimately connected with its castle, which is supposed to have been built in the tenth century^e by Ethelfleda, queen of Mercia.^f It was enlarged, fortified and repaired by the Conqueror, who granted it to Henry de Newbury, the first earl of Warwick. At a later period, during the baronial wars, it was nearly destroyed by Gifford, the governor of Kenilworth Castle; a few years elapsed before it was rebuilt, and it was a second time enlarged by Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick. It is unnecessary to mention its succeeding vicissitudes, but it may be remarked that it was degraded into a common prison, until it was granted by James the First to Sir Fulke Greville, afterwards Lord Brooke, who restored it to its original purpose. It stands on a rock on the northern bank of the Avon; the broad deep moat, which once formed an almost insurmountable obstacle to an invading foe, is now covered with grass, and adorned with trees; the stone bridge is now unguarded, and the battlements are clothed with ivy, but the edifice is still the greatest ornament to the town, and perhaps the finest castle that remains in England.

The city of Coventry is situated between Warwick

and Birmingham,^g and although its antiquity may not remount to Roman times, it is mentioned at a very early period of English history. It owed its origin to a neighbouring convent that was pillaged by the Danes, and it is probable that it was a place of some consequence in the time of Edward the Confessor, or at the date of the legendary story of Leofric and the pious Godiva.^h The obduracy of the count is not forgotten; the strange manner in which the countess displayed her benevolence or piety, and the misfortunes of "Peeping Tom," are still represented in a procession that takes place in Trinity week. Not long after the conquest, the lordship of Coventry was attached to the earls of Chester, and it received many advantages during the middle ages from the protection of these powerful barons. It has been the seat of two parliaments, one in 1404, the other in 1459. The first has been since called *Parliamentum Indoctorum* (the Unlearned Parliament), from the circumstance of lawyers being excluded from it; the second was known by the name of *Parliamentum Diabolicum* (the Devil's Parliament), on account of the attainders that were passed against Richard, duke of York, the earl of March, and the most eminent of the Yorkists. In the time of Henry the Third, and in consequence of disputes between the chapters of Coventry and Lichfield, it was determined that both were entitled to elect, but that the precedence in the episcopal title should be given to Coventry. Matters continued in this state until the Reformation, when it was ordained that the dean and chapter of Lichfield should be for ever the sole property of the bishopric of Coventry. Not long afterwards, the cathedral of the same place, which is said to have been little inferior to any in England, was destroyed by order of Henry the Eighth. Of the three churches that remain, that of St. Michael is a very perfect specimen of its kind, and its lofty steeple, which reaches to the height of 303 feet, is perhaps its greatest ornament.

The same town was early distinguished for the industry of its inhabitants, and it carried on during the fifteenth century a considerable traffic in cloths and other articles, which remained its staple manufactures until the destruction of the Turkey trade at the close of the seventeenth. The present branches of industry are of comparatively recent origin. The making of watches was first introduced about forty years ago, and it is probable that more watches are now made in Coventry than in London. The silk manufactures, which date from the eighteenth century, are more important, and it may be mentioned that in the year 1808, there were 2819 silk and ribbon looms in the city. But the inhabitants have made great improvements in the art since that period, or more definitely, since it became legal to import foreign manufactures. An able and impartial judge, having been examined by a committee of the House of Commons, declared that he should now blush for the work which his best hands had formerly furnished, and that in his opinion the manufactures of Coventry were now equal to those of

^a A branch of the Birmingham and Fazeley canal, passing through that part of Birmingham called Digbeth.—P.

^b See note ^b p. 1223.

^c Coventry and Birmingham communicate by the Coventry and the Birmingham and Fazeley canals—together forming nearly a semi-circle.—P.

^d The canals centering in Birmingham, are the Old Birmingham, the Birmingham and Fazeley, and the Warwick and Birmingham

canals, already mentioned; and lastly, the Worcester and Birmingham canal, connecting those two towns, and with side branches to Dudley and Stratford on Avon.—P.

^e A. D. 915.

^f Countess of Mercia, daughter of Alfred.—P.

^g It is situated north-east of Warwick, and east of Birmingham.—P.

^h Leofric, earl of Mercia, and Godiva, his countess.—P.

foreign rivals, and might successfully compete with the finest fabrics of Lyons.

Birmingham, situated on the north-western side of the county, is by far the most important town in Warwickshire. It has been asserted that some branches of industry were cultivated at a very early period, and that it afterwards carried on an extensive trade in leather; but these facts are at best doubtful, and it is certain that the sources of its present prosperity existed only in modern times. Carpenters' tools, nails and coarse agricultural implements were the only products of its forges until after the Revolution. William the Third having expressed his regret that his people were dependent on the continent for arms, the member of parliament for Warwickshire engaged that arms should be obtained in sufficient numbers from Birmingham. Such is the origin of a manufacture by which the wealth of the town has been greatly increased, for since the comparatively recent period of its introduction, Birmingham has become, if it may be so termed, the armoury not only of Britain, but of Europe. The rapid rise of this branch of industry may be attributed to the judicious management of a few enterprising individuals, and the extent to which it has been carried, may be estimated from the following facts. About the beginning of the last war, 5,000 stand of arms were seldom made within a month; but before the close of the same war, 14,500 muskets were delivered weekly into the ordnance offices for the supply of government and the different powers that were subsidized by England. The industry of the inhabitants is directed to the working of metals, from the smelting of the largest masses to the execution of the most delicate trinkets in steel, copper, silver and gold. The immense quantity of goods, which are sent from the same place, and exposed in the markets of every quarter of the world, are wrought by 25,000 families, but many hundred times that number might be insufficient for the task, without the aid of inorganic matter in the abridgment of labour. To give even a superficial notion of the different processes that are adopted, or of the various substitutes for human labour, might occupy several pages. They comprehend every contrivance from the most ponderous machines, from steam-engines, wheels, cylinders and levers, of which the vast power cannot be witnessed without admiration, down to those delicate instruments that are formed for operations of the minutest accuracy. One fact is certain; Birmingham without its means of communication could never have been the third manufacturing city in Britain, inferior only to Manchester and Glasgow. Numerous rail-ways and lateral canals extend from different iron and coal mines to the old Birmingham canal,^a and their products are thus conveyed to the town. To keep these works in an efficient state is by no means so easy as might be imagined; thus, the proprietors of the mines are obliged to turn into their respective canals, the water drawn from these mines by steam-engines. The Horsley mine is drained at a depth of 660 feet, by an engine of a hundred-horse power, but the water obtained from it is not sufficient for the supply of the principal channel; ten other steam-engines are necessary to feed it.

It is only of late years that the mechanical products

of Birmingham have attained their high degree of perfection, and it is only of late years too that the wealthy inhabitants have contributed to the happiness and welfare of the poor, by providing for them the means of education. It now possesses a great many elementary schools, and there are besides three on the Lancasterian plan, in which two thousand children may be instructed. In addition to its numerous benevolent institutions, one has been established for the relief of persons labouring under bodily deformities, and it is not improbable that its example may ere long be imitated in other towns, where the nature of the occupations is injurious to the human frame. It might be wrong, however, to consider Birmingham unhealthy; although perpetual smoke rises from its forges, and although so many persons are employed in working metals, the average mortality is only one in fifty, while in London, it is one in thirty-one, and in Manchester, one in thirty-seven. It is not unpleasing to contemplate the rapid progress of the town in industry, riches and population; it is little more than two centuries and a half since Edward the Sixth endowed a free school with a revenue of £30 from land; the present revenue exceeds £3000, an increase of a hundred-fold. It had a population of ten thousand inhabitants about the beginning of the eighteenth century; a hundred and ten years afterwards it contained 85,733 persons, ten years later the number amounted to 106,722, and according to the returns of 1831, it is now equal to 146,986. It is unnecessary to add that the products of industry have advanced in a much greater ratio than that of the population.

The small town of Stratford on Avon, about eight miles to the south-west of Warwick, might be passed over in silence, had it not been the birth place of Shakspeare, "the pride of Englishmen, and the glory of their theatre." The house in which the poet was born, and a hall in which his jubilee is celebrated, are the only objects that excite the curiosity of strangers.

The midland county of Stafford forms a long and narrow tract on the east of Cheshire and Salop, on the west of Derbyshire and Warwickshire, and on the north of Worcestershire. A range of hills runs along the north-western border, and spreads out towards the north over the whole breadth of the county. These hills, which are termed the Moorlands, form part of the chain, that extends northwards through Yorkshire to the borders of Scotland. According to the Trigonometrical Survey, some of the hills in the Moorlands are upwards of 1200 feet in height. The southern, central and eastern parts of the county, being in general fruitful and level or only varied by gentle undulations, form a striking contrast with the cold and bleak hills in the northern and north-western districts, where Cannock-Chase, which was formerly covered with woods, presents the appearance of a naked and desolate waste, almost without a single tree to enliven the scene. The rivers rise from these heights, but within the limits of the county, none of them are large. They have, however, contributed materially to that extensive system of inland navigation, by which the cultivation of the land has been improved, the products of industry multiplied, and the commerce of the inhabitants extended. The Trent, the principal river, and the one to which most of the others are tributary, rises from the Moorlands near the northern

^a See note ^b p. 1225

extremity of the county, and in its winding course first southwards to the vicinity of the Potteries, then eastwards to its junction with the Tame, and lastly north-eastwards to the borders of Derbyshire, waters sites as picturesque as any in Leicestershire. Although much of the soil is fertile, and although waste lands have been restored to cultivation, Staffordshire is of secondary importance as an agricultural county; its treasures consist in its minerals; they form the sources of its trade, and the raw materials of its various manufactures. Coal, iron and limestone are the most valuable, and the most extensively distributed. The coal, it has been seen, is obtained in a district not less than 50,000 acres in extent, and in some parts of it, the seams are found to be thirty-six feet in thickness. The strata of iron ore lie under, and alternate with the coal; the most abundant mines and those of the best quality are situated in the neighbourhood of Wednesbury, Tipton, Bilston and Sedgely. Copper is worked at Ecton-hill near Warslow, and at Mixon near Leek; veins of lead have been opened at no great distance from the same hill, and in different parts of Stanton moor.^a But these metals are of little value in comparison of the first, from the abundance of which the county has been denominated the *Chalybia* of England. Limestone is perhaps the most common of the mineral products; the Sedgely and Dudley hills on the south afford an inexhaustible supply; the same remark is applicable to the upper banks of the Dove, to the north-eastern Moorlands, and to the neighbourhood of the Weever hills, whence the greatest consumption does not lessen the supply in any perceptible degree. The same substance is used extensively in Staffordshire for manure, and a great quantity is exported to other counties, in which it is chiefly used for mortar. The limestone passes in different places into marble; the ronce sort is the most common, but grey and black varieties are by no means scarce, the former at Stanshope and Pokehill, the latter in the neighbourhood of Bentley. Lastly, the sulphate of lime, known by the name of alabaster, is obtained from many quarries near the banks of the Dove. Potter's earth is found in different places, and also in the district of the Potteries.^b But the principal supply of Staffordshire is derived from Dorsetshire and Devonshire; four sorts of clay are imported from these counties, and that from the Isle of Purbeck in Dorsetshire is sold for the highest price. Mineral substances, similar in their properties to the porcelain earths in China, were discovered in England by Mr. Cookworthy in 1768, the first person by whom real porcelain was made in Britain. It is unnecessary to add that the mineral substances were decomposed feldspar or the kaolin of the Chinese, which is now sent from Cornwall to Staffordshire.

The district in which almost all the English earthen ware is made, commences near the borders of Cheshire, and extends from the village of Golden-Hill to Lane-End, a distance of seven miles. Between these two places are situated Newfield, Smithfield, Tunstall, Longport, Burslem, Cobridge, Etruria, Hanley, Shelton, Stoke, Lower Lane and Lower Delf. All these places were formerly distinct from each other, but with the increase of the staple manufacture, so many new potteries

and dwelling-houses have been built, that the different villages are now united; the whole exhibits the appearance of a large town, and in every part of the kingdom, except the district itself, they are all included under the general name of the Potteries. It might be shown that about the beginning of the eighteenth century, the earthen wares of Staffordshire, and the trade to which they gave rise, were in a national point of view, wholly insignificant. The traffic was either carried on by the workmen themselves, or by pedlars, who carried the wares in baskets through the adjoining counties. Not long afterwards the art was improved by the use of salt in glazing, a practice that was first introduced into Staffordshire by the two Elers; at a still later period the ingenious and self-educated Mr. Astbury added calcined flint to the composition of the ware, and it cannot be denied that these improvements were accompanied with a corresponding extension of the trade. Such was the state of an art, which was afterwards so much advanced by the celebrated Wedgwood, who found the products of the Potteries inferior and flimsy in their materials, inelegant in their forms, and grotesque in their ornaments. Before his time, foreign wares were largely imported; since his successful labours, the Potteries not only supply all England, but export their products to every quarter of the globe. Some notion of the change produced in the trade and in this branch of industry by a single individual, may be formed from the following statement of M. Faujas de St. Fond. "The excellent workmanship, the solidity, the advantages which it possesses of sustaining the action of fire, the fine glaze, impenetrable to acids, the beauty of the form, and the cheapness of the price, have given rise to a commerce so active and so universal, that in travelling from Paris to St. Petersburg, from Amsterdam to the furthest extremity of Sweden, and from Dunkirk to the south of France, the traveller is served at every inn on English ware. Spain, Portugal and Italy are supplied with it, and vessels are loaded with it for the East Indies, the West Indies and the continent of America."^c But the extent to which the same branch of industry had arrived even some years before the period that this intelligent traveller visited England, may be better appreciated from the statement of Mr. Wedgwood himself. Having been examined in 1785 by a committee of the privy council, and at the bars of both houses of parliament, Mr. Wedgwood declared "that the manufacturing part alone furnished in the Potteries and their immediate vicinity the means of subsistence to twenty thousand persons; but that this was a small object, when compared with the many others dependent on it: 1st, The immense quantity of inland carriage to which it gave rise throughout the kingdom both for the raw materials and the finished goods; 2d, the great number of people employed in the extensive collieries for its use; 3d, The still greater number employed in raising and preparing its raw materials in several distant parts of England, from the Land's End in Cornwall, one way along different parts of the coast, to Falmouth, Teignmouth, Exeter, Poole, Gravesend and the Norfolk coast, and the other way to Biddeford, Wales and the Irish coast; 4th, The coasting vessels, which after having been employed at the proper season in the Newfoundland

^a Ecton-hill has likewise a considerable vein of lead, and another of the same mineral has been found near Stanton-moor. (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

^b Potter's clay of various sorts is found here, particularly in the vi-

city of Newcastle, where the potteries are chiefly carried on. (Rees Cyc.)—P.

^c M. Faujas de St. Fond, Voyages en Angleterre et en Ecosse.

fisheries, carry these materials coastwise to Liverpool and Hull, to the amount of more than 20,000 tons yearly, and at times when without this employment, they would be laid up idle in the harbour; 5th, the further conveyance of these materials from those ports by river and canal navigation to the Potteries, situated in one of the most inland parts of the kingdom; and 6th, The reconveyance of the finished goods to the different ports of the island, where they are shipped for every foreign market, that is open to the earthen-wares of England." Important as the advances made by Mr. Wedgwood were, he repeatedly declared that the progress of improvement was still in its infancy; and although it would be idle to deny that successive improvements have been made since his time, or that the trade has been greatly extended, still it cannot be affirmed that any individual has since distinguished himself by so many and so valuable inventions in this useful art.

Although it is evident, from what has been already said, that Staffordshire holds a high rank among the industrious and commercial counties of England, it is equally true that few of its towns are important. Stafford, the capital, is situated on the bank of the Sow, about three miles from its junction with the Trent. The principal branches of industry consist in making shoes, and in tanning leather, both for home consumption and exportation. It contains at present only two churches, St. Mary's and St. Chad's; it had formerly a priory of Black Friars, a convent of Franciscan, and another of Augustine monks. It appears from the Saxon Chronicle that a castle was built at Stafford in 913 by Ethelfleda, countess of Mercia, and sister to Edward the Elder; but of this castle no vestiges remain. It seems to have been a place of some consequence in past times, for in Domesday-book it is mentioned as a city; and it is certain that the ancient custom of borough-english is not unknown to the inhabitants.

Lichfield,^a which participates with Coventry in the dignity of an episcopal town, is situated on a feeder of the Trent, near the ancient *Etocetum*, a Roman station. The cathedral, the greatest ornament of the place, is surrounded with walls like a castle, and stands on an eminence that commands a distant view. It is about 412 feet in length, and 154 in breadth. A spire, 256 feet high, rises from the centre, and two towers terminating in spires, form the western front. Although the interior is richly adorned, the monuments that attract most attention, are those of Samuel Johnson and David Garrick, both natives of Lichfield. Other monuments have been erected in the same church in honour of Lady Wortley Montague and Anna Seward. A free school founded by Edward the Sixth, may be mentioned as the place where Addison, Ashmole, Johnson, Garrick and Wollaston were educated.

Newcastle under Line, situated in the centre of the Potteries, and watered by a branch of the Trent,^b is important from its commerce; it carries on a considerable trade in cloth and felt,^c and has become the mart of many articles that are consumed in the Potteries. Wolver-

hampton, a place of great antiquity, in the southern part of the county, is the most populous town in Staffordshire. It has risen in consequence of its trade in locks, keys and other articles of the same sort, for which it is more celebrated than any town in the kingdom. But however ingenious the artisans may be, they do not confine themselves to one branch of industry. Many farmers in the neighbourhood have their forges, where they labour when not employed in the field, and where women assist them, and work with the file. The goods thus made are exposed in the market, bought for different parts, and sold in every country in Europe. To these products of industry, japanned goods and the heavier sorts of iron work are added, and in the manufacture of them, Wolverhampton possesses the advantage of cheap fuel and a canal navigation to the Grand Trunk and to Birmingham.^d To account for the comparatively slow increase of the same place, it should be remembered that almost all the land in the neighbourhood is church-land, of which the tenure affords but little encouragement to building.

The inland county of Salop or Shropshire is contiguous to Staffordshire on the east, to Denbighshire, a detached portion of Flintshire, and Cheshire, on the north, to Radnorshire, Montgomeryshire and Denbighshire on the west, and to Worcestershire and Herefordshire on the south. It is about forty miles in length from north to south, and thirty-five in breadth from east to west; in superficies, it is not less than 1340 square miles, and it bears some resemblance in figure to a parallelogram. It is memorable from its historical associations and numerous remains of antiquity, interesting from the variety and beauty of its scenery, and important from the value of its mineral products, and from the extent of an artificial navigation, which has rendered it in some degree the emporium of the inland trade between England and Wales. The face of the country is very diversified, and the capital is situated in the large plain of Salop, which, although flat in comparison of the surrounding districts, is by no means level or monotonous. Hills, of which some attain a greater elevation than 1800 feet above the level of the sea, bound the plain on the south-west, and are connected with the great western range. It has been remarked in a former chapter, that the Severn flows through the middle of the county; it may be added, that the length of its winding course within Shropshire is estimated at more than seventy miles, and that it is navigable for barges in every part of it. The different soils are so much intersected, that it might be difficult to define their limits; suffice it to say, that except chalk and flint, few sorts are wanting. Although other counties may be better cultivated, it produces a large quantity of grain, and the surplus is exported by the Severn. Many cattle are fed in the plains or low districts, and much of the cheese, sold under the name of Cheshire, is made in Shropshire. Numerous flocks of sheep are reared in the hilly districts, and the wool from the neighbourhood of the Wrekin, Bridgenorth and Clun, is little inferior to that of Leicestershire. Although much timber is cut every year,

its union with the Grand Trunk near Stafford. It also communicates with the Grand Trunk by the Wyerley and Essington canal, which extends from the Old Birmingham canal at Wolverhampton, by Lichfield, to the Coventry canal, about five miles from its union with the Grand Trunk.—P.

^a Litchfield.

^b The Line or Lyne.

^c Hats.

^d It communicates with Birmingham by the Old Birmingham canal, and with the Grand Trunk canal by the same canal to its junction with the Staffordshire and Worcestershire canals, and then by the latter till

there are still many lofty oaks and extensive tracts covered with coppice-wood for the use of the iron-works. On the whole, Shropshire is comparatively free from waste lands, most of the cultivated districts are enclosed, and the commons are every year decreasing.

But it is the mineral products, and the trade and manufactures to which they have given rise, that constitute the chief wealth of the county. It has been already seen that coal is found in abundance in different districts. It may be repeated that the Coalbrook-dale field is about eight miles long, and two broad; in every part of it coal is found at different depths, and the strata alternate with ironstone, sandstone and other substances. The northern extremity of a long range of limestone is almost contiguous on the south to the coal districts. Thus although the ironstone is not rich, it is accompanied with a great quantity of coal and limestone, and on account of this conjunction of the fuel and the flux with the ore, the most extensive iron-works in the kingdom have been established in Coalbrook-dale and the neighbourhood. The rocks that bound or separate the coal fields, consist of sandstone, limestone, trap and schistus, and the metals that they contain, are lead and calamine. The Wrekin, the Acton Burnel and Hope Bowdler hills, the Frodesley, the Lawley, and the Cær-Caradoc, cross the Severn, extend southwards, and are composed of trap rocks.^a The vale of Stretton separates these hills from the schistose hills of Longmynd. The Skipperstones^b form the most elevated peak of a high tract between Bishop's Castle and the vale of Montgomery, and it is there that the lead mines of Shropshire are situated. The matrix is crystallized quartz, sulphate and carbonate of barytes, and carbonate of lime. The ore is sulphuret of lead, carbonate of lead, red-lead ore and blende, which contains besides calamine or zinc.^c Quartz and clay are worked at Cardington, and the former is said to be superior to that exported from Caermarthenshire to the Staffordshire Potteries. Lastly, the sandstone that occurs so extensively in the county, is in general well adapted for building.

The most important products of industry are returned from the iron-works in the great coal and iron districts, east of Shrewsbury, at Ketley, Oakengates, and in Coalbrook-dale, a winding valley, enclosed by hills, breaking into various forms, and covered with hanging woods and thick foliage. In this sequestered vale, the noise of forges, mills and vast machinery is heard, flames issue from the furnaces, and clouds of smoke rise from the lime-kilns. A bridge made entirely of cast-iron, and stretching across the Severn, heightens the romantic effect of the scene. Several potteries have been established in the same dale; Broseley is noted for coarse earthenware, and Caughley and Coalport for porcelain and queen's-ware. Numerous mills for dyeing woollen cloths, are situated in different parts of the county, and cotton and linen manufactures have of late years been established.

The ancient town of Shrewsbury, the capital of the county, rises on a peninsula formed by the Severn. The

origin of it is attributed to the Britons of the fifth century, who founded it on the ruins of the still more ancient *Uriconium*. It continued in the possession of the Britons, until some centuries afterwards, when they were conquered by the Saxons, and these invaders changed its old name of *Pengwerne* into *Scrobbes-Byrig*. If, at a later period, it became one of the principal cities in England, and as such, often visited by English kings, it was owing to the military importance of its situation on the Welsh marches. Thus it is well known that Edward the First made it the residence of his court, while he was employed in the subjugation of Wales, and that he removed thither his courts of exchequer and king's bench. Like other old towns, many of the streets are narrow, ill planned, and of a singular appearance from the ancient and modern buildings, which compose them. Others, however, of a more recent date, are wide and clean, well paved, well lighted and adorned with good houses. Two stone bridges have been erected over the Severn; the eastern or the New Bridge, an elegant structure, consists of seven semicircular arches, in all more than 410 feet in length. The other or the Welsh Bridge, so called from its leading into Wales, was lately rebuilt; it is ornamented with a handsome portal; the number of arches is five, their length 270 feet, their height twenty, and their breadth forty. The parish churches are six in number, and one of them belonged to an ancient abbey, of which some ruins still remain, among others a curious relic known by the name of the stone pulpit, and supposed to have answered the purposes of an oratory. The infirmary, which is managed with great credit, is one of the earliest institutions of the kind in England. The other buildings are a county hall, completed in 1785, and a new county-gaol, after the plan of Mr. Howard. The public walks are the greatest ornaments of the town; they are shaded by lofty lime-trees, they cover a surface of more than twenty acres, and they extend between the old walls and the banks of the Severn.

The staple trade consists in fine flannels and in Welsh webs, which are manufactured at Welshpool and finished in Shrewsbury, from which last place they are distributed over England, and exported to foreign markets. Spinning and fulling mills are erected in the neighbourhood, and there are besides several linen manufactories and extensive iron-works.

It was on the field of Shrewsbury that the valiant Hotspur was slain, and that Henry the Fifth, then Prince of Wales, gave the first indications of that military talent which proved afterwards so calamitous to France. During the later period of the civil wars, Shrewsbury was distinguished by the loyalty of its inhabitants; Charles the First came to it, and was welcomed; but the parliamentary army having succeeded in taking the town by surprise in 1645, the communication with North Wales was cut off, and an end was put to a loyal association then forming in the western counties.

The county of Worcester, contiguous to Shropshire and Staffordshire on the north, to Herefordshire on the west, to Gloucestershire on the south, and to Warwick

^a The Wrekin, an insulated mountain of a sugar-loaf form, [north of the Severn, above Coalbrook-dale,] rises from a plain to the height of 1324 feet. From it there proceeds southward, across the Severn,* a range of trap mountains consisting of the hills of Acton-Burnel,

Frodesley, the Lawley, Cær-Caradoc, and Hope Bowdler hill. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

* On the south side of the Severn.

^b Skipperstones. (Luckombe. Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c Blende is sulphuret of zinc.—P.

shire on the east, is perhaps more irregular in its form than any other in England, and as it is nowhere marked by natural limits, several detached portions of it are enclosed by neighbouring counties. It might be difficult on this account to determine its area correctly, but according to an official return, it is equal to six hundred and seventy-four square miles.

The face of the country is varied by hill and dale. Of the hills, the most remarkable are the Lickey near Bromsgrove, the Aberley on the west, the Malvern on the south-west, and the Bredon on the south-east. The vale of Evesham on the banks of the Avon, and the vale of the Severn, are the most fruitful tracts; in the former, in addition to the ordinary harvests, great quantities of vegetables are grown and exported to the neighbouring towns. In the same part of Worcestershire, the mildness of the climate depends in some degree on the lowness of the situation, and the crops are reaped a fortnight and sometimes a month earlier than in more elevated counties. The products of the county are corn and cattle, fine wool, hops, cider and perry; the last, in particular, is held in high repute, and exported to most parts of the kingdom. The brine-springs yield a large quantity of the whitest salt, and the mineral springs of Malvern, Kidderminster and other places are frequented on account of their medicinal properties. Limestone abounds in the high grounds, but from the scarcity of coal, little of it is burnt or used for manure. The soil is watered and fertilized by many streams, by the Severn, which enters the county from Shropshire, and flows through its whole length, and by its tributary rivers, such as the Avon, the Stour and the Teme. The same rivers have facilitated the construction of several canals, which have contributed to the prosperity of Worcestershire. It has thus been placed in the line of communication with the adjacent mining and manufacturing counties, and has become in consequence a sort of depot for their products. Leaving the verdant hills, the woods and the fruitful meadows, which have been described by tourists, we shall make some remarks on the industrious towns in the same county.

The Staffordshire and Worcestershire canal,^a which passes through Kidderminster, has added greatly to its trade and industry by opening a communication with Hull, Liverpool, Manchester and Bristol. The town was noted in the reign of Henry the Eighth for its broad cloths, at a later period for its walseys, and afterwards for its crapes and poplins. The manufacture of Scotch and flat carpets was introduced about the middle of the eighteenth century; in the year 1772, the number of looms in the town and neighbourhood amounted to 250; at present there are 1000 carpet, and nearly 700 silk looms, and these afford the means of subsistence to a third part of the population. The small town of Droitwich, which may be seen from a canal that communicates with the Severn,^b has been long famed for its brine springs, which are said to contain a greater quantity of culinary salt than any others in England, and which yield annually a revenue of £150,000. The barges that descend the Severn, pass beneath a stone bridge that communicates with Worcester,^c the capital of the county, which is little

more than three miles distant from the last place.^d It is watered by the Severn, situated in one of the finest parts of the county, and remarkable for the salubrity of its climate. The cathedral, a spacious and lofty edifice in the simple Gothic style, is built in the form of a double cross. It is 514 feet in length, 78 in breadth, and 68 in height. The tower rises from the centre of the cross aisle, and is adorned with many curious and highly finished ornaments. The most remarkable of the sepulchral monuments are those of King John, and Prince Arthur, the son of Henry the Seventh. The trade of Worcester does not consist merely in its manufactures nor in the surplus products of the county; it has been increased by the numerous conveniences, which its water communications afford. Extensive works, in which porcelain is manufactured, have been established in the town, and gloves are sent from it to most parts of England, and exported to the colonies. The city suffered greatly during the sanguinary contests between the houses of York and Lancaster; and it is memorable as the scene of a battle, in which Cromwell and the English defeated the Scotch army that invaded England, for the purpose of placing Charles the Second on the throne. This battle was what Cromwell called his *crowning victory*; two thousand of the Scotch fell on the field, and 8000 were taken prisoners, most of whom were sold and transported as slaves to the American colonies.

Part of Wales forms the western boundary of Herefordshire, which is contiguous to Gloucestershire and Monmouthshire on the south, to Worcestershire on the east, and to Salop on the north. It is almost unnecessary to remark that the limits are mostly artificial and very irregular, and that some detached parts are enclosed by the adjacent counties. It is principally distinguished as an agricultural county; it produces plenty of wheat, barley, oats and leguminous plants. The meadows are covered with the richest pasture; the Ryeland sheep are famed for their mutton, and more so for their wool, and the oxen have been considered the finest in the kingdom. If Dorsetshire is the garden, Herefordshire is the orchard of England. The apples producing cider grow in greater abundance than in any other county, and they are plentiful even in the hedge-rows. The various kinds yield liquors of different qualities; some of them are sent to every part of Britain, and the styre or the strongest is exported to the East and West Indies. It may be added that it was not before the reign of Charles the First that the county was distinguished for this product, and if it has now the appearance of an orchard, it was owing to the exertions of Lord Scudamore and other patriotic individuals. The same county is in some places covered with woods, and hop plantations are scattered in different directions.

The appearance of the country indicates its fruitfulness, there are no lofty heights, but gentle eminences swelling in every direction, and enclosing vallies covered with plantations and orchards, or fruitful fields bounded by hedges or rows of trees. The lowest lands are those in the south, while the highest are situated on the east and west. The general character of the soil is that of clay mixed

^a Extending from the Grand Trunk, near Stafford, to the Severn at Stourport.—P.

^b "Droitwich is situated on a canal that communicates with the Severn." (M. B.)—The Droitwich Canal extends from the Severn at Hawford to the town of Droitwich, about six miles.—P.

^c Worcester is situated on the east bank of the Severn; from the bridge a new street has been opened, leading to the middle of the town. (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

^d Droitwich is $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Worcester. (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

with marle, and its great fertility is partly attributable to the calcareous subsoil on which it rests. The total number of acres are estimated at 580,000, and of these 500,000 are cultivated; of the remaining 80,000, 30,000 are occupied by towns, buildings, roads, canals and rivers, and 50,000 are waste lands or covered with woods. The Wye, a feeder of the Severn, enters from the west, flows eastwards, and is enlarged by the principal streams that water Herefordshire.

Hereford, the capital, is situated on the northern bank of the same river near the centre of the county. It is a place of great antiquity; some writers affirm that it received the name of *Ercinna* from the *Silures*, who inhabited Herefordshire before the Roman invasion.^a It is also affirmed, that it occupies the site of *Ariconium*, an ancient town, mentioned by Antoninus, and which, it is added, was destroyed by an earthquake. The present name is derived from two Saxon words, which signify the ford of an army;^b in allusion, perhaps, to the Saxons crossing the Wye in pursuit of the Britons, who fled for refuge to Wales. It began to flourish about the year 825, after a church was built by Milfred, king of Mercia, in memory of Ethelbert, king of the East Angles, who was murdered by the wife of Offa while he was courting her daughter in the neighbouring village of Marden.^c The same church was soon afterwards raised to the dignity of a cathedral, but the present building was begun by Robert de Losin, the second Norman bishop, after the model of the church of Aix-la-Chapelle in Germany, and completed by his successor. Although the city is confessedly ancient, it bears few marks of antiquity; the streets are in general spacious, clean and well built. The manufactures are of secondary importance; they consist of gloves, hats and flannels.

None of the other towns are so large as the capital. Lcominster, situated to the north of it, and in the fertile vale of the Lugg, although insignificant in point of population, still sends two members to parliament. Ledbury, Ross and Bromyard formerly sent representatives, but the privilege was voluntarily declined on account of the pecuniary burdens then attached to elective rights. Ross, the second of these places, is chiefly remarkable for its situation on an elevated rock, above the valley of the Wye, and for the fine prospect which it commands. It is also known as the native town of Mr. John Kyrle, *the Man of Ross*, whose benevolence and public spirit are celebrated by Pope.

The Wye, it has been seen, waters Hereford, and Monmouth is also situated on its banks. The last place is the capital of a county, which was added to the others by Henry the Eighth, but it was supposed to form part of Wales until it was visited by the judges of the Oxford circuit in the reign of Charles the Second. The Welsh is still spoken by the common people, and the same language is still preserved in the names of the towns and villages, mountains and rivers. It is contiguous to Herefordshire and Brecknockshire on the north, to the last county and Glamorganshire on the west,^d to Gloucestershire on the east, and to the Bristol Channel on the south and south-east.

^a Herefordshire was called by the Britons, *Ercinuc*. (Camden's *Britannia*, p. 685.)—P.

^b Sax. *here*, an army, and *ford*.—P.

^c This church was erected, about 825, by Milfrid, a viceroy or provincial governor under Egbert. Offa (king of Mercia, A. D. 755—794) has been considered its founder, from the large gifts left by him for that

A considerable portion is thus bounded by the sea, while the other limits are mostly formed by rivers, namely, by the Wye and Mynnow on the east and north-east, and by the Rumney on the west. If the boundary rivers be excepted, the Usk is the only other of any importance, and it traverses the county in its whole length from north to south. The construction of the canals, which have contributed so much to the extension of the trade, and also to the working of the mines in Monmouthshire, has been facilitated by the rivers and their tributary streams. The land rises towards the north and the north-west, where it joins the mountains in Wales, and the loftiest elevations are more than 1500 feet above the level of the sea. In an agricultural point of view, it may be divided into three portions. The first or the southern consists partly of marsh lands, of a rich loamy soil in some places, and of a black peaty earth in others; a large proportion of it is fit for cultivation. But towards the coast, the fields are subject to inundations, and to protect them large dikes have been erected along the extensive levels of Caldecot and Wentloog. The second or the eastern portion, consisting of the finest land, and in appearance resembling a garden, extends along the banks of the Usk, and to a considerable distance on each side of them. The third or the western portion is hilly and unfruitful. The commerce and different branches of industry are dependent on, or connected with, the mineral products of the county. Situated on the eastern border, and including a considerable portion of the great mineral basin of South Wales, it abounds in iron ore and in coal. The latter is more than sufficient for the use of the inhabitants, and a considerable quantity is exported. The iron works were first established in the prosperous reign of Elizabeth, but they began to decline from the deficiency of fuel, that of wood being thought indispensable to the extraction of the metal. It was not before a comparatively recent discovery had been made, by which it was ascertained that coal might be used as a substitute for wood, that the same branch of industry was pursued with increased vigour, and it might be shown that the greatest number as well as the most extensive works in the county have been erected within the last fifty years. Such are the principal works at Blenavon, Nant-y-Glo, Abercorn, Pontypool and Caerleon. The other metals are tin^e and lead, and the tin works are perhaps next in importance to those of iron. Limestone is so common that it is generally used as a manure; quarries of breccia afford excellent millstones, and different kinds of freestone are used in building. It may not be out of place to remark that the art of japaning goods was first practised and made known to the English at Pontypool and Usk, and although it was long confined to these two places, they have been unable in later times to compete with Birmingham.

The towns are neither large nor well peopled, and the capital, of which the situation has been already indicated, forms no exception to this remark; for although it is the most populous place in the county, the number of inhabitants does not amount to more than six thousand. It derives its name from its position at the confluence of the

purpose, in expiation of the murder of Ethelbert, king of the East Angles. (Rees' *Cyc.*)—P.

^d More properly, to Herefordshire on the north-east, to Brecknockshire on the north-west, and to Glamorganshire on the west.—P.

^e Tin is not found in Monmouthshire; but there are extensive manufactories of tin plate.—P.

Mynnow and the Wye, which join each other at the extremity of a valley, that is enclosed by thickly wooded hills. These rivers are crossed by three bridges, and a fourth has been erected over the Trothy, which is also tributary to the Wye. The town consists of one principal street and several small ones. Many of the inhabitants are occupied in manufacturing iron and tin, while others are employed in preparing the bark, which is conveyed from the forests on the upper banks of the Wye, and after having been prepared at Monmouth, is sent to Chepstow, whence it is exported to different parts of England and Ireland. The town has given birth to two distinguished men, namely, to Geoffrey of Monmouth, the old chronicler of the Britons, and to Henry the Fifth, who is frequently called Henry of Monmouth, and whose statue still adorns or disfigures the modern town-hall. Troy-house, the seat of the Beaufort family, is not more than half a mile from Monmouth, and there, it has been affirmed, the cradle of Henry the Fifth is preserved, and the armour which he wore at the battle of Agincourt.

Following the course of the Wye to the distance of two miles from its junction with the Severn, we enter the romantic town and port of Chepstow. Advantageously situated for commerce, it has become the port of all the towns on the Wye and the Lugg. Timber, bark, iron and other articles are sent from it to Portsmouth, Plymouth and Deptford;^a the imports are wine from Oporto, and planks, hemp, flax and pitch from the Baltic. The harbour admits vessels of 700 tons, but the adjoining buildings have been more than once inundated, and a cast-iron bridge over the river has been damaged by the tides. Thirty or forty feet are not uncommon, and on one occasion the tide rose to the extraordinary height of seventy. A well in Chepstow is mentioned by old writers as a phenomenon, for which they are at a loss to account; it may contain about fourteen feet of fresh water, but it empties itself as the tide flows, and fills as it ebbs. A tower of an old castle is also shown as a curiosity to strangers; it was there that Henry Martin, one of the judges of Charles the First, was confined from the time of the Restoration until that of his death in 1680.

The principality of Wales resembles a peninsula; it is contiguous on the east to the counties of Monmouth, Hereford, Salop and Cheshire, while it is washed on the north and west by the Irish Sea, and on the south and south-east by the Bristol Channel. The length from north to south extends from one hundred and thirty to one hundred and eighty miles, and the breadth from fifty to eighty, including an area of nearly 8125 square miles. Thus the superficial extent is not equal to a sixth part of England, and although the inhabitants have increased greatly within the last twenty years, they do not amount to a sixteenth part of the English population. It might be easy from these data to show that the mean size of each Welsh county is little more than one-half the mean size of each English county, and that the mean population of each county in the former country is considerably

less than a fourth, or nearly a fifth part of the mean population of each county in England. If it were necessary to be more definite, it might be stated that Wales, according to the census of 1831, contains 805,236 inhabitants,^b consequently that the population of the whole principality is much less than that of Lancashire, Middlesex or Yorkshire. It is well known that the whole of Monmouth and a considerable portion of several adjacent English counties,^c were at one time included in Wales, which now consists of twelve shires, and all of them except three touch the coast in some part of their boundaries. Thus it appears that the counties are comparatively thinly peopled, and much smaller than those of England; on that account it may be as well to adhere more to geographical than artificial divisions, and to examine the principality as it is naturally divided into North and South Wales.

Although the height of the Welsh mountains cannot be compared with that of the Alps, the country has sometimes been styled the British Switzerland. The resemblance between them consists in steep descents, broken and perpendicular sides, deep and narrow vallies, limpid lakes and numerous streams, which in some places form cascades, and in others roll slowly in the midst of meadows. The humid mists that rise from the surface of these waters, and rest sometimes on the highest summits, and the snow that remains frequently until the end of spring, render them, (although the highest does not exceed 3600 feet), not unlike the stupendous masses that obstruct the clouds in the high chains of the globe, and serve as the abode of perpetual snow.

The general arrangement of the mountains may be described in a few words. Two primitive chains, those of Snowdon and Cader-Idris, extend from north to south. As the primitive and secondary mountains approach each other, the calcareous ridge follows an irregular course. It may be said, however, to commence near the port of Crickhaeth, whence proceeding northwards in an uninterrupted line along the coast, it arrives at Caernarvon, from which it extends along the Menai, and bounds the eastern shore as far as Bangor Ferry. Between the last place and Ormes-Head, it is broken by the northern extremity of the Snowdon range, which terminates in the Bay of Conway, at the heights of Penmaen-mawr and Penmaen-bach.^d Appearing anew in the lofty promontory of Ormes-Head, it bounds the coast to the mouth of the Dee, takes a westerly direction, passes by Holywell and the upper end of the vale of Clwyd, and is again broken near Oswestry by the Ferwyn heights.^e It appears a third time in the neighbourhood of Llanymynech, and is at last terminated by a line of primitive mountains stretching northwards from Radnorshire. Schistus occupies the intermediate space between the calcareous and primitive ridges.

It is not too much to assert, that the shape of these mountains indicates the formations to which they belong. The primitive rocks are craggy, steep and tending in

^a Great quantities of timber are sent from Chepstow to Portsmouth, Plymouth, Deptford and Woolwich; grain is exported for the Bristol market; and oak-bark, cider, coals, grindstones, millstones and iron, to several parts of Ireland, Liverpool, and other places. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b 823,100, in the Statistical Tables.—P.

^c Gloucestershire, Herefordshire and Shropshire. By an act (34 Henry VIII.) the Welsh marches (borders) were partly divided into new counties, and partly annexed to old counties, both in England and

Wales. The new counties were Monmouthshire (English,) and Brecknockshire, Radnorshire, Montgomeryshire and Denbighshire (Welsh). The annexations were to the three English counties just mentioned, and to all the remaining Welsh counties. (Ed. Enc. England.)—P.

^d Great and Little Rocky Promontories.—Welsh, *pen*, head or head-land; *maen*, stone; *mawr*, great; *bach*, little.—P.

^e Berwyn mountains.—P.

many places to a peak or pointed summit. The loftiest heights are generally about the middle of the chains, which commence and terminate in abrupt precipices. These and the insulated peaks that are continually breaking the outline, form a very distinctive character. The slate or schist is distinguishable from the primitive heights by its inferior elevation, and by the uniformity of the hills and the regularity of the outline. The calcareous hills are much lower than the last, more varied in their forms, rising gradually from one extremity, or terminating abruptly in the other.^a

The nature of the country presented many obstacles to communications, and it is only of late years that they have been extended and improved. One of the most remarkable has been cut along the high range of Snowdonia; the interior districts of North Wales have thus been made to communicate with the coast, and in the same manner the great thoroughfare from London to Dublin by Holyhead, has been diminished twenty-five miles in length.^b Other roads that were formerly almost impassible in many places, have been widened, shortened and rendered of easy access by means of drains, arches and bridges, which have contributed much to the convenience of travellers, and more to the prosperity of the country. The same remarks are not inapplicable to the canals, which shall be afterwards mentioned, for the advantages of artificial navigation were reaped in England long before they were known in Wales. It may be inferred from what has been said of the different chains, that the northern region is much less fruitful and populous than the southern. In the former, the produce of the land is little more than sufficient for the wants of the frugal inhabitants. The climate is modified in the central districts by the height of the mountains; near the shores on the south, the west, and the north, the weather is mild but humid; no part, however, is considered unwholesome.

Manufacturing industry and maritime commerce have

^a Aikin's Tour through Wales.

^b This has doubtless reference to the new Irish road, cut transverse-ly across the Snowdon range, from the Menai bridge to Capel-Cerrig. The old Irish road to Holyhead led from Bangor Ferry around the promontory of Penmaenmawr to Conway.—P.

^c The copper is brought from Anglesea, Cornwall and Devon. (Ed. Enc.)—Copper is, however, wrought to a considerable extent in the counties of Wicklow, Waterford and Cork, in Ireland.—P.

^d The following is a general view of the principal canals in Wales. 1. The Brecknock and Abergavenny canal leaves the Monmouth canal at Pontypool, and passing through a tunnel, proceeds up the valley of the Uske to Brecknock. Several side rail-ways extend from this canal. Together with the Monmouth canal, it forms a line extending 45 miles from Brecknock to Newport near the mouth of the Uske. The Brinore rail-way, connected with the Sirhowy rail-way in Monmouthshire, crosses the Black Mountains from the Romney iron-works, in that county, and extends to Brecknock, and thence to Hay on the Wye. 2. The Glamorganshire (Cardiff) canal commences by a sea lock for vessels of 300 tons, at Pennarth-Head, at the mouth of the Taff, and proceeds up the valley of that river, by Cardiff, twenty-five miles, to Merthyr-Tydvil. A rail-way runs parallel to it up the same valley. 3. The Aberdare canal branches off from the former at the mouth of the Cynon, nine miles below Merthyr-Tydvil, and proceeds seven and a half miles north-west, up the vale of the Cynon, to Aberdare, whence there is a communication by a rail-way and inclined plane with the Neath canal. 4. The Neath canal commences at the shipping port of Britton-Ferry, three and a half miles below the town of Neath, and proceeds up the valley of the river Neath by the town, fourteen miles to Aberfergwn, where a rail-way connects it with the Aberdare canal. 5. The Crumlin canal, on the west side of Neath river, proceeds from the port at Britton-Ferry, three and a half miles on a level, through the Crumlin Bog, to New Chapel collieries. It was the first canal opened in Wales. 6. The Swansea canal proceeds from the town of Swansea, about eighteen miles up the western side of the Taaf, to the Henoyadd lime-works in Brecknockshire. Several rail-ways com-

been so much increased in the principality within the last twenty years, that the population has increased more than a fourth during that period. Glamorganshire, particularly the portion of it near the sea, is so fruitful that it is styled the garden of Wales; but if it has become more populous, commercial and wealthy than any other Welsh county, it must be attributed less to its fertility, than to its inexhaustible fields of coal, ironstone and lime. A considerable quantity of the coal is exported, but enough is left for the supply of the many iron-works in the county, and of other large works established by enterprising men for the smelting of copper, which is conveyed from Cornwall, North Wales and Ireland.^c Merthyr-Tydvil has become the seat of the principal iron-works; next to them are those of Aberdare, Neath and Swansea; and the metal is transported along canals that communicate with these places. The first passes from Merthyr-Tydvil to Pennarth Bay below Cardiff, and a branch from Aberdare joins it near the river Cynon. The Neath canal communicates with Britton-Ferry, and the Swansea canal passes from the port of the same name into Brecknockshire. The nature of the country does not afford many facilities for such works, and they could not have been constructed without frequent recourse to the expensive and tedious method of locks; but it would be incorrect to suppose that these are the only canals; the line of coast is joined by others and by excellent roads to the immense founderies in the interior.^d And it is only since they have been completed that tin was exported from Cornwall, and that extensive manufactories of tin-plates were erected near the iron-works.^e Lastly, as to the geological position of the minerals, it may be remarked that they are contained in a calcareous basin, of which Glamorganshire occupies the central portion, and that the same basin is not less than a hundred miles in length, and about twenty in average breadth.^f

Besides the metals^g that have been already mention-

communicate with the collieries along its course. The Oystermouth rail-way proceeds south-west from Swansea, seven miles along the coast, to the Oystermouth lime-works. From Llanelly, on the Burry River, the Caermarthenshire rail-way extends fifteen miles through a coal country to Llandeibie. Besides the above, several short lines of canal and rail-way extend to particular collieries, iron and lime-works, &c.

In North Wales, the only important canals are the two branches of the Ellesmere canal (see note ^b, p. 1218,) one of which proceeds up the valley of the Dee to Llandisilio, and the other to Llanymynech on the Severn, where the Montgomery canal commences, and proceeds up that river twenty-five miles to Newtown. These canals, particularly the Dee branch, have several side cuts and rail-ways to collieries, iron and lime-works, &c. The Dee branch is carried over the river Dee, at Pontcysylte, on an aqueduct 1007 feet long, and 126 feet high, said to be the largest in the kingdom.—P.

^e Particularly in the vicinity of Neath and Cardiff.—The tin-works of Melyn-Gryffydd, four miles from Cardiff, are perhaps the largest in the kingdom; producing not less than 30,000 boxes of tin-plates in one year. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f The great coal formation of South Wales is included in a limestone basin, the form of which is an irregular oval. It extends 100 miles in length, from Pontypool on the east, to St. Bride's Bay on the west, and where broadest, from 18 to 20 miles in width; but in Pembrokeshire, it is not more than five miles broad. Its greatest breadth is at Neath, in Glamorganshire. The superficial extent of the basin is about 100 square miles, containing 95 feet of coal, yielding, by calculation, 64 million tons per square mile. This basin includes parts of Monmouthshire, Glamorganshire, Brecknockshire, Caermarthenshire and Pembrokeshire. (Ed. Enc. Conybeare and Phillips, Geol. Eng. and Wales.)—P.

^g Minerals?—The southern border of Brecknockshire is included within the great coal basin of South Wales, and abounds in coal and iron-ore. The basin is there bounded on the north by a belt of limestone.—P.

ed, copper and lead are found in Brecknockshire, a county different from the last, inasmuch as it is the most mountainous of any in South Wales, and also because it is intersected by two lofty ranges, the one on the north and the other on the south.^a The products of the mines are of secondary importance; still they are much more valuable than formerly. Thus it appears that the rent of the iron mines in 1711 amounted to L.20, and in 1807 to L.2000; within the same period, and in the same county, the price of provisions has been doubled, and the price of labour more than quadrupled.^b As a pastoral county it is more productive than Glamorgan-shire; numerous flocks are reared on its hills, and the principal branch of industry consists in the manufacture of stockings and woollen stuffs.

Caermarthenshire is famed for its barley and oats; the climate is less favourable for wheat, but good crops even of that grain are raised on the low grounds. The oats are much more than sufficient for the consumption, and the surplus produce is sent to Bristol. Many oxen are bred in the county, and much butter is made for exportation. Limestone is wrought near the coast; it extends also towards the Black Mountains,^c and the produce of the works has contributed to the improvement of the soil. Large blocks of marble of a dark blue colour, and susceptible of a high polish, are obtained from the quarries in the parish of Llangydeirn. The other products are iron, lead and coal, and the exportation of the last substance is now rendered easy by means of a canal that extends from the collieries to Kidwelly, a small town on a creek near the mouth of the Towy.^d

Fruitful corn-fields, extensive meadows, and a sea that abounds with fish, are perhaps so many obstacles to the development of manufacturing industry in Pembroke-shire. It might be difficult otherwise to reconcile the low state of industry, with the advantages it possesses for commerce, with its numerous harbours and extensive coast. It may be added that the calcareous basin which contains the iron and coal of South Wales, terminates in Pembroke-shire; the depth of the strata diminishes as they approach the boundary, and their quality is impaired, consequently the mineral riches of the county are by no means great.

As a metalliferous county, Cardiganshire is more distinguished, and silver, lead and copper are contained in its mines. The lead mines yield a considerable proportion of silver; some of them not less than thirty-five or forty ounces per ton, and it appears that during the reign of Elizabeth, seventy and even a hundred ounces were occasionally obtained. The ore is also rich in lead,

and about 1250 pounds of metal are extracted from the ton. The mines were in a flourishing condition during the seventeenth century, and from the profits then derived from them, Sir Hugh Middleton was enabled to accomplish his great undertaking, namely, to bring the New River to London, and to confer a lasting benefit on his country. Not long after the death of that great man, the produce of the mines began to decline, and they have since been gradually neglected, but it is probable that they might still be worked with advantage, were it not for the scarcity of fuel.^e The agriculture of the county, in common with that of most others in the principality, is still susceptible of much improvement; the land near the coast is fertilized by sea-weed, and it is affirmed that sixty successive crops of barley have been raised on the same field.

The small county of Radnor forms an exception, for although it may be more sterile and less populous than any that has been mentioned, it is certainly better cultivated. The sinuous course of the Wye determines its figure,^f and it waters pastoral and arable vallies, in which the land is good and the climate tolerable. But in most places the inhabitants have had to resist the effects of a barren soil and a chilling atmosphere. The north-western angle forms still an almost impassable desert, which at an early period afforded shelter to Vortigern after the direful effects of his invitation to the Saxons.

The county of Montgomery in the northern part of the principality is diversified and mountainous. The nature of the climate and the soil has hitherto proved an insurmountable obstacle to the improvement of the midland, western and south-western districts. But the narrow vallies that are enclosed by the heights yield rich pasturage and plentiful crops of corn. The vale of the Severn, extending along the course of the river in the south-eastern part of the county, has long been noted for its fertility; and it is not now less distinguished by its improved husbandry. The ground rises from the same vale towards the north-west, and the heights are connected with the ridge that meets the lofty Plinlimmon. It is not improbable that the county is still better wooded than any other in North Wales; but the finest oaks in Montgomeryshire were cut during the last war, and transported to the dock-yards of Deptford and Plymouth. The metals are lead or galena and silver,^g but the most valuable of the mineral treasures, those at least that yield the greatest revenue, consist in the slate quarries, of which the largest are situated near Llangynnog and near the confluence of the Virnwy and Severn.^h

^a The northern range is primitive or transition; the southern, which includes the Vanns or Beacons of Brecon, consists of old red sandstone.—P.

^b Agricultural Survey.

^c The range of the Black Mountains extends from the eastern part of Caermarthenshire, along the southern border of Brecknockshire.—P.

^d Kidwelly stands on both sides of the Lesser Gwendraeth, near its mouth. The Great and Lesser Gwendraeth* are two small creeks which enter the bay of Caermarthen by the same estuary.—P.

* Welsh, *Gwendraeth-vawr*, and *Gwendraeth-vag* or *vach*.—*Gwen*, fair; *traeth*, frith or estuary, a tract of sand left bare at low tide; *mawr*, great; *bach* or *bag*, little. This example illustrates a striking peculiarity of the Celtic languages, especially the Welsh; namely, the change of initial consonants, according to the word preceding in construction—here, *t* to *d*, and *m* and *b* to *v*.—P.

^e During the reign of Elizabeth, the mines were wrought by a company of Germans. Sir H. Middleton wrought his mine in the reign

of James I. A Mr. Bushel, a distinguished royalist, in the time of Charles I., is said to have made immense sums by his mines. These mines were, however, soon after exhausted; but in 1690, other mines were discovered on the estate of Gogerthan, so rich as to have obtained the appellation of the Welsh Potosi. They have been, however, long neglected. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f The Wye rises on the south side of Plinlimmon in Montgomeryshire, and entering Radnorshire at *Savan-y-Coed*, flows across its north-western corner; after which it separates the county on the south-west and south from Brecknockshire, till it enters Herefordshire.—P.

^g There are several lead mines in the county, the ore of which is galena containing a portion of silver (argentiferous galena).—P.

^h From the lofty rocks of Llangynnog, a considerable quantity of coarse slates is obtained. Slate is also procured near the junction of the Firnwy and Severn, and sent down to Bristol. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

The adjacent county of Merioneth, still more romantic than the last, possesses all the features of a wild and mountainous region. The Berwyn heights^a rise above the fruitful valley watered by the Dee, which may be traced to its source in the lake of Bala,^b almost surrounded by hills, and forming an expanse of clear and limpid water. The lofty tract commences on the south of Bala;^c deep and narrow vallies extend between the heights, and the moors afford plenty of peat, the only fuel in the county. Cader-Idris held long the first rank among the heights in Merionethshire, but it appears from the trigonometrical survey that it is only 2914 feet above the level of the sea, while Arran Fowdey^d is 2965. The mountains are rugged and precipitous, and although their peaked summits seem to approach each other, their bases are separated by intervening spaces of considerable extent. Many of them are enlivened with woods, and watered by torrents or cataracts. Although the herbage is coarse, still it reaches to the summits, and affords pasture to numerous flocks. The high region is composed of granite, porphyry and other primitive rocks; different schists form the hills, and schistose clay is found in the vallies.^e

The rugged and mountainous scenery of Merioneth is softened in Denbighshire by a greater extent of fruitful and well cultivated land. The hundred of Yale in the northern part,^f although hilly and destitute of trees, is rich in pasture and abounds with oxen. The vale of Clwyd, commencing in the centre of the county, stretches towards the sea, a distance of about twenty miles; enclosed by mountains on every side except the north, its breadth varies from three to eight miles. It is remarkable for its fertility, cultivation reaches to a considerable height,^g and it is studded with towns, villages and country houses. The Dee passes along fruitful meadows on the south-eastern confines, and the cheese exported from them is not inferior to any from the neighbouring county of Cheshire. The other products are corn and cattle, while wool forms the material of the staple manufacture. Lead is found on the eastern borders; iron ore is dug on the Rualion^h hills, and on both sides of the Berwyn ridge; and coal, another product of the same county, is rendered available for the smelting of the ore.

Flintshire, a small stripe, more level than the rest of

Wales, is watered by many streams, and varied by hills passing into vallies. The low tract near the Dee consists of a clayey soil, fruitful in corn and well stocked with wood. But the heights near the estuary of the river extend in a direction parallel to its course, and decline on the opposite side into the rich vale of Mold, from which wheat and other sorts of grain are sent to Liverpool. The commerce of the county is derived from its metals;ⁱ it supplies Chester with coal, which was formerly exported to Ireland. Rich mines of lead and calamine are wrought beneath the barren surface of the hills. Some of the lead ore contains a small proportion of silver, and several thousand ounces of silver have been annually exported from Flintshire to the manufacturing towns of Sheffield and Birmingham.^k

The Snowdonian range runs in an unbroken line across Caernarvonshire, the most mountainous of the Welsh counties, and the ridge, which it forms from Traeth-mawr to Penmaen-mawr, is varied by conical peaks, that have been compared to the needles of the Alps.^l Of these, the highest or the famed Snowdon reaches to the height of 3570 feet above the level of the sea, and the others descend gradually on either side of it. This lofty region abounds in precipices, deep ravines, lakes and moors; but it is now destitute of trees, the climate is bleak and piercing, and the character of desolation is impressed on its romantic scenery. The extremity of the chain, or Penmaen-mawr, which it has been observed, was formerly impassable, is now traversed by a secure road, about two hundred feet above the sea, that lashes the base of the mountain. A narrow pass between the same height and Penmaen-bach, leads to the long and narrow vale of Conway, equally romantic and beautiful; clothed with woods, corn fields and rich pastures, and forming a fine contrast to the bleak heights that tower above it. The minerals of the county are not without importance; a considerable revenue is derived from the slate quarries, and copper is the most valuable of the metals in the Snowdon chain. The country is better adapted for the rearing of cattle than the culture of grain, and its wealth consists in its oxen, sheep and goats. The life of the inhabitants in the rural districts resembles that of the mountaineers in Switzerland. In the month of May they leave the vallies, and drive their herds and flocks to the mountains, where they reside during the

^a The Berwyn or Ferwyn mountains [Berwyn; by initial mutation, Ferwyn, as *Mynydd Ferwyn*, mountain of Berwyn,] extending from east to west along the borders of Denbighshire, Montgomeryshire and Merionethshire. They consist of argillite.—P.

^b The Dee rises from two sources in the eastern part of the county, near the sides of the Arran mountains. These, after uniting and passing through the lake of Pemblemeer (Bala pool,) run north-easterly into Denbighshire. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c The Berwyn mountains extend along the southern side of the valley of the Dee. A higher chain, including the summits of Cader-Idris and the Arrans, extends in a north and north-easterly direction, from the coast in the southern part of the county, nearly to its northern extremity.—P.

^d Properly, Aran Fowddwy.—*Aran* is a Welsh word signifying height or alpine summit. There are other mountains in the same range, bearing the name, viz. Aran Benllyn, Aran-nig, &c.—P.

^e The mountains consist principally of granite, porphyry, and other unstratified rocks. The secondary hills are composed of mixed schistus; the valleys contain schistose clay, and the level parts of the county abound with peat earth. (Ed. Enc.)—The range including Cader-Idris, and a mountainous tract, connected with the Snowdon range, and occupying the central portion of the northern half of the county, is marked in Conybeare and Phillips' map, as sienite and trap (primitive or transition.) The remainder of the county is marked in the same map, as greywacke and clay-slate (argillite.)—P.

^f Iâl is a small hilly district between the upper part of the vale of Clwyd on the west, and Wrexham on the east; including Vale Crucis and the sources of the river Alen. (Camden's Britannia.)—P.

^g It is in a high state of cultivation, and is, moreover, naturally very fertile. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^h Ruabon. (Cyc. Ed. Enc.)—The iron works and collieries near Ruabon Brook, are connected by a rail-road with the Ellesmere canal, at Pontcysyllte. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁱ The importance of Flintshire is derived almost entirely from its mineral productions; of these, the lead mines in the vicinity of Holywell are the most valuable. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k The geological position of the metals in Flintshire has been accurately determined by the celebrated Pennant, a native of the county.

^l The Snowdon range extends from north-east to south-west through the whole length of the county, from Penmaenmawr on the bay of Conway, to Aberdaron Bay. The range makes a curve to the south-east near the centre of the county, where the highest peaks are situated, and thence communicates with the mountains of Merionethshire. This range consists of sienite and trap, like that of Cader-Idris. Traeth-mawr and Traeth-bach (Great and Little Friths) are two inlets at the head of Cardigan Bay, which are bare at low tide, leaving dry a large tract of sands. In 1807, the former, consisting of 3500 acres, was granted by the crown for embankment, and in 1820, 2000 acres had been recovered.—P.

summer,^a and subsist chiefly on the produce of the dairy. In autumn they return to the vallies, and in winter they manufacture from the wool of their sheep, the coarse cloth which they wear. The Menai Straits separate Caernarvonshire from the Isle of Anglesea, which is also included in the Welsh counties; but both are now united by one of the wonders of modern art.^b The properties of the catenary,^c which afforded a subject of intellectual research or speculation to mathematicians, were discovered long before it was imagined that it could be applied to practical purposes, or before a chain describing the same curve was extended over the arm of the sea that separates Anglesea from the rest of Wales. The distance between the piers, or points of suspension, is equal to 580 feet, and the height from the surface of the water, to 100. The chains,^d all made of wrought iron, are fastened to vertical rods, of which the ends are bolted in iron sleepers or transverse bars. There are 111 of these sleepers, in each of which four vertical rods are fixed, making the total number of rods amount to four hundred and forty-four. The road-ways consist of two carriage lines, each twelve feet broad, and a foot-path between them, four feet wide, and enclosed by iron railings, to secure passengers from accidents.^e This stupendous work, almost as remarkable for its solidity as for its novelty, and which is likely to perpetuate the name of Telford,^f was opened on the 30th January, 1826, by the London and Holyhead mail-coach crossing it with the bags for Dublin. On the first of February, the first three-masted vessel sailed under the bridge with all her spars up, and her top-masts cleared twelve feet and a half below the centre of the road-way.^g While this great work was in progress, its accomplishment was considered doubtful or hopeless by many; but the end for which it was erected has now been attained, and the communications from London to Dublin by Holyhead are no longer retarded by the inconvenient ferry of Bangor. The part of Anglesea bordering on the Menai is covered with thick woods; at no great distance in the interior, the scene changes into a naked tract, destitute of trees, but fruitful in corn, varied by hills and watered by many streams. Grain and cattle are the principal agricultural produce, and it appears that about a hundred and fifty years ago, nearly 3000 oxen were annually sent to England; the number has since been increased to fifteen or twenty thousand.^h The coasts are well provided

^a They reside during the summer in *hafod-tai*, or summer dairy houses, as the farmers of the Swiss Alps do in their *sennes*. (Ed. Enc.)—*Hafod* or *harod* (Welsh,) a summer dwelling, a dairy; *tai*, houses, (plur. of *ty*, a house.)—P.

^b The Menai bridge—a chain or suspension bridge.—P.

^c The Catenary Curve (*Catenaria*) is the figure which a heavy chain or rope assumes, when suspended at its two extremities. This, when inverted, is the proper form for an arch.—P.

^d There are four chains, from each of which a vertical rod descends to each sleeper.—P.

^e Historical Description of the Menai Bridge, by Dr. Pringle.

^f The bridge was constructed by Mr. Telford. He was first commissioned by the government in 1810, and in 1811, he reported his plans and estimate.—P.

^g Historical Description of the Menai Bridge, by Dr. Pringle.

^h It finds annually several thousand head of cattle to the English market. They are driven to the port of Aethwy, the principal ferry to Caernarvonshire, and are there compelled to swim across the Menai. (Ed. Enc.)—This was before the construction of the Menai bridge.—P.

ⁱ Found in the stratum of earth that covers the copper ore. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k Fifty-seven ounces. (Rees' Cyc. Ed. Enc.)—P.

The coal formation of Anglesea, which is of very small extent, lies

with harbours, and the neighbouring seas are abundantly stocked with fish. The metals are not the least valuable products. Copper ore was found within a few feet of the surface, not in veins, but in a continuous mass sixty feet deep, over a large portion of the Parys mountain. The quantity formerly obtained varied from 40,000 to 80,000 tons; but of late years it has been greatly reduced. Lead ore, another of the products,ⁱ yields from six to ten hundred weights per ton, and from a ton of ore thirty-seven ounces^k of silver may be extracted. The other minerals are coal in the neighbourhood of Maltreath,^l excellent millstones, which are obtained from different quarries, and green marble not unlike the verd-antique of the Romans. The greatest length of the island from north-west to south-east is more than twenty miles, and the greatest breadth about eighteen; the circumference is not less than eighty, and the area is said to be equal to 320 square miles.

To regulate the administration of justice, Wales has been divided into four circuits, in each of which the assizes are held twice a year. The first, or the circuit of Chester, comprehends, besides the English county of the same name on the borders of Wales, the Welsh counties of Flint, Denbigh and Montgomery. The second, or the northern circuit, includes the counties of Anglesea, Caernarvon and Merioneth. The third, or the south-eastern, extends over those of Radnor, Brecon and Glamorgan. The last, or the south-western, comprehends those of Pembroke, Cardigan and Caermarthen.^m As to the ecclesiastical polity, the principality is under the province of York,ⁿ and is divided into the dioceses of St. David's, Bangor, Landaff and St. Asaph.

We shall principally confine our remarks in the account of the Welsh towns to the capitals, and the few places that are distinguished by the industry of the inhabitants; and it may here be observed that all the counties except those of Glamorgan, Merioneth and Anglesea, derive their name from their capitals.

Cardiff, the chief town of Glamorganshire, is situated on the Taff, the banks of which are united by a handsome bridge. The harbour of Pennarth, on the banks of the same river, and about three miles lower down,^o is considered a dependence of the town. It receives vessels of the largest burden, and those of three hundred tons sail up to Cardiff.^p It may be affirmed without exaggeration that additional buildings have altered the ap-

in a valley that crosses the island, from north-east to south-west, parallel to the Menai, and at no great distance from it. This valley is bordered by parallel belts of limestone, and in the hollow, coal has been wrought near the Maltraeth estuary (on the south-west coast,) and probably extends throughout the valley. Besides this coal formation and its surrounding belt of mountain limestone, there are two tracts of sienite and trap on the Menai, (one opposite Bangor, and the other at its southern entrance,) and a small tract of old red sandstone on the shore of Conway Bay. The mountain limestone is bounded on the north-west by a belt of old red sandstone. All the rest of the island, to the north-west, is transition, consisting of graywacke and argillite, with a small tract of granite, near its southern border, and a belt of serpentine crossing it near the north-western extremity. (Conybeare and Phillips.)—P.

^m In Myers' Geog. (1822,) Wales is divided into four circuits, in which the counties are arranged as in the text. The two first circuits are called the north-eastern and north-western. Cheshire, as a county palatine, is not included in any circuit.—P.

ⁿ The province of Canterbury. (Pinkerton. Myers.)—P.

^o At the mouth of the river.—Pennarth (Eng. Bear's Head,) from *pen*, head, and *arth*, bear.—P.

^p Vessels of 300 tons ascend to the quay of Cardiff, by the Glamorganshire canal, which has been so far deepened for that purpose. This canal terminates in a floating sea dock in the Severn, at Pennarth Point. (Rees' Cyc.)—P.

pearance of the town, and that the pursuits of the inhabitants have been changed, since the Cardiff canal was completed. It extends from Merthyr-Tydvil, a distance of twenty-five miles, and the head of it is 608 feet higher than the tide-lock at Cardiff.^a An immense quantity of cast and wrought iron is thus conveyed from the works to the town, and onwards to Pennarth, whence it is shipped for different parts of England. From other extensive works not more than four miles from the town,^b 30,000 boxes of tin plates are annually exported to Bristol.^c It appears then that the capital of Glamorganshire is now a place of commerce, but it was chiefly known during the middle ages on account of a fortified castle, where Henry the First confined his own brother,^d the rightful heir to the throne, and where he died after an imprisonment of twenty-six years.

It is further evident that the recent prosperity of the same place must be attributed in a great degree to the products of the iron-works. But the same remark is applicable to the whole of South Wales. The relative importance of that part of the principality and of the county of Monmouth, has within a recent period been much increased by the great number of new, and by the enlargement of old works. These works extend in a line of about twenty-five miles long, in the direction of north-west and south-east, and they yield annually between two and three hundred thousand tons of iron. The works at Hirwain in Brecknockshire and at Aberdare in Glamorganshire form the western points; on the east of them are situated the important works and the populous neighbourhood of Merthyr-Tydvil; from the last place a chain of furnaces is formed by the works of Dowlais, Romney, Tredegar, Sirhowey, Beaufort, Nant-y-Glo, Blaenafon, the Vorteg, Abersychan and Pont-y-Pool, where the mineral range terminates. It may be necessary to indicate more fully the site of Merthyr-Tydvil, at no very remote period an obscure village, now by the industry and enterprise of its inhabitants, the first town in Wales.^e It is situated in the same county as Cardiff, on the northern borders, on the bank of the same river, and at the distance of nine miles from its source. But the houses are still mean, dirty and irregularly built; in most places they are not connected by streets, and the market-place is ill adapted for the business that is transacted in it. Llandaff,^f at no great distance from Cardiff, resembles a village more than the seat of a diocese. The ancient part of its cathedral may be considered a fine specimen of Gothic architecture, but it accords ill with the modern part, which resembles a Grecian building. An excellent road, about thirty-nine miles in length, leads from Cardiff to Neath, a port that

^a The expense of the work amounted to L.500,000. (C. Dupin, *Force Commerciale*.)

^b The tin-works of Melyn-Gryffydd.—P.

^c Capper's *Topog. Dict.*

^d Robert, Duke of Normandy.—P.

^e Population, 22,083, in 1831.—P.

^f Properly, Llandaff—the church on the Taff. The word *llan*, prefixed to so many Welsh names, signifies church or church-town.—P.

^g On the Lower Taafe (Taff, Taw, Tawey, or Towy)—a river which rises in the south part of Brecknockshire, and flows southerly, across Glamorganshire, into the bay of Swansea. The town is called, from its position near the mouth of the river, Abertaw, by the Welsh. The name of the river, variously modified, is common to many rivers in South Wales. It is said to signify a stream or river.—P.

^h 13,694, in 1831.—P.

ⁱ This is a mistake.—Caermarthen stands on another river Towy, which rises in the south-eastern corner of Cardiganshire, and flows

admits vessels of two hundred tons, and built on the river of the same name, which throws itself in the neighbourhood into the bay of Swansea. But the town of Swansea on the last mentioned bay, and at the mouth of the Towy,^g is the most considerable port in the county; and the commerce, industry and number of its inhabitants^h render it better entitled than Cardiff to the rank of capital. The products of the county are conveyed to it by several canals, which account in some degree for its rapid extension and for its present trade in coal, iron, limestone and other articles. To facilitate that trade, the harbour has been enlarged, stone piers have been erected, the river has been deepened, and obstructions have been removed from its entrance into the sea. The establishments of industry are potteries, iron-founderies and several large copper-houses, in which more than fifty thousand tons of ore are annually smelted.

If we ascend the last river,ⁱ we may arrive at the county town of Caermarthen, which is adorned with a handsome stone bridge of sixteen arches.^k It boasts of a high antiquity, and there is good reason to suppose that it occupies the site of *Maridunum*, a town of the *Demateca*.^l It was once fortified with walls and a strong castle, of which the gate only remains; it is long since the rest of the building was levelled with the ground, and a county gaol, a modern edifice of hewn stone, now rises on the place where the old fortress stood. It is also a place of considerable industry and trade; the first is directed to the products of the mines, that are situated in the neighbourhood,^m and the second is carried on by means of the river, which is navigable to vessels of three hundred tons. The same town is the supposed birth-place of the famous Merlin. A hill in the neighbourhood is still known by the name of Merlin's hill, and a rock on the brow of it forms Merlin's chair, on which he is said to have proclaimed his prophecies. Not more than fifteen miles to the south-east, and at the southern extremity of the county, is situated the flourishing town of Llanelly, where a neighbourhood abounding with coal and iron, has given rise to extensive manufactures. The harbour on the estuary of the Loughorⁿ has in consequence been much improved, and numerous rail-roads passing in different directions into the interior facilitate the conveyance of the mineral products.

Continuing our journey along the coast, we arrive at the county town of Pembroke, which is built on a neck of land that bounds the small estuary of Down-Pool,^o a branch of Milford-Haven. Although in antiquity it may rival Caermarthen, it is much inferior to it in commerce and industry. An ancient castle on a high rock at the western extremity of the town, forms a grand object,

south-westerly, through the centre of Caermarthenshire, into the bay of Caermarthen.—P.

^k There is a long narrow bridge over the Towy, of six arches, with other four in the parapet at the south end, to allow the water to pass when the river is swollen. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^l Caermarthen—the *Maridunum* of Ptolemy, and the *Caer-ryrddin* of the Britons. (Ed. Enc.)—*Maridunum* was the chief town of the *Demateca*, who occupied the three south-western counties of Wales. (Martiniere, *Dict. Geog.*)—*Caer-ryrddin* (*Caer-mardhin*) is a Welsh word, signifying the fortress of Merlin (Welsh, *Myrddin*).—P.

^m The principal manufactures are those of tin-plate and cast-iron. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁿ The Loughor is the boundary between Caermarthen and Glamorganshires. Its estuary, called also Burry River, forms the eastern extremity of Caermarthen Bay.—P.

^o On a neck of land, that divides the estuary of Down-Pool. It terminates on the west, in the rock on which the castle is situated.—P.

even in its present dilapidated state. It is now useless as a place of strength, but at so late a period as the civil wars, it was taken by Cromwell after a siege of considerable duration. It was built by Arnulph de Montgomery, in the time of William Rufus, and the cavern of Wogan beneath its ancient chapel, is remarkable for an echo that repeats several syllables. Milford-Haven, a bay surrounded by mountains, cutting deeply into the land, and resembling a lake from its placid waters, has been already described; but it may be remarked that in consequence of an act of parliament, passed in 1790, a town of the same name was founded on the northern side of the bay, about six miles to the north of Pembroke.^a As its foundation dates from so recent a period, it may be easily inferred that it is well and uniformly built, and although its commerce is not yet considerable, it is likely ere long to be extended, because it possesses many advantages in its situation at the south-west point of Wales, and in a harbour as commodious as any in Britain, and which, with its numerous creeks, inlets and roadsteads, may contain in security a thousand ships. The distinguished author of the commercial resources of Great Britain^a observes that Milford-Haven may become a very important place, whenever England engages in a war with America, or whenever the state of Ireland calls for active vigilance by sea. Such events, however much they might be deplored, are not unlikely to increase the naval or military importance, and add to the number of government establishments in the town; but it is not likely by such means to become a commercial port. It is now one of the royal docks; it has its dry docks, and thirteen building slips, from which the vessels are sent with ballast to Plymouth to be rigged and fitted out.^b

The metropolitan see of Wales was translated from Caerleon to St. David's on the promontory of the same name, the *Caput Octopitarum* of the Romans. St. David's, although a city, does not contain 3000 inhabitants, and nothing can be more mean and squalid than its appearance. The cathedral, once visited by noble and royal pilgrims, is an edifice of mixed architecture, in which the Gothic predominates. A leek, the plant of the saint to whom it is dedicated, is worn by the inhabitants on the anniversary of his birth; and although it might be difficult to account correctly for so singular an emblem, Welsh theologians have assigned to it different and contradictory meanings.

The port and county town of Cardigan gives its name to a large gulf,^d which is broken by several small bays or harbours, and by the Aeron,^e the Ystwith, the Rheidolf and other streams formed by brooks that are shallow in dry weather, but swollen by rains into impetuous torrents, that lay waste the vallies in their course. The

^a Baron C. Dupin.

^b It has an establishment of mail packets to Waterford in Ireland. A colony of Quakers from Nantucket, have erected a quay, and formed an establishment for the southern whale fishery.—P.

^c *Octopitarum Promontorium.* (Martiniere).—P.

^d The Bay of Cardigan—opening between the south-western point of Caernarvonshire, and the north-western point of Pembroke-shire.—P.

^e The Avon—a small river in Merionethshire, passing by Dolgally, and entering the sea near Barmouth.—P.

^f The Rydol or Rhyddol. This river and the Ystwith enter the sea by the same estuary in Cardiganshire.—P.

^g Called also Tivey, Tivy, Taw, Taff and Tave—in Welsh, *Tivi*. (See note 5, p. 1238.) The town is called by the Welsh, from its situation, *Aberteivi*—the word *aber* signifying a river's mouth or haven.

^h The Tivy rises in the eastern part of Cardiganshire, and below Llan-

town is built on a steep bank about two miles from the mouth of the Teivey,^g which is crossed by a bridge of seven arches. Once a place of considerable extent, it was surrounded with walls, and defended by a strong castle now in ruins. It carries on an active commerce with different parts of England and Ireland; and although the burden of the largest vessels that pass its bar at spring tide, does not exceed 300 tons, it finds trade for more than 10,000 tons of shipping.

Brecon or Brecknock, the capital of Brecknockshire, is situated at the confluence of the Hondey and the Uske, the last of which is crossed by one bridge, and the former by three. It contained 4190 inhabitants in 1821. and ten years afterwards the number amounted to 5026. It had a castle and a monastery in the time of Henry the First,^h but of the former, a single towerⁱ and part of the walls are all that remain. The same tower has been converted into an armoury, in which fifteen thousand stand of arms, and fifteen hundred swords, are arranged in the same manner as the arms in the tower of London. It is supposed that nearly half of the inhabitants are engaged in trade or manufactures, and the latter consists principally of cloth, hats and stockings. Old and New Radnor, situated in a narrow pass between two high conical hills, about two miles distant from each other, are too insignificant to require any particular notice. It may be remarked, however, that although the assizes are no longer held in New Radnor, it still returns a representative. It is mentioned as a strong place in early times, and the destruction of its walls and castle is attributed to Owen Glendower. The assizes are held at Presteigne, the Welsh Llanandrew,^k on the borders of Herefordshire, and if it be not the nominal, it may be considered the real capital of the county, for it is better built and more flourishing than Radnor.

A castle rising on a lofty rock near the right bank of the Severn,^l is seen from a great distance; it was built by the conqueror, and it became the scene of various actions in subsequent reigns. At so late a period as the time of Charles the First, it was garrisoned for the king by Lord Herbert of Cherbury, who abandoned it on the approach of the parliamentary army, and it was soon afterwards dismantled. Such is the state of Montgomery Castle, still imposing in its ruins. The town of Montgomery is neatly built, but small, and nowise remarkable for any branch of industry or trade.^m Welsh pool, near the eastern boundary of the county, and in the picturesque vale of the Severn,ⁿ is the principal place of trade in Montgomeryshire, and the great mart for the flannels which are manufactured in the town, and in the mountainous country near the sources of the river.^o The small and picturesque town of Machynlleth in the same

beder (Eng. *St. Peter's*.) forms the boundary between that county, and those of Caermarthen and Pembroke.—P.

^h Its castle was built in the reign of Henry I. On the banks of the Uske are the ruins of a Benedictine priory, and on the east of the town is a collegiate church, once a Dominican priory. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁱ Called Ely tower, from Morton, bishop of Ely, who was confined there by Richard III.—P.

^k Andrew's church—Eng. *St. Andrew's*.—P.

^l It stands on a high projecting rock, at the extremity of a hill on the north side of the town of Montgomery.—P.

^m By means of its canal, it now carries on an extensive import and export trade with Chester. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁿ It is situated about a mile west of the Severn, and is connected by a side cut with the Montgomery canal.—P.

^o The principal manufactories for flannels are within twenty miles round Welshpool. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

county, and on the banks of the Dovey, is famed in history as the place where Owen Glendower was crowned king of Wales in 1402.

It has been seen that almost all the towns in the principality are crowned by the ruins of ancient castles. Those of Denbigh Castle, with its vast enclosure on the top of a hill, form a striking object above the romantic town of the same name in the vale of Clwyd. It resembles Flint, the chief town of an adjoining county, in the style of its houses, recalling the period of the middle ages, and in the circumstance that both of them are overtopped by ancient fortresses. But Flint Castle rises on a solitary rock in a marsh on the Dee, which washes its walls at high tides. It is known as the place where the unfortunate Richard the Second was seized by the Duke of Lancaster, afterwards Henry the Fourth, to whom he surrendered his crown. Both Denbigh and Flint are insignificant in point of population, and if the former contains a greater number of inhabitants, the latter is more frequented in the summer season. The small town of Caerwys, not more than five miles from Flint, and once the capital of the county, does not contain more than 1200 souls. Four streets meet in the middle of the town,^a where it was customary for the bards to assemble, and to contend for a silver harp, which was annually given by the princes of North Wales; and it may be added that the custom was not wholly abolished before the reign of Elizabeth.^b Holywell, a market town near the mouth of the Dee,^c and containing about nine thousand inhabitants,^d is enriched by its mines and manufactures. It is likewise celebrated for the well of St. Winifred, a copious stream bursting with great impetuosity from the foot of a hill, and emitting 40,320 pints in a minute.^e It was known on account of its wonderful cures, but the waters, it is certain, are not different from those of any other spring in a similar situation. The faith in its miraculous virtue has passed away, and it has of late years been applied to useful purposes. The power of the stream now serves to turn a series of mills for working copper into sheets and bolts, for drawing brass into wires, manufacturing paper, grinding tobacco, and spinning cotton. The mines that are wrought in the neighbourhood, consist of lead, calamine and copper.^f St. Asaph, at the confluence of the Elwy and the Clwyd, is entitled a

^a The town consists of four spacious streets crossing each other at right angles, and corresponding to the points of the compass. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b Caerwys, as appears from its etymology (*caer*, town, and *grwys*, summons,) was in early times a seat of judicature. It is more noted, however, for its *Eisteddfod*,* or session of bards and minstrels, which was held there for many centuries. The judges, who awarded the prizes, were at first commissioned by the princes of North Wales, but after the conquest by Edward I., by the kings of England. In 1568, an *Eisteddfod* was held by commission from Queen Elizabeth, and 55 degrees conferred, in vocal and instrumental music. From that time, these meetings were neglected till 1798, when one was held by public notice from the Gwyneddigion† or Venedotian Society of London for the encouragement of Welsh Literature.‡ On that occasion, 20 bards, 18 singers and 12 harpers exhibited their performances in the presence of a large assembly in the town-hall. (Ed. Enc. Rees' Cyc.)—The *Eisteddfod* (annual bardic session and musical festival) is still held at Denbigh. (Bell's Geog.)—P.

* *Eisteddfod*, a session or assembly, from *cistedd*, to sit, and *bod*, to be.—*Eisteddfod y beirdd*, meeting or congress of the bards. (Owen's Welsh Dict.)—P.

† *Gwyneddigion*, plural of *Gwyneddig*, a Venedotian or North Welshman, from *Gwynedd*, one of the three native divisions of Wales, including all North Wales, except Montgomeryshire—in Latin, *Venedotia*. Montgomeryshire formed a part of *Powys*, which with South Wales, in Welsh *Deheubarth* (*deheu*, the right, the south, and *parth*, a part, a region—i. e. the south country,) included the rest of Wales and the Welsh marches. (Owen.)—P.

city, because it is the seat of a diocese; it consists merely, however, of a single street, and contains only 2000 inhabitants. The cathedral, which is falling into decay, is no longer used as a place of worship. The Merioneth assizes are alternately held in Bala and Dolgelly. The first place is ill peopled and meanly built; it claims, however, a high antiquity, which is verified by the remains of three Roman camps in its vicinity. It gives its name to the lake on which it is situated,^g and which although larger than any other in the principality, is not more than four miles in length, and about one and a half in breadth.^h Caernarvon or Carnarvon was founded in the year 1285ⁱ by Edward the First near the site of the Roman *Segontium*, of which some vestiges still remain. Situated on the southern coast of the Menai Strait, its port can admit ships of 700 tons, its quays afford great facility to the lading and unloading of merchandise, and many trading vessels resort to it from different parts of the kingdom. But it is not perhaps so well known on account of its commerce as on account of a castle, that was built by the insidious conqueror of Wales, who, having promised a native prince or ruler to the Welsh, and having afterwards appointed his own son, Edward the Second, the first prince of Wales, assured the people that he had fulfilled his promise, as the young Edward was born in Caernarvon Castle. The same ancient castle is not only the most magnificent, but the most entire of any in the principality. Equally remarkable for the extent and solidity of its walls, contrasting well with its light and graceful turrets, that rise above an embattled parapet, it may be considered a very creditable monument of the architecture of the period. Bangor, like the other episcopal towns in Wales, consists of mean and dirty houses; the old cathedral, which towers above the other buildings, was partly destroyed by Owen Glendower.

Beaumaris, which may be seen on the eastern coast from the neighbourhood of Bangor,^k is the only town that is represented in the Isle of Anglesey. But Amlwch on the northern coast is the most important maritime place in the island; its population amounts to nearly 6000 inhabitants, and its port, cut out of the solid rock, and capable of containing 30 vessels of 200 tons, was constructed by the Anglesea Mining Company.^l Lastly,

‡ Besides this and other efforts for the encouragement of their native literature, the Gwyneddigion Society has published in a work called the *Myvyrian* (Poetical) *Archæology*, a large and very complete collection of its oldest monuments.—*Myvyr*, study (particularly of poetry,) the muse. (Owen.)—P.

^c On the slope of a hill, rather more than a mile from the estuary of the Dee. The well of St. Winifred is at the foot of the hill, below the town.—P.

^d Population 10,255, in 1821. (Bell's Geog.)—P.

^e Twenty-one tons, in a minute. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f The principal products of the Holywell mines are lead (galena) and zinc (calamine.) Copper is found only in a small quantity. The copper used in the copper and brass works at Holywell, is imported in a refined state, in blocks, chiefly from Swansea in S. Wales, and Hanley in Staffordshire.—P.

^g Called by the English, Bala Pool or Pemblemeer—by the Welsh, *Llyn-Tegid* (lake of beauty.)—P.

^h The greatest breadth is 1200 yards. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁱ In 1283. (Camden.)—The town was finished in one year, and the fortifications and castle were completed before 1284, in which year Edward II. was born there. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k Beaumaris stands on the western coast of Conway Bay, at the north entrance of the Menai Straits.—P.

^l By the Anglesea Copper Companies.—The mines in the Parys mountain are the property of Lord Uxbridge (Marquis of Anglesea) and Rev. E. Hughes. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

the small island of Holyhead, near the eastern point of Anglesea, is united to it by means of a bridge. It is the station of the government packets to Dublin, and it is frequented by travellers as the most convenient place of embarkment. A headland that protects its port, forms a sort of precipice, hollowed by caverns, and frequented by sea-fowl.^a

Having mentioned all the towns of any consequence in Wales, some notice may be taken of the manners and customs, peculiar to the inhabitants on the western side of the Severn. It has been often observed that civilization and knowledge have not made the same advances in the Highlands and the Lowlands of Scotland, and the observation is perhaps as applicable to Wales and England; in other words, the Highlanders are to the Lowland Scots what the Welsh are to the English. The limits in which the dialects of either country are spoken, are rapidly contracting, and the English language might have been still more widely diffused, had it not been for the too great zeal of public associations, and amiable but not very judicious individuals.^b But although knowledge is gradually dispelling the darkness in which the inhabitants of both countries were so long benighted, it is worthy of remark that there are few absurd superstitions or ridiculous customs, believed or observed by the Welsh, to which analogies may not be found in the mountains of Caledonia. The Welsh raptures, and the second sight of the Highlanders, derive their origin from the same source, and both may be traced to the period of the druids. In Wales indeed, the *Awenyddion*^c appears to have undergone fewer changes by the lapse of ages. The prophet is carried out of himself, or is possessed by a spirit, and the only difficulty consists in attaching a meaning to his wild and incoherent rhapsody, for so soon as he returns to his usual state, he is supposed to forget all that passed, all his prophetic or insane effusions. It is but right to add that such oracles are now seldom consulted, and only in the most sequestered and thinly peopled parts of the principality. Witches are believed to exist in many parts of Wales, and numerous are the

charms, which are more or less efficacious in averting the wrath of these wicked beings. A horse-shoe, a cross or a circular stone may be seen in different parts of the house, and the *hypericum*, which has now almost as many mystical virtues as were formerly attributed to the *veronica* of the druids, is scattered at the entrance of many a cottage on the vigil of St. John, from which custom, its popular name of St. John's wort has been derived. Witches are believed to be malevolent, and it is of much consequence to conciliate them, for they have it in their power to commit great mischief; they prevent the cows from giving milk, and the butter from forming in the churn, and it is equally certain that they have often spread diseases among men and cattle. The spirits of the mountains, celebrated by the Welsh bards and in the poems of Ossian or rather Macpherson,^d are on the contrary benevolent beings; they protect the good and punish the wicked; and the same may be said of the elves, fays or fairies, that still dance by the light of the moon, and describe their circles, on the green hills of Wales. Mountainous scenery, it has often been asserted, accounts for the belief in these ideal existences; it is certainly not unfavourable to similar delusions; but before they can be wholly attributed to such a cause, mountainous scenery must be made to signify want of communications, want of intercourse, and want of the means by which knowledge is diffused, and education extended to every order of the community.

Pride of ancestry is common to the Welsh and Highlanders. It was customary for the Briton to commit to memory the names of his progenitors, and to trace them to some individual distinguished by his skill in war, his success in plunder, or any other quality that is considered a virtue by the savage. The same barbarous custom is partly preserved; it is not confined to the lower ranks, it extends to the gentry, and persons of whom the English and the Lowland Scots would not certainly be disposed to boast, are often included by the Welshman and the Highlander in the long list of their progenitors.

^a The town of Holyhead stands on a harbour on the north side of the island of the same name. The promontory, here alluded to, is called the Head; it rises, however, at the west end of the island, the port being protected by another peninsular rock, on which the churchyard is situated. To the west of the Head is an insulated rock, called the South Stack, on which a light-house, with a revolving light, has been lately erected. The island of Holyhead is called by the Welsh, *Inys-Cybi* (island of Cybi,) and the town, *Cacr-Cybi* (fortress of Cybi).—P.

^b The Welsh language is still spoken by the middle and lower classes in all the Welsh counties, and in the western part of Monmouthshire. It is a Cimbric-Celtic dialect, immediately connected with the Cornish and Armoric or Breton, and more remotely with the Gaelic-Celtic (Irish, Highland Scotch and Manks.) The Welsh call themselves *Cŵmrŷ* (*Cymry*;) their country, *Cŵmrŷ* (*Cymru*;) and their language, *Cŵmrâg* (*Cymraeg*).—P.

^c *Awenyddion*, plural of *awenydd*, a man of genius, a poet, a rhapsodist, from *awen*, genius, particularly poetical genius, inspiration, the muse. The *Awenyddion* were a class of persons in Wales, who indulged in poetical raptures, and like the ancient sibyls, prophesied in incoherent rhapsodies. (Owen. Rees' Cyc.)—They were doubtless the origin of the Welsh Ranters and Jumpers.—P.

^d The question about the authenticity of Ossian's Poems was set for ever at rest by the late Mr. Malcolm Laing, but not before Dr. Henry used them as historical monuments. It is not to be denied that traditions, however much they may have been obscured or perverted to suit the purposes of the poet, were handed down from generation to generation both in Ireland and Caledonia.

A portrait or a print of Ossian, it may be remarked, was lately sent from Scotland to the Royal Institute of France. It is at least within the limits of probability that the portrait resembles the original, particularly as there is much left to the imagination both in his character and existence.

A portrait or a print of Ossian, it may be remarked, was lately sent from Scotland to the Royal Institute of France. It is at least within the limits of probability that the portrait resembles the original, particularly as there is much left to the imagination both in his character and existence.

BOOK CLV.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Description of the British Islands.
—Second Section. *Scotland.*

THE coasts of Wales are separated from those of Scotland by a distance of about thirty leagues. The navigation of the Irish Sea is not without danger, but both the Welsh and Scotch mariners are accustomed to it, and a stranger may safely confide in their experience. Besides, the numerous inlets by which the western coast of Great Britain is so deeply indented, form so many places of shelter against the impetuosity of the waves. The voyage from Wales to the Solway Frith^a may be made in a short time, but before describing the district in the neighbourhood of the same frith, some remarks may be made on the nature of the country which is to form the subject of the present chapter.

Scotland extends from 54° 37' to 58° 41' north latitude, or from the Mull of Galloway to Cape Dunnet.^b If the Orkney and Shetland Islands be included, it stretches to 60° 52' north,^c and from 1° to 7° 50' west from Greenwich.^d The mainland is almost isolated from England by a mountainous chain, and by the rivers Tweed, Liddel, and Esk; in every other direction it is bounded by the sea. The greatest length from north to south, measuring along the meridian of Kirkcudbright, is equal to 244 miles. A straight line drawn along the coast from the Mull of Cantyre to Cape Wrath is little more than 220 miles, and in other directions the distance is not so great.^e The breadth is very various; from Burchan-ness in Aberdeenshire to the western point of Ross-shire, it is 137 miles, while it is only 36 from Dornoch Frith to Lochbroom. The former is the broadest, and the latter the narrowest part of the kingdom. The same country is naturally divided by three mountainous ranges. The first or the northern is separated from the second or the central by the friths of Moray, Linnhe and the intermediate lakes;^f the low country that extends from the Frith of Forth to the mouth of the Clyde, lies between the southern heights and the central ridge.

^a This word is properly and more usually written *Firth*, and is the same as the Scandinavian *fiord*, a bay, inlet, or estuary. *Frith* is derived from the Latin *frctum*, which properly signifies a strait or narrow passage.—P.

^b Dunnet Head, in Caithness.—P.

^c 61° 11' (Bell's Geog.)—61° 13' (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d The mainland of Scotland extends from Peterhead, in 1° 40' W., to Ardnamurchan Point, in 6° 10' W. of Greenwich. (Bell's Geog.)—Longitudes 1° 47' and 6° 7' west. (Ed. Enc.)—Including the islands, the extreme longitude east is 52' W. (that of the Shetlands,) and the extreme longitude west 8° 18' W. (that of St. Kilda.) (Ed. Enc.)—The extreme longitude west, of the Hebrides (not including St. Kilda,) is 7° 40' W. (Bell's Geog.)—P.

^e Its greatest length on any one meridian is 275 miles, viz. from the Mull of Galloway to Farout Head; but the distance between the two extreme parallels of the mainland is 284 miles. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f The valley separating the two ranges is called, in Gaelic, *Glenmore na Albin* (the great glen of Caledonia,) and it forms the line of the Caledonian canal. Beginning at the north-east, its bottom is occupied successively by the head of Moray Firth, the river Ness, Loch Ness, Loch Oich, Loch Lochy, the river Lochy, and the inlet of Loch

A chain stretching from south-west to north-east, and crossing the southern portion of Scotland, commences at Port-Patrick and terminates at St. Abb's Head. The highest summits are situated near the northern limits of Dumfries-shire; Hartfell reaches to an elevation of 3302 feet above the level of the sea, and several others are higher than 2000. But the heights on both sides, as they recede from these lofty hills, become gradually lower; thus the Moorfoot, Soutra and the Lammermuirs on the east, and the hills of Kirkcudbright or Galloway on the west, vary from 1800 to 800 feet.^g

The wall of separation between the two kingdoms of Great Britain, extending first to the east, and afterwards to the north-east, is connected with the same central group, and terminates in the Cheviots, which have been mentioned in a former chapter. Another series stretches in a north-west direction, to the low hills near the mouth of the Clyde.

Criffel, which is nearly 2000 feet above the level of the sea, forms part of a different branch that separates the counties of Kirkcudbright and Dumfries. The small chain of the Pentlands is connected with the common centre; the group of Tintoc^h is in some places more than 2300 feet in height, but the eastern extremities of the Pentlands are nowhere higher in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh than 1700,ⁱ and in some places so low as six or seven hundred feet.^k

The populous and fruitful valleys of Scotland are situated between the mountainous chains or branches that meet in Hartfell and the Leadhills; but even the valleys are in some places crowned by considerable heights. This remark is applicable to the western coast, to the southern part of Ayrshire, to the county of Dumfries, where the low districts are subdivided by the Eildon and Garleton hills.^l Numerous small valleys are enclosed by these heights, and all of them are watered by streams, the tributaries of the principal rivers that rise from the vicinity of the central chain.

Linnhe (on the south-west.) The waters of the opposite seas are separated by a small space of level ground between the heads of Loch Oich and Loch Lochy.—P.

^g The Muirfoot Hills, on the southern border of Mid Lothian, rise to 1850 feet. Soutra Hill, in the south-west corner of E. Lothian, is 1716 feet high, and Cockburn-law, near the eastern extremity of the Lammermuir ridge, in Berwickshire, 900 feet high. Clint Hill, at the north-western extremity of the same ridge, is 1544 feet high. Spartleton Hill, in the parish of Spott, south of Dunbar, rises to the height of 1615 feet. The granite ridges of Cairnsmuir, between the Ken, the Dee and the Fleet, in Kirkcudbrightshire, rise in their highest points to 2597 and 2329 feet.—P.

^h Tinto Hill, a detached summit or group in Upper Clydesdale, round the base of which the Clyde winds on the east and north.—P.

ⁱ Eastside Blackhill, the highest of the Pentlands, near the middle of the range, is 1878 feet above the level of the sea.—P.

^k Boué, Introduction à l'Essai Géologique sur l'Ecosse.

^l The Eildon Hills, remarkable for their three-forked summit, rise south of Melrose, in the north-western part of Roxburghshire. The Garleton Hills form a ridge in the low country of East Lothian, near Haddington.—P.

The country on the north of the Forth is crossed by two lofty chains, the Grampians and the mountains of Inverness-shire, connected with each other by the pass of Drumochter, and imperfectly separated by the valleys of the Orchy^a and the Spey, and the sterile plain or moor of Rannoch. The first of these chains derives its name from the *Mons Grampius* of Agricola, and the determination of its site is still an object of research to antiquaries.^b The ridge forms a belt about forty miles in breadth, stretching in a north-east direction across the island from Cantyre to the coast between Stonehaven and the mouth of the Spey. In the group of Cairngorm are situated the highest summits; ^c Ben-na-Muich-Duidh^d is about 4300 feet in height, and some others in the neighbourhood are nearly equal to 4000.^e The mountains descend on the east of the same group, and Morayshire and Banffshire are in many places comparatively low or level; but a line of bold heights, (some of 3000, and on an average not less than 2500 feet,) ^f extends on the west of Cairngorm, and terminates in hills near the shores of the Atlantic Ocean.

The Grampians are separated from the more civilized part of Scotland by a parallel and lower chain, of which the crest forms a line from Aberdeenshire to the southern extremity of Loch-Lomond.^g It is naturally divided into three sections. The Sidla hills, which pass from Redhead^h in Angus-shire to the neighbourhood of Perth, and which are in few places higher than 1000 feet,ⁱ enclose with the Grampians the fruitful valley of Strathmore. The Ochils, or the second group, extend from Parton Craigs^k to Stirling, and are connected with the Grampians by their highest summits on the west, which are equal to 2200 feet in height;^l on the east, however, their altitude is not in general greater than that of the Sidla hills. The third section consists of the Campsie hills, between Stirling and Dumbarton; in some places they are 1500 feet high, but on an average little more than 800. The northern heights^m that run parallel to the Caledonian canal cover a space about thirty miles

^a The Orchy (Orchay or Urchay) is a small river, flowing through Glenorchy into the head of Loch Awe.—P.

^b That is, the site of *Mons Grampius*. Some have placed it in Stormont (Perthshire,) between the Tay and the Isla; others, near Stonehaven, on the sea-coast, in Kincardineshire.—P.

^c This group is situated at the western extremity of Aberdeenshire, near the source of the Dee.—P.

^d Ben-muc-dhu (Ed. Enc.)—Ben na Muc Dubh, or Beinn na Muich Duibh (Peak of the black boar.)—P.

^e The summit of Cairngorm is 4060 feet high; that of Cairntoul 4220.—P.

^f In this line are Cairn-Gower (3690 feet,) Schihallion (3564 feet,) Ben-Lawers (4015 feet,) Ben-More (3980 feet,) and Ben-Lomond, (3176 feet.)—P.

^g The south front of the Grampians extends from the north-eastern corner of Kincardineshire to Ben-Lomond; the lower chain here mentioned, from Redhead in Forfarshire, or rather from Stonehaven in Kincardineshire, to near Dumbarton.—P.

^h The Redhead is a promontory on the coast between Montrose and Aberbrothock. The Sidla range properly extends along the coast of Kincardineshire to Dunottar, south of Stonehaven.—P.

ⁱ The highest of the Sidla Hills is 1406 feet high.—P.

^k Ferry-Port-on-Craig, on the south side of the Tay, at its mouth. The Ochils skirt the south shore of the Tay to near the mouth of the Earn.—P.

^l The Ochils, after skirting the south shore of the Tay to near Abernethy, extend south-westerly, between Perthshire on the north, and Fifeshire, Kinross-shire and Clackmannanshire on the south, nearly to the banks of the Forth, opposite Stirling. They swell into a very lofty group, north of Clackmannanshire, where the highest summit is Benclough or Benclach (2420 feet above the sea.) On the south side of the Forth the same range is continued by the rock of Stirling, the hills of Gargunnoch, and the Campsie Fells, towards Dumbarton. The Ochils, at their western extremity, are not immediately, if at all,

in breadth, and the principal summits are situated in the western part of the chain; there Ben-Nevis, the loftiest of the British mountains, reaches to an elevation of 4380 feet. If the intermediate valleys be not taken into account, the mountains that extend from Ben-Nevis to the Murray Frith, descend very gradually, while a line in an opposite direction, from the same point to the inlet of Etive,ⁿ or even to the islands of Jura and Isla, which rise, however, to the height of 2400 feet,^o forms a sufficiently rapid declivity.

The Dee and the Don rise in the Cairngorm heights, from which many streams descend and join other large rivers. The Garry, the Spey and the Roy^p have their sources near the pass of Drumochter, one of the highest valleys in Scotland, and one which forms, as has been already indicated, the connecting line between two chains that were probably at a former period united. In another direction, the inequalities in the surface are concealed by numerous lakes, whence several rivers take their source; among others, the Forth, of which the basin separates the Grampians from the southern chain. In the same part of Scotland, and besides the valleys of the Dee and the Don, are those of the Earn, the Tay, and other large streams, of which the course is not less than sixty miles. The same valleys are connected with others of smaller dimensions, that are watered by the feeders of the principal rivers.

If the plain which covers the greater part of Caithness be excepted, the rest of the country on the north of the Caledonian canal is very mountainous. The heights form a broad belt almost parallel to the other chains, and extend from the Hebrides along the confines of Ross-shire and Caithness to the Ord of Caithness on the shores of the German Ocean. Stretching northwards, they run into the North Sea, and appear anew in the islands of Shetland.^q Their arrangement in another respect resembles that of the Scottish chains; for the highest summits are situated on the west, and they descend gradually on the opposite side of the island.^r

connected with the Grampians. They are there bounded on the west and north-west by the vale of the Allan, a part of the great vale of Strathmore, which skirts the whole southern foot of the Grampians.—P.

ⁿ The mountains of Inverness, mentioned in the preceding paragraph. They form the eastern boundary of Glenmore na Albin.—P.

^o Loch Etive, in Argyleshire.—P.

^p The mountains of Jura terminate on the south-west, in four conical summits, called the Paps of Jura; of which the two highest, viz. Beinn an Oir (golden mountain) and Beinn Shianta (consecrated or holy mountain) are respectively 2359 and 2476 feet high. Some of the mountains in the east and north of Isla rise to the height of 1800 feet.—P.

^q The Garry, a branch of the Tay, descends to the eastern coast, the Spey to the northern; and the Roy, a branch of the Lochy, to the western.—P.

^r The language here used is certainly very inaccurate. The heights, here mentioned, are of primitive formation, and occupy the western part of Inverness-shire, and nearly the whole of Ross and Sutherland. They terminate, on the north-east, nearly on the line between Sutherland and Caithness; the greater part of the latter county being a comparatively level tract, and composed of old red sandstone. The north-eastern extremity of these heights thus forms a range of high lands, overlooking the low country of Caithness, and extending from the Ord of Caithness on the south-eastern coast, to Reay on the northern coast. The northern coast of Caithness consists thus of red sandstone, which forms nearly the whole of the Orkneys, and reappears in the Shetland Islands, particularly on the eastern coast of the Mainland. The northern coast of Sutherland consists of primitive rocks, which reappear in the Shetlands, forming the greater part of those islands.—P.

^s For a more complete and full account of the Scotch mountains, the reader may consult the excellent essay on the geology of Scotland, by M. A. Boué.

The principal rivers in Scotland communicate with the German Ocean; the Clyde forms the only exception; the others on the west, are mostly torrents or mountain streams that fall into the Atlantic at no great distance from their source. And this fact is confirmatory of what has been already said concerning the height of the mountains on the west, and their descent or total absence on the east. It follows also, from the same fact, that the fruitful plains, or rather the large and populous vallies in Scotland, are situated near the eastern coast. In a statistical point of view, the Forth, the Clyde and the Tay are the most important of the Scottish rivers, but it must not be inferred that they are the largest; others in the northern part of the country, may bear a comparison with the two former.^a

The following tables indicate the actual population and the dimensions of the basins of the three rivers:—

Basin of the Forth.

Counties.	Inhabitants.	Square miles.	Inhabitants per square mile.
Haddington	36,145	272	136
Edinburgh	219,592	354	624
Linlithgow	23,291	121	192
Stirling ^b	72,621	502	144
Clackmannan	14,729	48	306
Kinross	9,072	78	116
Fife (½) ^c	42,450	158	268
Total	417,900	1533	mean 273

Basin of the Clyde.

Counties.	Inhabitants.	Square miles.	Inhabitants per square mile.
Dumbarton	33,211	259	124
Renfrew	133,443	227	587
Lanark	316,819	945	335
Ayr	145,055	1122	129
Total	628,528	2553	mean 246

Basin of the Tay.

Counties.	Inhabitants.	Square miles.	Inhabitants per square mile.
Fife (¾) ^d	85,600	316	270
Perth	142,900	2638	54
Angus or Forfar . .	139,600	892	156
Kincardine ^d	31,430	382	82
Total	399,530	4228	mean 94

^a The Spey is said to be the longest river in Scotland. Its length is 90 miles in a direct course, and 120 including its windings. The Dee and the Don are the next longest rivers in the north of Scotland.—P.

^b The south-western part of Stirlingshire lies in the basin of the Clyde.—P.

^c If Fife-ness be taken as the boundary between the basins of the Forth and Tay, at least one half of Fife will lie in the basin of the former. No part of the county, south of that line, can be reckoned in the basin of the Tay, and nearly the whole of the county, north of that line, lies in the basin of the Eden.—P.

^d The basin of the Tay must be extended to the mouth of the Dee, to include the counties of Forfar and Kincardine. Only the western border of Forfarshire lies within the proper basin of the Tay; the greater part of the remainder lies within the basins of the North and South Esks. No part of Kincardineshire lies within the proper basin of the Tay; its northern border is included within the basin of the Dee.—P.

^e Inch Garvey, Inch Colme, Inch Keith, Cramond Island, Fidrie Island, Bass Rock, and the Isle of May, in the Forth; the latter, six or seven miles from the coast of Fife, with a light-house. Bell Rock, off

It appears from the above tables that the basin of the Forth is the least in extent, and the greatest in relative population; the basin of the Clyde is more extensive, and holds the next rank in point of population; while that of the Tay, although greater than the two others together, is both relatively and absolutely less populous than either.

The Tay, however, is the largest of the Scottish rivers, and it is related that the Romans, under the command of Agricola, having crossed the first mountains on the north of the Lowlands, entered the fruitful valley of the Tay in the neighbourhood of Perth. A majestic river, and a country rich in comparison of the one they had passed, awakened emotions natural to men, who are reminded of their native land by sensible objects in a distant and unknown region. Imagination created or discovered some resemblance between the cold Caledonia and the sunny Italy, and no sooner was the Tay descried by the soldiers, than they shouted with one accord, *Ecce Tiberim!*

The number of islands enclosed by the seas that bound Scotland, is too remarkable to escape observation; they appear always in groups, are confined to the western and northern coasts, and are not seen on the eastern, unless indeed a few detached and barren rocks that rise above the surface of the water in the friths of Forth and Tay,^e can be dignified with the name. The larger islands are separated from each other in some places by very deep water, in others by so shallow a sea as to render it probable that they were formerly united. This remark is applicable to the sea between Tiree^f and Coll, and between several islands in the group, that has been denominated Long Island.^g The connexion between others is indicated by shelving rocks, or by a strait that is left dry at low water. Violent currents occasioned by the flux and reflux of the tides, such as the impetuous Corry-Vrechan,^h rush between some of them, and the effect of the great Atlantic current is made manifest by plants, pieces of wood, or other products, which are occasionally carried from the New World to the shores of the Hebrides. But the sea between the islands and the coasts of Scotland is subject to the most rapid currents; the waters in the arm of the sea that separates the island of Mull, one of the Hebrides, from the district of Lorn, are thus impelled with great velocity. The Pentland Frith, the “Scylla and Charybdis” of Scotland, is exposed in certain seasons to opposite currents. “The current,” says Mr. Playfair, “is exceedingly strong dur-

the mouth of the Tay, about 11 miles distant from the nearest coast, has also a light-house.—P.

^f Tiry, Tirey, Tیره, Tyrie.—Gaelic, *Tir*, land; *I*, Iona; i. e. land belonging to I or Iona. (Statist. Acc. x. 393.) Rather, *Tir*, land, and *I*, island; Iona (Gaelic *Ithann*) being itself a compound of *I*, island, and *ton*, wave: i. e. island of waves. Tiree is very low and level; so low, indeed, that the breakers on one coast can, in some places, be seen from the opposite; hence it is also called, in Gaelic, *Rioghachd bar fo* (*fuiddh*) *thuin*, kingdom of summits below the waves.—P.

^g The Long Island, so called, forms a chain of islands, extending north by east, parallel to the west coast of Scotland, from the rock, called Barra Head, on the south, to the north point of Lewis, called the Butt of Lewis, on the north. It includes, besides numerous small islands and rocks, the larger islands of Barra, South Uist, Benbecula, North Uist, and Lewis (including the peninsula of Harris, on the south.) The passages, from east to west, between these islands, are generally shallow, and encumbered with rocks and shoals; hence the whole chain has been supposed to have originally formed a single island.—P.

^h Corryvrechan—whirlpool of Brechan, a son of a king of Denmark, who perished in it.—P.

ing spring tides. The flood tide runs from west to east, at the rate of ten miles an hour, at full and new moon. It is then high water at Skarfskerry, (whence the ferry-boat crosses from Dunnet to Orkney), at 9-8 o'clock A. M.; but in the middle of the frith, the tide continues to run eastward till mid-day, while the current along the shore flows in an opposite direction. The same phenomena are reversed about three o'clock, and they thus continue in succession."^{a b} These causes account for the danger to which mariners are exposed in the Pentland Frith, but the necessity of its navigation has been fortunately superseded in a great measure by the Caledonian canal.

The eastern coast of Scotland is naturally divided into two large gulfs, the one stretching from the shores of Northumberland to Kinnaird's Head, and the other from the latter promontory to Duncansby Head. In figure both resemble each other; they form two triangles, of which the southern is larger than the northern, although the base of the latter is upwards of sixty-five miles in length.^c In other respects they are not unlike, and the neck of land that separates the friths of Dornoch and Murray may be compared to the extremity of Fife, the boundary between the friths of the Forth and Tay; but there is no inlet in the one, like the frith of Cromarty in the other. There is, however, a considerable resemblance in the sinuations that are observed in the two divisions, in the course of the rivers, and the direction of the streams.

The outline of the western coast is very different; the large frith of the Clyde, and the extent of sea between the island of Mull and the shores of Lorn may perhaps resemble the two great divisions on the eastern coast. But all the numerous bays in the west, are small in comparison of those in the east. The inlets penetrate far into the land, and might be mistaken for lakes or rivers, if it were not for the loud noise occasioned by the flux and reflux of the tide, and for the *algæ* that decay on their surface.^d The extraordinary depth of these narrow inlets at great distances from the open sea, may perhaps be considered characteristic of the western coast. Thus, Loch Fine in the neighbourhood of Inverary is sixty fathoms deep, and Loch Goyle,^e although not much broader than a mile at its upper extremity, is at least fifty-seven fathoms.^f The shores are in general bold and lofty, a fact that might have been inferred from the height of the mountains towards the south-west, and the dip of the strata in an opposite direction, a conformity which is observed both in continents and islands, although the cause cannot be explained in the present state of geological science. But the same shores appear as if they had been broken or shattered in many places, and to account for the phenomenon, something must be allowed for the violence of the western waves. The opposite coasts are only lofty at the places where the extremities

of the chains extend to the eastern limits of the kingdom. Thus, precipices of several hundred feet in height may be observed along the shore from Redhead to Aberdeen, and at Peterhead, Portsoy, the Ord of Caithness, St. Abb's Head and Tantallon Castle.

However numerous and different the depths that are indicated by the sounding line near the opposite sides of Scotland may be, they depend more or less on the phenomena that have been mentioned. Near the low shores on the east, the depth increases by an almost imperceptible descent, while the line sinks several fathoms near the bold rocks on the west. There are, however, exceptions to the rule, and at no great distance from the flat and level shore of Irvine, the water is thirty or thirty-five fathoms deep. The eastern coasts are more extensive than the western, and they are relatively more populous, consequently industry has made more rapid advances, and the land is more productive. But the same fact which is ascertained by statistical results, might also have been determined by the nature of the coasts and the country in their vicinity.

The northern coast, the least in point of extent, is bounded by bold rocks, or indented by numerous bays and headlands, and difficult of navigation on account of a tempestuous sea and opposite currents. The correspondence of the rocks and soils on the southern and northern limits of the Pentland Frith, and onwards between the Orkneys and the Shetland Islands, renders it highly probable that the two groups formed once part of the mainland of Scotland; but the period when the convulsion that separated them took place, and the agent by which it was effected, are alike unknown. Lastly, if the area of Scotland were bounded by straight lines, the length of the lines might be less, at all events not greater, than 600 miles, whereas the coasts are so much broken and indented, or so extensive in proportion to the surface, that the actual distance is equal to two thousand.^g

The mineral kingdom in Scotland has been the subject of much research to geologists, and it has consequently been examined with greater accuracy than that of most countries. The riches which are obtained from it, have increased the resources, commerce and industry of the inhabitants, and part of Scotland must have been less distinguished for wealth and civilization, had it not been for the products that are contained beneath its surface.

The coal district is situated in the populous and fruitful country between the transition chain in the south, and the loftier primitive chains in the north. It may be almost said to be confined to this part of the kingdom, for although it occurs elsewhere, it is only observed in inconsiderable quantities and of an inferior quality.^h The quantity of coal consumed annually in the country, is more than two millions and a half, and considerably less than three millions of tons. Of these, two millions are

^a This sentence in the original stands thus: "This phenomenon is reversed at three o'clock."—P.

^b Playfair's Description of Scotland, vol. ii. p. 205.

^c The south side of the latter is 80 miles in length. (Bell's Geog.)—P.

^d Boué, p. 10.

^e Loch Fyne—Loch Goyl or Goil. The latter is a long and narrow inlet, penetrating north-west into Argyshire, from Loch Long.—P.

^f Jameson's Travels, vol. i. p. 139.

^g Playfair's Description of Scotland, vol. i. p. 7.

^h Besides the great coal-field, here mentioned, there is a small coal

formation, forming a very narrow belt along the shore, at Brora, on the eastern coast of Sutherland, and resting almost immediately on granite; also, another small formation, on the western coast of Caithness, near Campbelltown, appearing to lie immediately on mica-slate; and lastly, a series of coal strata, of little or no value, covered and intersected by trap rocks, extending in a narrow line through the Shiant Isles, Raasay, the eastern part of Sky, Egg, Muck, Mull and Morven. These formations are independent of the great coal-field. Coal is also wrought in a basin on the lower part of the Esk, in Canobie (Dumfries-shire.)—P.

necessary for domestic purposes, and the remainder is consumed in the iron and lime works, and in different manufactories. Besides, a considerable quantity is exported to Ireland, and a good market is obtained for the better sorts in some parts of England. The superficial extent of the great coal-field that stretches in a diagonal direction from the Frith of Clyde at Dumbarton to St. Andrews in Fife, and to East-Lothian,^a has been estimated at 620,000 acres or nearly 1000 square miles; and it has also been calculated that according to the present consumption, it may be worked with advantage during 3000 years.

Although iron is not uncommon in many counties, and although it abounds in the coal districts, all the produce of the mines is insufficient for the supply of the different iron-works, and metal is still imported in considerable quantities from the south, and in particular from Wales. It appears from a comparatively recent account of the country, that there are at present twenty-one blast furnaces in Scotland, yielding annually about 33,000 tons, and furnishing employment to nearly 8000 inhabitants.

The principal lead mines are those at Leadhills and the village of Wanlockhead, on the confines of Lanark and Dumfries. Evidence is not wanting to show that lead was wrought by the Romans in some parts of the sister kingdom, and it is very probable that other works of the same sort were carried on in Scotland by the Danes. It is worthy of notice, therefore, that the most productive lead veins in Scotland were not known before the year 1540. Long after that period, however, the discovery of mines depended on chance, fortunate accidents and fortuitous circumstances. Galena is the principal ore which is obtained by the miners of Leadhills and Wanlockhead. The matrix is generally calcareous spar, quartz, manganese and clay, and the accompanying metallic ores are blende, calamine, iron and copper. Other mines are worked at Strontian on the west coast, and in the island of Isla, one of the Hebrides. The mines of Strontian traverse gneiss rock, and are remarkable for the mineral substance which derives its name from that of the place.^b The veins of Isla run in primitive limestone, and it is supposed, not without reason, that they were wrought by the Danes.^c The annual produce of the mines in Leadhills and Wanlockhead varies from three to four thousand tons; and it has been estimated that the price obtained for the lead, which is yearly obtained from all the Scotch mines, is not less than L.136,000.

The silver extracted from the lead is not equal on an average to ten ounces in each ton. Little more than thirty years ago, the inhabitants were ignorant of the method of extracting the silver, and for that purpose it

^a The great coal-field extends across the island in a south-west direction, from the coast of Fife and East Lothian, to that of Ayrshire. It is bounded on the north by a chain of trap mountains, including the Ochils, the Lennox Hills, and the ridge of hills extending from the Clyde opposite Dumbarton, along the east shore of the Frith, to Ardrossan. The south boundary extends along the northern base of the transition chain in the south of Scotland, through Ayrshire, Lanarkshire, Peebles-shire, Mid Lothian and East Lothian, nearly to St. Abb's Head in Berwickshire.—P.

^b Strontianite, Carbonate of Strontian—found in veins in gneiss, with galena, carbonate and sulphate of barytes and calcareous spar. In this mineral, Dr. Hope first discovered the new earth Strontites, in 1791.—P.

^c Williams' Mineral Kingdom.

^d Granite is extensively quarried near Aberdeen, both for home

consumption and exportation. Great quantities are shipped to London. There are very extensive quarries of excellent sandstone, near Edinburgh, with which all the new houses in that city are constructed.—P.

was sent to Holland. The work, however, is now done in the country, and nearly L.10,000 worth of silver are extracted by the Scotch from their lead mines. Although other metals are observed in the same country, and although some of them have been worked at different periods, they are not in a national point of view of much importance.

Granite, basalt, sandstone and other stones used for building are so common in most districts, that they are only valuable in the vicinity of ports or large towns.^d Slate is wrought on a great scale in the Hebrides, in Argyleshire and different counties.^e Lime is abundant, and it appears from the compendium of the statistical account that 12,000,000 bushels of slaked lime, worth more than L.350,000, are wrought in different places, particularly in the neighbourhood of the coal-works. Much marble might be obtained from the Hebrides,^f the western coast of Argyleshire, Sutherland and other parts of the country. But its value is diminished by the foreign substances with which it is mixed, and by the same cause the labour of working it is increased.

It is affirmed that the greater number of precious stones have been discovered in the mountainous districts of Scotland. The ruby, it has been said, is found in the counties of Fife, Banff, Inverness and Aberdeen, the emerald in the mountains of Cairngorm, the aqua-marine or precious beryl in Inverness-shire and the Orkney Islands, the sapphire in different parts of the Highlands, and the amethyst in Strathspey. Lastly, the topaz occurs in the same strath, in Cairngorm, and in the Isle of Arran, and the garnet is common in Aberdeenshire. Stones, to which the above names have been applied, are certainly found, and it is equally true that most of them are incorrectly designated. Thus, the ruby of Fifeshire and the other counties is a species of garnet; the emerald of Cairngorm and Strathspey, and the aqua-marine of the Orkneys, are varieties of precious beryl; the sapphire of the Highlands is a pale green coloured topaz; while the topaz of Cairngorm, the Isle of Arran, and other places, is rock crystal of different colours, such as brown, wine-yellow and orange-yellow.^g

Having entered into details concerning the climate of England, or rather Britain, it need only be observed that the difference in this respect between the two countries, may be explained by the more northern situation of the latter,^h by mountainous groups and other local causes. The difference, however, is by no means inconsiderable, and it is plainly exhibited in the phenomena of vegetation. The crops in Scotland are not reaped with the same certainty, and the expectations of the farmer are more frequently disappointed. Neither do the ordinary kinds of grain arrive at the same perfection; thus, al-

consumption and exportation. Great quantities are shipped to London. There are very extensive quarries of excellent sandstone, near Edinburgh, with which all the new houses in that city are constructed.—P.

^e Slates of an excellent quality are wrought to a very great extent, in the islands of Seil, Luin and Easdale, between the north point of Jura and Lorn; also in Glenco, and in the islands of Bute and Inch Marnoch. Slate is also wrought in various places along the southern border of the Grampians, from Loch Lomond to Blair-gowrie.—P.

^f The island of Tiree furnishes a beautiful green marble, in high estimation.—P.

^g See the Paper on the topaz of Scotland by Professor Jameson—Wernerian Transactions, volume 4th.

^h Scotland.

though Scotch and English barley may be of the same weight, the former is not sold at so high a price; it contains less saccharine matter, and yields a less quantity of malt. Fruits, which ripen in the one country, seldom arrive at maturity in the other, and never in the same perfection; while different berries acquire somewhat of that delicious flavour which distinguishes them in still higher parallels. Independently, however, of the climate, communications are rendered difficult by the nature of the surface, and the labour of cultivating the land is necessarily increased. It is stated in the supplement of the Statistical Account, that "the total number of English acres in the kingdom, amounts to 18,944,000; of these 5,044,450 have been cultivated, leaving 13,900,550, (including 913,695 in woods and plantations), in an uncultivated state." Of that immense tract the elevation is in general so high, and the soil and subsoil so barren, that there are not probably above three millions of acres, which can ever be rendered arable. In round numbers, therefore, there are nineteen millions of acres in Scotland, of which five are in cultivation, three capable of being brought into it, about one in woods and plantations, and the remaining ten millions, or more than one-half of the entire surface, are doomed to remain in sterility.

Remains of antiquity may be discovered in almost every parish of the kingdom; mention has already been made of the Roman wall between the friths of Forth and Clyde; it is called in the country *Graham's dyke* from the first Scottish warrior, who is supposed to have crossed it. The remains of Roman camps are situated in the neighbourhood, and one of them is believed to have been the camp of Agricola.^a The conical towers that crown the lofty summits, and the subterranean dwellings attributed to the Picti,^b belong probably to the same epoch. It is uncertain whether the old towers, some of them round, others square, and all remarkable for the solidity of the cement by which they are united, were raised by the Romans, or by natives, whom the Romans instructed in the art of building; it has never, however, been doubted that they were erected at a very early period.^c Several monuments of Saxon architecture date from the ninth and tenth centuries, but the religious edifices and the old castles, which became asylums to the nobles during the civil wars, were mostly erected in the thirteenth and fourteenth.

Such are the relics of the three most obscure periods of Scottish history. It appears from the earliest historical researches that the original inhabitants of Scotland were Cimbri, who left the Cimbric Chersonesus or the present Denmark about two centuries before the Christian era. These tribes continued in possession of the country until the *Caledones*^d or *Picti*, whom Tacitus

^a The camp at Ardoch, the largest and most complete in Scotland, has been considered the camp which Agricola occupied, before his engagement with Galgacus. It is situated in the parish of Muthil, in Perthshire, between the Teith and the Erne, near the south foot of the Grampians.—P.

^b The Picti.

^c The lofty circular towers of Abernethy and Brechin, the only monuments of the kind in Scotland, have been attributed to the Picti. Abernethy was the capital of the Pictish kingdom. These monuments, however, stand in the churchyards, and may be compared with the detached belfries in Italy.—P.

^d *Caledones* or *Caledonii*. Tacitus does not use either of these terms, or that of *Picti*, but employs the expression "Caledoniam habitantes" (inhabitants of Caledonia), including them under the general term *Britanni*.—P.

includes among the Germans,^e sailed from Norway, and landed on the northern coasts; by these new settlers the Cimbri were driven into the southern districts of Scotland.^f The Picti became the ancestors of the inhabitants of the Lowlands, who have ever been distinguished from the people in the Highlands. It was about the year 258 that the Dalriads of the venerable Bede, or the Attacotti of Ammianus Marcellinus and the Roman writers, passed from Ireland to Argyleshire, and became the germ of the Highlanders, who speak the Irish or Celtic language, while the Lowlanders have always used the Scandinavian or Gothic.^g The country having been subdued by Agricola, the conquest was not preserved, but Caledonia continued a nominal province of Rome during 300 years. It was governed by the chiefs of different tribes, their peculiar customs were preserved, and that of painting the body was retained by the Picti.

The Cimbri and the Attacotti leagued against the Picti after the fall of the Roman empire, and in many a battle contended for sovereignty. An alliance was at last concluded by the chiefs of the opposite parties, but it was not before the year 843 that all the inhabitants submitted to Kenneth II. king of Scotland. The country during several reigns after this period, became the prey of Danes and Norwegians, but its independence was secured by the courage of the inhabitants. The northern part of the kingdom retained the name of Pictland until the beginning of the eleventh century; the southern was styled Valencia and Cumbria, names which recalled the period of the Roman domination. The vallies at the base of the Grampians were inhabited by the descendants of the Attacotti. These distinctions continued until the eleventh century, when the name of Scotia was applied by the Irish to modern Scotland. This new confusion of names must be attributed to the vanity or nationality of Hibernian clergy, then settled in Scotland, and then the sole instructors of the Scots. It has, however, been maintained that the Attacotti, who were an Irish tribe, gave the name of Scotia to Pictland or the country which they subdued. The fact appears very doubtful, and it is certain that the name was unknown and never used by the Irish and Saxon writers during three centuries after the event is said to have taken place.^h But the reign of Malcolm III. is not only remarkable in this respect, it forms the commencement of a period distinguished by greater cultivation or less barbarism and more authentic history. The extinction of the ancient line of kings in the person of Margaret of Norway, occasioned the arbitrary interposition of Edward I. of England, the origin of the enmity that afterwards prevailed between the two kingdoms. The English monarch, availing himself of the opportunity afforded by the death of Alexander the Third, destroyed the prin-

^e Tacitus simply observes that their German origin is proved by their red hair and large frames, contrasting them with the *Silures* of Wales, whose Iberian origin, he says, is rendered probable by their dark complexion, curled hair, and position opposite Spain. (Vit. Agr § 11.)—P.

^f "So far as historical researches can discover, the original population of Scotland consisted of Cimbri, from the Cimbric Chersonese. About two centuries before the Christian era, the Cimbri seem to have been driven to the south of Scotland by the Caledonians or Picti, a Gothic colony from Norway." (Pinkerton's Geog. vol. I. p. 94. 4to. London, 1811.)—P.

^g Pinkerton's Geography, vol. 1st, page 150.

^h Pinkerton. Idem. Ibid.

principal archives of Scotland, that he might lay claim to a sovereignty, which his predecessors had never possessed. John Baliol was decorated with the vain title of king, but he was forced to acknowledge his dependence, to submit to many indignities, and to appear six times before the English parliament. Such a policy, it was thought, might excite the king of the Scots to war, and lead to the forfeiture of his crown, and the event was not different from what had been anticipated. Baliol resisted humiliating concessions, and proclaimed the independence of his country. Edward, master of all the strong places, subdued a nation without the means of defence, led the king in captivity to London, and carried off the insignia of royalty, along with the famous stone of Inisfail,^a the palladium of Scottish freedom. The Scots were in vain roused against their oppressor by the brave Wallace; in so unequal a contest, the slight chance which the weaker party had of success, depended on their union, but they were divided into parties, and the patriot, betrayed and delivered to the sanguinary conqueror, suffered the last punishment. When too late, the Scots deplored that they had not conferred an authority on Wallace of which he was worthy; but the honour of avenging him was reserved for the celebrated Bruce, who having been proclaimed king in 1306, gained eight years afterwards the decisive battle of Bannockburn, by which the independence of Scotland was secured.

Anarchy and revolt became afterwards of frequent occurrence in Scotland. It was the object of James the First, an able prince, and of a refinement above that of his subjects, to extend the influence of the crown, and to improve the government of his kingdom by introducing institutions, which he had observed in England. To weaken the power of the nobles, the estates of some were seized on account of defects in their titles, while the lands of others were confiscated on account of alleged crimes. But this policy proved fatal to the monarch; the nobles united against him, an insurrection took place, and the king was slain. To humble the nobles was likewise the policy of his son James the Second, but his conduct was marked with greater ferocity, cruelty and perfidy. If he escaped the danger of a formidable rebellion, it was owing to the treachery of some, and the irresolution of others. Having improved the advantages, which follow from a subdued revolt, he was suddenly cut off by the bursting of a cannon at the siege of Roxburgh. The incapacity of his successor, James the Third, was evinced in the choice of low and worthless favourites; despised by his subjects, hated by the nobles, whom he oppressed, they entered into a conspiracy, and freed their country from a weak and wicked prince. Very different was the character of his successor, James the Fourth; if the father was satisfied with vulgar amusements or pleasure, to attain military glory was the great ambition of his chivalrous son. Generous and free from deccit, he confided in his nobles, gained their attachment, secured their fidelity, and lived

with them in that sort of intimacy, which was common in feudal times between a warlike leader and his vassals. The effects of his policy are remarkable, for it is admitted that the nobles suffered more during this reign from their devotedness and attachment than they had done on any former occasion from the jealousy or enmity of the crown. Lewis the Twelfth meditated an invasion of England; to facilitate his project, James made an incursion into the same country, and fell with the flower of his nobility on the field of Flodden.

James the Fifth alienated the affections of his people and nobles by favouring the pretensions of the clergy. But neither the king nor the clergy could compete against the haughty barons. Having incurred their resentment, he was unable to bear repeated disappointments, a degraded authority, and the more degrading spectacle of ten thousand Scotchmen laying down their arms to five hundred Englishmen.^b A fever brought on by grief terminated his days a week after his queen had given birth to the unfortunate Mary Stuart.

The religious reformation was the most important event in the succeeding reign,^c and one which formed the commencement of a new series of calamities that befell the house of Stuart. If the new system was of a more democratical tendency than could have been anticipated from the government, institutions and state of knowledge in Scotland, it arose from many causes, of which the following are perhaps the most obvious. The reformation took place at a comparatively late period; other countries were liberated from the Roman hierarchy before the new opinions and the excitement that prevailed, penetrated into Scotland. This effect, probably of a remote and isolated situation, was attended with important results; it gave rise to more exalted notions of purity, and to greater horror of abuses, and was the means of establishing the tenets of the Genevese theologian,^d the last and most exclusive of the reformers. In England the king was the leading reformer, and the new system was adapted to strengthen monarchy; for that purpose the ancient hierarchy was preserved. But in Scotland the change was more complete, and the actors were very different. The mother of Mary, and her uncles of the house of Guise, all rigid catholics, directing public affairs, and exerting their influence over the young queen, became the authors of the powerful and uniform opposition against the progress of the reformation. The enthusiasm of the people, inflamed by the obstacles against which they had to struggle, made them recede further from the ancient faith. However wild their zeal, however exalted their notions, their firmness is worthy of admiration, and their sufferings of compassion. It cannot be denied that the people were assisted in their great work by the nobles, although it need not be imagined that the latter were actuated by the same sincere motives. It appears that immediately before the reformation commenced, the secular and regular clergy possessed in tithes and land more than half the landed rent in the kingdom.^e It is well known that the clergy had

^a The fatal stone of Scone, inserted in the seat of a marble chair on which the Scottish kings sat at their coronation—still preserved in Westminster Abbey. This stone is said to have been originally placed in the seat of the kings of Munster at Cashel. *Inis-fail* is one of the old Gaelic names of Ireland.—P.

^b James had sent a body of 10,000 men into Cumberland, against the English. He had given a commission to Oliver Sinclair, one of

his favourites, to assume the chief command on entering England. Soon after crossing the Solway, he read his commission, which so dissatisfied the army, that they abandoned all discipline. In this state of disorder, they were suddenly attacked by five hundred English horse, when the Scotch took to flight, and although few were killed in the rout, great numbers were taken prisoners.—P.

^c That of Mary.

^d Calvin.

^e Forbes on Tithes

been the favoured order during the reign of James the Fifth, and that they co-operated with the king in humbling the nobles. Animated by resentment as well as by avarice, the latter appropriated the wealth of their enemies; and, perhaps to gratify bad passions, became apparently as zealous in the new cause as the people, who embraced it from principle. Thus the new religion was more firmly settled in Scotland than in the sister kingdom; even the nobles became members of the General Assembly, the supreme ecclesiastical court; and when James the Sixth introduced afterwards a sort of episcopal government, they took care to prevent the restitution of the church lands; lastly, when, at a still later period, the measures of the unfortunate Charles menaced the subversion of the presbyterian system, the nobles took a principal part in forming that *solemn league and covenant*, in which the whole nation was enlisted against the monarch. In the long contest for religious liberty, begun in the reign of Mary, and not finally settled before the revolution, men submitted to all sorts of privation, even to tortures and death, rather than profess a faith which they abhorred. But, however great their energy in the cause of religion, the civil institutions of the Scots were not so favourable as those of England to freedom, knowledge or civilization.

The Scottish parliament, as far as it can be traced in the records of history, appears to have been composed of the greater barons or independent land-owners. Boroughs were probably represented before the time of Robert Bruce; at all events they were so during his reign. The character of the assembly, however, was not altered by this innovation; the towns were long insignificant, the number of their representatives was inconsiderable, they appeared only on extraordinary occasions, and the low state of commerce and the arts prevented them from weakening the influence of the rude and warlike barons.

A more important change was introduced by James the First, an accomplished and able prince, whose long captivity in England enabled him to observe the institutions of that country, and to confer a benefit on his kingdom. It was provided in his reign that the smaller vassals of the crown should be excused from personal attendance in parliament, on condition of their sending representatives, and maintaining them at the common expense. The poverty of the barons led them to consider this enactment an important immunity to themselves, and from the same cause, they seldom fulfilled the conditions which it imposed, in other words, they either neglected to send representatives, or having sent them, refused to defray their expenses. The statute does not appear to have been made imperative before the reign of James the Sixth. But although an imitation of the English plan was thus introduced into Scotland, they differed from each other in some important particulars. Thus, in the one country, all who held lands of a certain value, under the crown or under a subject, even all who enjoyed liferents to the same amount, were entitled to elect representatives for counties. But in Scotland, the elective franchise was confined to the immediate vassals of the crown, or the tenants *in capite*, while the other proprietors, or those who held their lands by a different tenure, whatever might have been the extent or value of their estates, were necessarily excluded. Other differ-

ences in the parliaments of the two kingdoms were not less remarkable. The members of the lower house in England, the knights of shires and burgesses, formed a numerous body, invested with no ordinary powers, enjoying valuable privileges, and representing distinct but important interests; by such means a barrier was raised against the encroachments of a feudal nobility. But in Scotland there were no knights of shires, and the burgesses, forming only a small proportion of the whole, sat and voted in the same house. This confusion of different orders, whose powers ought to have been as distinct as their interests, this assembly of nobles, ecclesiastics and burgesses under the same roof, modified in no slight degree the character of the government. The burgesses never asserted their rights, or never acted in opposition to the aristocracy; on the contrary, enactments were passed at different periods, by which their dependence was established. Thus, it was ordained in the reign of James the Third that the old council shall elect the new, and that the old and new council jointly shall elect the officers of the borough. The effect of this law was to render the town-councils, or municipal authorities, the creatures of a noble, whose lands lay in the vicinity. It is true that after the union of the two crowns, the power which had been thus acquired was gradually transferred from the aristocracy to the sovereigns of the house of Stuart, and accordingly it is said in the Claim of Rights, that "the abdicated family had subverted the rights of the royal boroughs, by imposing upon them the magistrates, the town-council and the clerks and the other officers, contrary to their liberties and express statutes." Thus at one period, the town-councils were subservient to the aristocracy, and at another to the crown, and so long as the laws which were enacted to mould them to such purposes, continued in force, the representation of Scotland, so far as the inhabitants of towns or burghs were concerned, was rendered illusory.

The custom of committing the whole business of parliament to a few members, a custom unknown in every period of English history, proved equally detrimental to free institutions. In the year 1367, a parliament having assembled at Scone, a committee was appointed by the three estates; full powers were conferred on it, and the other members returned home on account of the late period of the season. The same precedent was followed in the succeeding year, and if any cause or pretext was alleged in favour of such an innovation, it does not appear to have been mentioned. The powers of the committee were first modified in the year 1369; but even then it was appointed to determine all matters that should be treated in parliament, and to put them into "a fit shape" for the decision of the three estates on the last day but one of the session. It happened frequently in the subsequent period of Scottish history that the three estates never met, and consequently the whole business of parliament was transferred to a committee, of which the members were distinguished by the name of Lords of the Articles.

It is not difficult to discover the causes that gave rise to so important a change. The rude barons were as impatient of the restraints of a parliamentary attendance as they were ill-qualified for the duties which it imposes. And it was undoubtedly to dispense with personal attendance, which they considered a hardship, that the

whole business of parliament was arranged in such a manner as to require nothing more than their assent or dissent. The effect of the change, it may be naturally supposed, was to weaken the aristocracy. The Lords of the Articles were generally chosen from the nobles of the court, or the ministers of the crown; and by such means the kings of Scotland eluded many subjects of discussion, that it was their interest to keep in the shade, and carried measures that could only have been passed by a Parliament, in which the members were ignorant or neglectful of their duties.

The Scottish Parliament was composed, after the union of the crowns, of the nobility, the bishops, the knights of shires and the burgesses. But in Scotland the great officers of state sat in Parliament in virtue of their office, not by right of representation—a practice never resorted to in England. In the same period, successive changes were introduced in the mode of appointing the Lords of the Articles, and the end of all of them was to render that committee more effectual in controlling Parliament. The accuracy of the last remark is obvious from the following facts: James the Sixth obtained an act of the legislature, ordaining that before the meeting of Parliament, four persons should be named out of each estate as a committee to consider previously, and to determine the business to be laid before the house; and as this committee was nominated by the king, he might indirectly exclude from the consideration of Parliament the measures he opposed. But as this indirect method was irksome to his successor, the appointment of the Lords of the Articles was brought directly under the guidance of the crown. According to an act passed in the reign of Charles the First, the peers were empowered to choose eight bishops, the bishops eight peers, and those sixteen persons to elect eight knights of shires, and eight burgesses, to whom were added the officers of state. The bishops were, during this period, uniformly in the interest of the crown. From the ordinary state of the peerage, they might always elect one or two peers in the same interest; a majority of the sixteen, and consequently of the whole committee, became thus necessarily the adherents of the prerogative.^a

It is unnecessary to enter into details, or to describe the calamitous period between the union of the crowns, and that of the kingdoms in 1707,^b an event fortunate for both nations, and one by which the subsequent history of Scotland was merged into that of Britain. But while an end was put to the committee of the Lords of the Articles at the Revolution, another, perhaps a greater evil was allowed to continue long after the union. The heritable jurisdictions were not abolished in Scotland before the year 1755.^c They were exercised according to the genius of the feudal system by territorial proprietors under royal charter or prescription, and their authority was so vague or so great, that they could fre-

quently set at defiance the highest tribunals of the land. Their abolition cannot be attributed to the necessity of any improvement in the administration of justice, to a more advanced state of knowledge, or more liberal opinions among the people, or to increased wealth and commercial importance. Scotland might have retained still longer its hereditary judges, had not the danger of their influence been acknowledged in the rebellion of 1745. To prevent the recurrence of such scenes, heritable jurisdictions were annulled, and the consequence was to establish the peace of the country, and to lay the foundations of its subsequent prosperity.

The lords, who possessed these jurisdictions or regalities, as they were called, could recall any of their vassals who were summoned before another court, and judge them for capital offences. The regular tribunals were thus necessarily limited both in the degree of their authority, and in the extent of country over which they reached. The kings had their *aula*, and in some cases supreme authority was committed to it; their bailiffs administered justice within the royal domains, and sheriffs in the counties, if their authority was not excluded by grants of regality. An appeal might be brought from the baron's court to that of the sheriff, and from the last to the parliament. This appellate jurisdiction was transferred in 1532 to the Court of Session,^d which was then established, and consisted at first of fifteen judges,^e of whom seven besides the president were churchmen. Two innovations happened much about the same time; the use of juries in civil cases was discontinued, and many principles of the Roman law were adopted. Hence the laws of Scotland and England are in many respects different; but the use of juries has lately been introduced in civil cases, and other improvements have been at different times effected. The Court of Session still styles itself a supreme court, although its decisions may be reversed by the upper house of the British parliament.

The Justiciary Court consists of five judges, who are likewise Lords of Session.^f It is the highest tribunal in criminal cases, which are determined by the majority of a jury, and not by unanimity as in England. The sheriff-courts are unknown in the sister kingdom, but all the advantages which such institutions might afford, have not been experienced in Scotland, because the judges do not reside within the limits of their jurisdiction, and the business of their courts may be committed to substitutes. The expense of administering justice to the middling and the poorer classes is thus necessarily increased.

The Presbyterian religion was finally established in Scotland at the revolution of 1688. The ecclesiastical divisions are parishes, presbyteries and synods; several parishes form a presbytery, and the synods are made up of contiguous presbyteries. There are 941 parishes, 69 presbyteries, and 15 synods.^g The presbyteries and

^a Millar on the English Constitution. Essays on British Antiquities by Lord Kames.

^b The articles of union were agreed upon by the commissioners of the two kingdoms, July 22, 1706. The act of union was passed by the Scottish parliament, March 23, 1707. The union commenced on the first of May of the same year.—P.

^c The heritable jurisdictions were abolished immediately after the suppression of the rebellion, in 1747. (Continuation of Buchanan's Hist. Scotland, by J. Watkins. Vol. II. p. 664.)—P.

^d The Court of Session was established in the place of two other

courts, viz. the Daily Council and the Session, by a statute in 1537. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e The judges are now, as at first, fifteen in number. (Ed. Enc.) This includes the Lord President and the Lord Justice Clerk.—The court is familiarly called by the Scotch, the Fifteen.—P.

^f The High Court of Justiciary consists of six judges, who are also Lords of Session, the Lord Justice Clerk presiding. It has a nominal head, the Lord Justice General, who however never presides (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g 893 parishes; 78 presbyteries; 15 synods; 938 clergymen. (Sir

synods are ecclesiastical tribunals subordinate to the General Assembly, which meets every year in the month of May, the king appointing a commissioner as his representative, and the members nominating their moderator as president. Laymen are admitted into this venerable council under the name of ruling elders, and their number is nearly equal to a third part of the members. The Scottish clergy are men of moderate incomes, without the great revenues of the English priesthood, and on that account better qualified for the duties of their sacred office. Eminent names both in literature and philosophy might be found in their ranks, and of their information as a body, they have left a creditable monument in the statistical account of their country.^a The Scottish church is superior in other respects to the English; pluralities are unlawful, and the minister must reside within the limits of his parish. It is of little consequence whether episcopacy be or be not of apostolic origin; the name is certainly preserved in England, but the Scottish plan is more accordant with the spirit of Christian institutions. Accordingly the number of sectarians is comparatively small; the Methodists, the most important sect that has appeared in modern times in England, have not made a great impression in Scotland. The prejudices of the people, it is true, are not in favour of Arminianism; still the repeated and unsuccessful attempts of the followers of Wesley cannot be solely attributed to that cause, but partly to the greater vigilance and usefulness of the clergy.

The mode of education is still more admirable, and the diffusion of knowledge among the lower orders affords the best proof of its excellence; in no other country is the plan of tuition attended with so many practical advantages. The nature of the system is not to be discovered in the towns; in these places the youth are educated as in England, in private or public schools and in colleges; the fitness of the plan for the wants of the people can only be observed in the country. A schoolmaster is as necessary as a clergyman to a parish; a salary is attached to the office, and indigent persons are thus enabled to give their sons an education at a small expense, and there are few poor parents in Scotland who do not send their children to school. If the Scotch have long been ranked among the best informed people of Europe, it is owing to their parochial schools, and as, in the present day, much is done for the diffusion of knowledge, a similar or modified plan ought perhaps to be introduced into the remote districts of England. The expenses attending it are not great; at all events, the public money has seldom been laid out with the reasonable expectation of so much advantage.

The occupations of commerce and industry were long incompatible with the unsettled government of the Scots, and accordingly the useful arts were cultivated in England while they were unknown in Scotland. The present

state of the arts in the latter country affords the best proof of the rapid advances that have been made since the latter part of the eighteenth century. The same people that languished under a feudal aristocracy, too haughty to be restrained by law, or under kings who weakened the nobles for the purpose of appropriating their ill-gotten power, have overcome difficulties arising from an unfavourable climate, an insulated situation, and an unproductive and mountainous surface. However much may be attributed to the impulse given by England, the Scotch could never have made such advances in the same course without free institutions; and the past indolence and present industry of the inhabitants, their past poverty and present wealth, are not more widely different than the past and present government of the country. One or two statistical results may place the foregoing conclusion in a remarkable point of view. A considerable time after the calamitous period of Scottish history, even so lately as the commencement of the eighteenth century, the population of Scotland did not exceed 1,048,000; by the present census it amounts to 2,365,807. Within the same period many parts of Scotland have been rendered more than doubly productive, while other departments of industry have increased in a much greater proportion. Thus, the revenue after the union of the two kingdoms in 1707 was not more than L.160,000; at present it is greater than L.4,000,000. It might be shown from these and similar results, that the means of subsistence are now supplied in greater plenty to the numerous inhabitants than formerly to the scanty population of Scotland. And this fact enables us to detect much exaggeration and many errors in the popular opinion concerning the present poverty and wretchedness of the lower orders.

The commercial prosperity of the country, and the consequent diffusion of wealth among the people, are the more remarkable, considering the long degraded state of parliamentary representation. It has been shown how much the population and the public revenue have increased since the union, the one being now more than double, and the other nearly a hundred times greater;^b but from the same period to the present time, the number of members has been limited to forty-five, one more than the number formerly returned by the single county of Cornwall. The electors did not exceed 3000, and of these more than a half enjoyed the privilege from rights of superiority,^c not from any property in the soil. The Scotch members representing their electors, devoting themselves to their interest, and not to that of the people, were almost proverbially distinguished by want of independence. It is unnecessary to allude further to the subject; the old system is now abolished, civil liberty is extended to Scotland, and the people return their representatives.

J. Sinclair's General Report of Scotland, 1814, vol. 1. p. 19—20.)—910 parishes; 940 clergymen; 78 presbyteries; 15 synods. (Ed. Enc. art. Scotland, 1829.)—903 parishes; 972 ministers; 55 chapels of ease; 33 chapels in the Highlands depending on the royal bounty; 7 chapels depending on the Society for propagating Christian Knowledge; 40 chapels recently granted by parliament. These chapels are all connected with the established church. (Bell's Geog. vol. I. p. 200. 1832.)—P.

^a Published by Sir John Sinclair (1791—9) in twenty-one volumes.—P.

^b Only twenty-five times, by the preceding statement.—P.

^c A *superiority* was a nominal title to land, which, without any property in the soil, conferred the right of suffrage. Superiorities were abolished by the reform bill.—P.

BOOK CLVI.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Scotland.—Section Second.—Civil Divisions.—Topographical Details.

SCOTLAND, like England and Wales, is civilly divided into counties, and the number is equal to thirty-three. They may perhaps be most aptly classed under the northern, central and southern divisions, at least these correspond in some degree with the distinctive features of the country. The northern are those of Orkney, Caithness, Sutherland, Ross, Cromarty, and Inverness; the central or midland are those of Argyle, Bute, Nairn, Murray or Elgin, Banff, Aberdeen, Mearns or Kincardine, Angus or Forfar, Perth, Fife, Kinross, Clackmannan, Stirling and Dumbarton; lastly, the southern division is made up of those of Linlithgow or West Lothian, Edinburgh or Mid Lothian, Haddington or East Lothian, Berwick, Roxburgh, Selkirk, Peebles, Dumfries, Lanark, Renfrew, Ayr, Wigton and Kirkcudbright. It appears from the last census^a that the mean population of each county is 71,691 inhabitants, and the relative population to the surface is 78 to the square mile. The superficial extent is considerably greater than the half of England, and the number of inhabitants is little more than a sixth part,^b but the result, if the barren and rugged surface be taken into consideration, indicates sufficiently the improved state of the country.

In the chorographical account of Scotland, it may be as well to begin at that part of it nearest the Welsh coast, the one that has been last described. The small town of Wigton, which may be seen on entering the Solway Frith, stands on the declivity of a hill at the bottom of the bay of Wigton. Although a chief town, it is not a place of any importance. It gives its name to a maritime county at the south-west extremity of Scotland, washed by the Irish Sea on the south and west,^c and contiguous to Kirkcudbright on the east, and to Ayrshire on the north. The extent of Wigtonshire is probably equal to 485 square miles, and not more than a third part of the

surface is cultivated. The heights on the north rise 1100 feet above the level of the sea;^d the rest of the land consists mostly of low, broken and undulating hills, detached rocks and extensive moors. The manufactures are few or of little value, and the trade is confined to the export of raw produce, and the import of coal, lime and other articles required for consumption. It appears, however, that the relative population is more than 75 to the square mile, consequently that it is very little below the mean term. It may be further observed that the county is of an irregular form, deeply indented by bays and inlets. It has been divided into the three districts of Wigton, Whithorn and Stranraer,^e according to the situation of its towns. The first or the eastern division is watered by the Cree and several streams that descend from the heights of Carrick. The second or the south-eastern is of a triangular form, watered by the bays of Wigton and Glenluce, and terminating towards the south in the promontory of Burrowhead.^f The district of Stranraer^g or the Rhinns of Galloway extends nine miles from north to south,^h and is almost separated from the rest of the county by the bay of Loch Ryan. The Mull of Galloway and Fairland Point are the southern and northern extremities of this detached portion. Lastly, Port-Patrick, which is concealed from the rest of the shire by the Mull of Galloway,ⁱ is the nearest point between Britain and Ireland. The harbor was formerly small and inconvenient; it now possesses a reflecting light-house, and one of the finest quays in Britain.

Wigtonshire forms the western district of the ancient province of Galloway;^k the eastern is comprehended in the stewartry of Kirkcudbright. The western district or the county is not remarkable for the altitude of its mountains, or the size of its rivers; but the heights which divide the stewartry from Ayrshire, are little inferior in elevation to any in the south of Scot-

^a Of 1831.

^b The superficial extent of England and Wales is 57,960 sq. miles (that of Wales alone, 7,425); that of Scotland, 29,871 sq. miles. (Bell's Geog.)—The population of England and Wales in 1831, was 13,894,574 (that of Wales, 805,236); that of Scotland, 2,365,807. (Stat. Tab.)—P.

^c On the west by the narrow entrance into the Irish Sea on the north, called the North Channel.—P.

^d Laig Fell, in the north-eastern corner, whence it extends north-east between Kirkcudbright and Ayrshires, rises 1758 feet.—P.

^e It is divided into three districts, viz. the Rhyns (peninsula,) west of a line drawn between Luce Bay and Loch Ryan; the Machers (flat country,) between Wigton and Luce Bays; and the Moors, which include the remainder, being more than the half of the county. (Ed. Enc.)—These districts correspond, in a reverse order, to those in the text.—P.

^f Called also Burgh Head and Borough Head.—P.

^g The town of Stranraer, the largest in the county, stands in a plain at the head of Loch Ryan.—P.

^h The Rhinns extend at least 30 miles from north to south, from Kirkcolm Point, at the entrance of Loch Ryan, to the Mull of Galloway. The isthmus between Loch Ryan and Luce Bay is about nine miles in width.—P.

ⁱ This is certainly a very strange expression. Port-Patrick is situated on the western coast of the Rhinns, south-west of Stranraer, on the shore of the North Channel, nearly opposite Donaghadee, in Ireland, to which place is a line of mail packets. It has a south-western exposure, being surrounded in other directions by a chain of low hills. In order to arrive at it by sea, from the eastern part of the county, it is necessary to sail round the Mull of Galloway.—P.

^k It is sometimes called West Galloway, or the shire of Galloway; the stewartry of Kirkcudbright being called East Galloway. Galloway, including these two counties, was an independent principality previous to the 13th century, governed by its own lords or princes.—P.

land.^a They extend along the northern boundary, and form a sort of amphitheatre, which occupies more than the half of it. Viewed from these lofty mountains, the rest of Kirkcudbrightshire appears like a plain; it must not, however, be imagined that it is destitute of hills; those on the south near the sea, although not comparable to the northern, are by no means inconsiderable. Rising in some places above the margin of the waters, they exhibit a variety of forms, and contribute to the beauty or grandeur of the scenery. It may be inferred from the nature of the country that the quantity of arable or productive land is small, and this conjecture is confirmed by the relation of the population to the surface, for the county consists of 882 square miles, and the number of inhabitants is not more than forty-six to the square mile.

Much of the mountainous tract consists of granite, and according to the agricultural survey, there are three separate districts of granite, which cover nearly a fourth part of the surface.^b Different strata of schistus are common in the lower parts, and with these are mixed layers of a soft, argillaceous stone, which yields readily to the weather, and is popularly known by the name of slate-land. Limestone is found at Kirkbean on the Nith, the only place in the county, where it is worked. Iron ore, although very common, is rendered of little value from the want of coal or fuel. Lead mines were formerly wrought in Minnigaff, and copper, which was lately discovered near Gatehouse, is now worked by an English company.

The Dee, the principal river, enters Loch Ken,^c a lake almost in the centre of the county, about eight miles in length, and in some places more than one in breadth. The river falls into the Solway Frith about six miles below the town of Kirkcudbright, and it is navigable two miles above it for vessels of 200 tons. Kirkcudbright, the county town, although by no means populous, may be mentioned on account of its pleasant situation on the Dee, and also on account of its commodious port. In ordinary spring-tides the depth of the water is 30 feet, and it is never less than 18 during the lowest tides;^d the harbour besides is safe and well sheltered, and there is good anchorage at its mouth. Societies have been formed for the purpose of supplying the members with houses.^e Each individual makes a small monthly payment into a general fund, which is employed in erecting houses, and these, as they are finished, are assigned to the contributors by lot; those who obtain them, pay, in addition to their monthly contributions, five per cent. on the

^a Larg Fell has been already mentioned (note ^d, p. 1252.) The highest summits in the county are found in the granite ridges which pervade it. Criffel forms a detached group in the south-east, on the west of the Nith, near its mouth, the highest summit of which is 2044 feet in height. The granite ridge of Cairnsmuir commences between the Fleet and the Dee, and extends north, parallel to the Ken, to the northern border of the county. It forms two groups, divided by the Dee. The southern, on the Fleet, rises to the height of 2329 feet; the northern, on the Deugh, a branch of the Ken, to that of 2597 feet.—P.

^b The mountain of Criffel forms the centre of the first of these tracts of granite; the two others occur in the ridge of Cairnsmuir, the one on the south and the other on the north of the Dee.—P.

^c The river Ken flows south into the head of the lake, and the Dee enters the lake on the western side. The river that flows from the lake is also called the Dee. That part of the lake below the entrance of the Dee, is sometimes called Loch Dee.—P.

^d Opposite the town, the depth is 8 feet at low water, and 23 at high water; the rise being 20 feet. In the road, at the mouth of the river, there is 16 feet at low water, and 40 at high water; rise 24 feet. (Stat. Acc. vol. xi. p. 11—12)—P.

money laid out in building their houses; and this arrangement continues until habitations have been provided for all the members.

The county of Dumfries, contiguous to Kirkcudbrightshire on the west, and to the Solway Frith on the south, covers an area of more than 1006 square miles. It was anciently divided into the three divisions of Annandale, Eskdale and Nithsdale,^f so called from the rivers that water it, and each of them was under a separate jurisdiction. Surrounded on the north, the east and the west by the mountainous ranges,^g that have been already indicated, the county has for the most part a southern exposure, and the climate, although moist, is mild and salubrious.

The Nith, after entering the county from Ayrshire, traverses it in a south-east direction more than forty miles, and passing the town of Dumfries, falls into the Solway Frith. The Annan or central river rises from the mountains on the north, near the confines of Lanarkshire,^h and near the sources of the Clyde and the Tweed, flows southwards through Moffat, and discharges itself into the Solway Frith below Annan. The Eskⁱ issues from the borders of Selkirkshire, and enters the same frith below Langtown,^k after a course of forty miles. Of the numerous lakes, Loch Skeen is not the least remarkable; it is situated more than 1300 feet above the level of the sea, and it supplies the waters of the *Gray Mare's Tail*, a romantic and well known cascade.

The same county is important on account of its minerals; the lead mines have been already mentioned,^l and it may be added that the miners are distinguished by their knowledge and good conduct. The workmen of Wanlockhead set apart a portion of their earnings for the purchase of books, and they are already in possession of an useful library. May the same practice now so common in Britain, be introduced into France; may the higher orders promote the diffusion of knowledge, and by so doing, guard the working classes against idleness and grovelling pleasures, elevate their character, render them more useful citizens, and contribute to their happiness and enjoyments. The other minerals are antimony, manganese, coal in small quantities, sandstone, iron, limestone, marble and slate.^m The only coal fit to be wrought is situated at the two extremities of the county, namely, at Sanquhar on the north-west, and Canobie on the south-east; the principal supply, therefore, is obtained from Lanarkshire, Ayrshire and England. Mineral springs are not uncommon in the county, but none are more frequented than the two at Moffat, of which the one

^e House Societies.

^f The sheriffdom of Nithsdale, the stewartry of Annandale, and the regality of Eskdale—all now under the jurisdiction of the sheriff-depute of Dumfries-shire. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g Properly, on the north-west, north and north-east, separating it from the counties of Ayr, Lanark, Peebles, Selkirk and Roxburgh. On the western border, which is partly formed by the Nith, near its mouth, there is no prominent range of mountains.—P.

^h It rises in the Hartfell mountains, near the point, where the shires of Dumfries, Lanark and Peebles meet.—P.

ⁱ Esk, a name common to several rivers in Scotland, as well as Exe (Lat. *Isca*) in England, and Usk in Wales, is doubtless the Gaelic, *uisge water*—the smaller rivers in Scotland being still called *waters*.—P.

^k Longtown, in Cumberland.—The Esk enters the head of the Solway.—P.

^l p. 1246.—Leadhills is in Lanarkshire, and Wanlockhead in Dumfries-shire; both in the ridge dividing the two counties, and separating the waters of the Clyde and Nith.—P.

is sulphureous and the other a chalybeate. The surface is very irregular, a great part of it is mountainous, and much of the land is barren or covered with heath. Of the forty-two parishes into which the whole is divided, seven are considered maritime, eighteen midland, and seventeen mountainous; the last occupy more than a half of the county. The number of churches or parishes appears more than sufficient, but the population is not so scanty as might be inferred from the nature of the country. In relation to the surface, it is equal to more than seventy-three persons to the square mile, or nearly to the mean number throughout Scotland. No branch of the arts or manufactures is conducted on a great scale, except the smelting of lead ore. The principal exports are lead, cattle, wool, grain and potatoes, and the imports are coal, iron, timber and wine.

Dumfries, the county town, is pleasantly situated on a rising ground on the east of the Nith, about nine miles from its influx into the Solway Frith. It was formerly a place of considerable importance, and it still bears unequivocal marks of antiquity. Thus, although one of its bridges is comparatively of modern construction,^a another at no great distance from it, is supposed to have been built by the mother of John Baliol, king of Scotland.^b Although the town was more than once burned by the English, and often exposed to depredations, while England and Scotland were under distinct governments, the inhabitants were so indignant against the articles of the union, that they burned them with great solemnity in the market place in 1706. The port of Dumfries extends from Southwick in the parish of Colvend in the stewartry of Kirkcudbright, along the Solway Frith to the border stream of Sark, and by this means nearly all the exports and imports of the county by sea are conveyed to the town.^c The public buildings are a town-house built in 1706, and a county jail and court house, which were lately finished. The wall of Adrian terminated near the small burgh of Annan,^d which is supposed to have been a Roman station; at all events, the remains of Roman camps, and other antiquities, have been discovered in the neighbourhood.

The county of Roxburgh, situated at the south-eastern extremity of the kingdom,^e is remarkable for the rivers and numerous streams with which it is watered, for its pastoral beauty and romantic sites. The boundaries are very irregular; it is partly separated from Berwickshire by the Tweed;^f it is contiguous to Selkirkshire and Dumfries-shire on the west and south-west, and to

Cumberland and Northumberland on the south-east and east. A small portion between Berwickshire and Selkirkshire is adjacent to Mid Lothian; it terminates almost in a point between Dumfries-shire and Cumberland; it surrounds different parts of Selkirkshire in some places, and cuts deeply into it in others. In superficial extent it is equal to 715 square miles, and the relation between the surface and population is less than sixty-five persons to the square mile, consequently the number is considerably smaller than in Dumfries-shire.

Few counties are better supplied with rivers and numerous streams. The Tweed passes from Selkirkshire into the north-western part of Roxburghshire, and leaves it below Redden on the north-east. The Teviot rises and joins the Tweed within the limits of the county; it has its source in the south-west, near the confines of Dumfries-shire, and flowing in a north-east direction, falls into the Tweed a short way above the town of Kelso. The feeders of the Teviot are the Allen,^g the Slett-^hrick, the Rule, the Jed, the Oxnam and the Kaleⁱ from the south, and the Borthwick and the Ale from the north and west. The other tributaries of the Tweed are the Etterick,^k which joins it on the south-west as it enters the county, a second Allen and the Leader,^l which flow from the north, and the Eden, which after an easterly course, enters the same river^m near its egress from Roxburghshire. Thus the Tweed receives almost all the waters of the county; the principal exceptions are the Liddel,ⁿ which gives its name to the tract of Liddesdale,^o and the Beaumont^p which rises from the Cheviots and enters Northumberland. These streams and rivers, it may be repeated, contribute greatly to the beauty of the country, heightening the charms of the romantic and pastoral districts, and adorning the luxuriant and fertile lands.

The most remarkable heights form part of the Cheviot range, and they are chiefly composed of whinstone. A sandy loam is the prevailing soil in the arable land and on many of the hills. A barren or a clayey soil occupies a considerable tract on the north-west. Moss, marsh and heath occur in the south-west and in other directions. The light soil, it may be readily inferred, is well adapted for turnips, and the field culture of that useful plant was first introduced into Scotland in 1753, by Mr. Dawson, an intelligent farmer of Roxburghshire, who had previously observed the advantages which attended it in different parts of England.^q The want of minerals has hitherto retarded the cultivation of the soil;

^a Begun 1792; completed 1795—crossing the river a little way above the old bridge.—P.

^b Dervorgilla, daughter of Allan, the last lord of Galloway.—It was built in the 13th century, for the accommodation of the Franciscan convent founded by her in Dumfries.—Within the above limits, vessels receive and discharge their cargoes only in the Nith below Dumfries and at Annan. At the latter place only a small share of business is done. (Stat. Acc. v. 125.)—P.

^c This is the extent of the revenue port, under the jurisdiction of the collector of Dumfries, but it is not necessary that all imports should be made at Dumfries.—Within the above limits, vessels receive and discharge their cargoes only in the Nith below Dumfries and at Annan. At the latter place only a small share of business is done. (Stat. Acc. v. 125.)—P.

^d The wall of Adrian terminated on the opposite side of the Solway, at Boulness in Cumberland.—P.

^e The south-eastern extremity of the kingdom, on the coast, is in Berwickshire.—P.

^f It is bounded on the north by Berwickshire, but the boundary line is very irregularly indented. The Tweed crosses the county near its northern border, nearly from west to east, and in two places, viz. near the middle and at the eastern extremity, forms the northern boundary.—P.

^g Allan.

ⁱ The Kail Water.

^m On the north, near the village of Edenham or Ednam, the birth place of Thomson.—P.

^o Liddisdale.—This tract lies on the south side of the ridge extending eastwardly from the Hartfell to the Cheviot, and separating the waters of the Teviot from those that flow south into the Solway. The Liddel rises near the Tyne, on the borders of Northumberland, flows south-west, and after receiving the Hermitage, the Kershope and many other small streams, leaves the county at its southern point, and then forms the boundary for a few miles between Dumfries-shire and Cumberland, till it meets the Esk.—P.

^p Beaumont. It first flows north, and then bending east into England, joins the Till, a branch of the Tweed.—P.

^q Mr. Craik of Arbigland, in Dumfries-shire, is said to have first cultivated drilled turnips in Scotland, about 1745. About 1755, Mr. Pringle, near Coldstream, in Berwickshire, commenced the culture of drilled turnips. Wm. Dawson Esq. of Graden, in Roxburghshire, adopted Mr. Pringle's method, in preference to that which he had observed in Norfolk, and in 1764, began the drilled turnip husbandry on a large scale. (Sir J. Sinclair's Gen. Rep. i. 553-4.)—P.

coal and lime are still imported from Northumberland,^a and the principal agricultural wealth consists not in corn or grain, but in oxen and sheep.

The county is divided, for the purposes of justice and police, into the districts of Kelso and Jedburgh on the east, and Melrose and Hawick on the west. Kelso, the chief town in the first of these districts, is pleasantly situated on the north side of the Tweed, opposite the junction of the Teviot.^b The river is crossed by a modern bridge of five arches, equal in elegance and solidity to any other work of the same sort in Scotland. In former times, Kelso was the seat of an abbey, a great part of which still remains. It was founded by David the First in 1128; much land was afterwards annexed to it, which on the forfeiture of the Earl of Bothwell, the admiral of Scotland, was made over by James the Sixth to Sir Robert Ker of Cessford, the founder of the Roxburgh family. Jedburgh, the capital of the county, is about eleven miles to the west of Kelso. It is more populous and more worthy of notice from its industry. The manufactures consist of stockings, flannels and narrow cloths, and many of the inhabitants are employed in tanning leather. Like Kelso, it possessed a large abbey, which has been partly transformed into a parish church. The celebrity of Melrose depends not on the number or industry of its inhabitants, but on one of the finest Gothic ruins in Scotland. Melrose abbey was founded in 1136 by King David, who consecrated it to the virgin, and endowed it with extensive privileges and a great revenue. It became the principal residence of the Cisterians, and the capital, if it may be so termed, of that order in Scotland. It is built in the form of a St. John's cross, and the present dimensions of the ruins are 258 feet in length, 137 in breadth, and 943 in circumference. Hawick, situated at the confluence of the Slitridge and the Teviot, is a place of greater importance; leather, worsted, carpets, stockings and inkle are the principal manufactures. Lastly, the small town of Galashiels is not more than four miles north-east from Melrose; being divided into two parts by the Tweed, it is situated partly in Selkirkshire and partly in Roxburghshire.^c It was formerly an obscure village, but has now become flourishing from the industry of its inhabitants. The only manufacture at no very distant period consisted of coarse cloth, worn by the peasantry, and known by the name of *Galashiels greys*; but within these few years, fine broad cloths have been made, and a hall, similar to those in the manufacturing towns of England, has been opened for the sale of them. It carries on besides a considerable trade in flannels and

different stuffs, and it is now the principal seat of the woollen manufactures in the south-east of Scotland. Such are the principal towns in Roxburghshire, and in the account of them, notice has been taken of different religious edifices; but it may also be remarked that many parts of the same county are adorned with the ruins of castles, towers and baronial residences, erected for the purposes of security or defence in an age when the inhabitants were exposed to frequent depredations from their vicinity to England.

The county of Selkirk is contiguous to Mid Lothian on the north, Roxburghshire on the east and south-east, Dumfriesshire on the south, and Peeblesshire or Tweeddale on the west. But all the boundaries, except the one on the south, are so irregular that it is difficult to determine the area. It is not, however, more than 269 square miles; it is divided into two entire parishes, and seven others are partly situated in Selkirkshire, and partly in the adjoining counties.^d According to the last returns, the absolute population amounts to 6833 individuals, and consequently the relative is not more than twenty-five to the square mile. The nature of the country may be inferred from the last statement; it is almost wholly a pastoral district; it resembles the more lofty and barren part of Roxburghshire, but the heights reach to a greater elevation, and the vallies are more contracted. The general declivity is, as in the last county, towards the north and north-east, where all the streams discharge themselves into the Tweed. Of these the principal are the Ettrick and the Yarrow,^e both of which water a romantic country, and both are celebrated in song. The Yarrow passes through two lakes, the Loch of the Lows and St. Mary's Loch; the latter, perhaps the finest in the south-east of Scotland, is separated from the other by a narrow neck of land. The county is destitute of coal, sandstone and limestone; shell-marle is common in the mosses and in the beds of the lakes, and it is used as a manure. It may be further observed that the cultivated land, which is by no means rich, does not exceed a twentieth part of the uncultivated.

Selkirk, the county town, is the only place that requires to be mentioned. It is situated on a rising ground below the confluence of the Yarrow and the Ettrick, near the borders of Roxburghshire, and it is more remarkable for its antiquity than its manufactures. A hundred townsmen, it is related, followed James the Fourth from Selkirk to the field of Flodden, and none of them returned.^f At a later period, in the year 1645, the Marquis of Montrose, until then victorious, was first

^a Coal has been opened on Carter Fell, a hill on the border of Northumberland, and also near the south point of Liddisdale; but nearly all the coal used in the county is imported—in the west, from Dumfriesshire and the Lothians, and in the east, from Northumberland. Limestone is found in Liddisdale and on the southern border, but from the want of coal little is burnt. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b Kelso extends about half a mile along the Tweed, which is joined by the Teviot opposite the west end of the town. The bridge is over the Tweed. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c Galashiels is situated to the west of Melrose, higher up the Tweed. The parish is divided by the Tweed into two parts; the northern in Selkirkshire; the southern in Roxburghshire. The town of Galashiels stands on the north bank of the Tweed, on both sides of the Gala Water, at its mouth, and as the Gala here forms the boundary between the counties of Roxburgh and Selkirk, the eastern part of the town is in the former (Melrose parish,) and the western or principal part in the latter county.—P.

^d Only two parishes lie entirely within its limits, while five or six lie partly in it, and partly in the neighbouring shires. (Gazetteer of

Scotland, Dundee, 1803.)—It includes the entire parishes of Etterick and Yarrow, the greater part of Selkirk and Galashiels, and minor portions of Ashkirk, Robertson and Inverleithen. The remainder of all these parishes lies in Roxburghshire, except the last (in Peeblesshire.)—P.

^e The Ettrick and the Yarrow both rise among the mountains on the south-western border of the county, and flowing north-east through two parallel valleys, meet each other a little above the town of Selkirk. The united stream retains the name of Ettrick, and about two miles below enters the Tweed. The Loch of the Lows and St. Mary's Loch are properly the source of the Yarrow, which issues from the latter, much the largest of the two. They lie in the same basin, on the confines of Peeblesshire, and are embosomed in a group of lofty rounded hills, from which several small streams flow into them; the largest of these, the Megget, runs wholly within Peeblesshire.—P.

^f Only a few survived. (Ed. Enc.)—A few returned, loaded with the spoils of the enemy. (Stat. Acc. ii. 436.)—William Brydone, the town clerk, was knighted for his valour on that occasion.—P.

defeated by General Leslie in the vicinity of the town.^a

The Tweed, the boundary between Roxburghshire and Berwickshire,^b separates the last county from England.^c The same county is contiguous to East Lothian on the north, and to Mid Lothian on the north-west, and it is washed by the German Ocean on the east. It is popularly divided into three districts, the Lammermoors, Lauderdale and the Merse;^d but the second may be included under the other two, and a greater part of it belongs to the first than to the last. It is connected with East Lothian by the Lammermoors,^e a range that commences at St. Abb's Head on the south-east of the county,^f and passes into Mid Lothian; their height varies from fifteen hundred to a thousand feet above the level of the sea,^g and the surface, covered with heath and the coarsest herbage, is more sterile and unproductive than might be inferred from its altitude. The Merse or the other great division comprehends all the lowlands of the county, and these are cultivated according to the most approved methods of modern husbandry; indeed it is doubtful if there is any other district in which the management of arable land is so skilfully combined with that of live stock and pasturage. The perseverance of the inhabitants in the improvement of their soil is the more remarkable on account of the obstacles which they have surmounted. If their land in many places resemble a garden, it might be imagined that they possessed many natural advantages, but they are situated far from any crowded or dense population, they are without coal and lime,^h and a rocky or precipitous coast limits the exports and imports by sea to one or two places at a considerable distance from the centre of the county.ⁱ The Merse is watered by the Whittadder, the Blaekadder, the Leader^k and other small streams that enlarge the Tweed. The principal towns are Dunse, Greenlaw, Lauder, Eyemouth and Coldstream. The first has been rendered the county-town, but none of them are of much importance.

Remains of past times may still be observed, and different castles exhibit the ruins of border fortresses. A deep ravine in the north-east part of the county was formerly a sort of natural barrier against the incursions of English freebooters. It is now crossed by a bridge^l 300 feet long and fifteen wide, and rising from the stream below to the great height of 124 feet. The low grounds were suffered to lie waste during the border wars; the inhabitants were then accustomed to plunder; they lived in

^a At Philiphaugh, opposite the town, Sept. 15, 1645.—P.

^b See note ^f, p. 1254.

^c Berwick upon Tweed, with a small surrounding territory, dependent on it, is situated on the north of the Tweed, at its mouth. It belongs neither to Scotland nor England. (See p. 1209).—P.

^d Formerly the county was divided into two jurisdictions: viz. that of the Merse or March (whence the Earl of March)—the Merches (Guthrie,) i. e. the borders, which also included the low country of Roxburghshire; and the bailliary of Lauderdale. Of the present divisions, that of the Merse includes the low country along the Tweed, on the south; that of Lauderdale, the valley of the Leader and the surrounding hills, in the north-west corner; and that of Lammermoor, the ridge of hills extending east along the northern border, from Lauderdale to the German Sea.—P.

^e Properly, the county is separated from East Lothian by the ridge of Lammermoor (or Lammermuir).—P.

^f St. Abb's Head is rather in the north-east of the county, where the coast turns to the west. The ridge of Lammermoor stretches from it nearly west to Mid Lothian.—P.

^g The average height of the chain is about 1000 feet; rising towards

poverty and wretchedness. The same grounds, now enclosed with hedges, and sheltered by plantations, yield abundant crops. The industry of the present inhabitants forms a remarkable contrast with the indolence of their ancestors, and their rural prosperity with the desolation consequent on predatory habits. The relative population is upwards of eighty-three to the square mile, and the total number of square miles is probably greater than 486.

Continuing our course towards the north-west along the shore, we enter East Lothian or Haddingtonshire, a county still more distinguished for its agricultural riches. The greatest length of the county from east to west is twenty-five miles, and the utmost breadth from north to south, about seventeen; but such is the irregularity of its boundaries that the area does not exceed 272 square miles. According to the last census, the number of persons to the square mile is equal to more than 133, a result the more remarkable, if it be considered that no branch of manufacturing industry is conducted on a great scale, and that the labor of the inhabitants is almost exclusively confined to the culture or improvement of the soil. Of the whole land about four fifths are in tillage, or fit for cultivation, and the remaining fifth, consisting of hills or moorish ground, is covered with heath and the coarser grasses.

The Lammermuirs,^m which traverse the county,ⁿ occupy the greater portion of the uncultivated land, and the rest of Haddingtonshire, when viewed from these heights on the south, appears like a plain sloping gradually to the Frith of Forth and the German Ocean. In reality, however, the apparent declivity consists of a number of smaller and parallel ridges, commencing near the western extremity, extending a considerable distance eastwards, and diminishing in height as they approach the sea.^o Some hills in the lower part of the county, although by no means lofty, have an imposing appearance; they rise abruptly from a flat surface, and are conspicuous in every direction. Such are North Berwick Law and Traprane Law,^p of which the former is not more than 940, and the latter only 700 feet above the level of the sea.

According to the agricultural survey, the soil is very various; the greater part of it, however, is said to consist of clay and loam, mixed in nearly equal proportions and of very different qualities. Much of it is not fruitful, the clay is shallow, and it rests on a wet bottom. The superiority of the grain may be partly attributed to the climate; little rain falls during the summer months

the west, and descending towards the east. Clint Hill, at the western extremity, is 1544 feet high.—P.

^h Coal and lime have been found at Lamerton, on the sea-coast near Berwick.—P.

ⁱ The only port in the county is at Eyemouth, on the small river Eye, to the north of Berwick. The Tweed forms the great natural outlet of the county, by Berwick.—P.

^k These streams all rise in the Lammermoor, and flow south. The two former (the Whitewater and Blackwater) unite, and soon after enter the Tweed near Berwick. The latter enters it a little below Melrose.—P.

^l Pease Bridge.

^m Generally in the singular, Lammermuir.—P.

ⁿ Rather, which stretch along the southern border of the county.—P.

^o The principal ridge in the lower part of the county is that of the Garleton Hills, which run east and west between the Tyne and the Forth, in the neighbourhood of Haddington.—P.

^p Traprene or Traprane Law—an isolated trap hill between Haddington and Dunbar.—P.

in the eastern part, and the harvests are generally about ten days earlier than in the neighbourhood of the coast, although even in that quarter, the crops are reaped three weeks or a month sooner than in the hilly district.^a

The same county abounds with the most valuable minerals, and these in common with its soil and climate, have contributed to its agricultural wealth. Coal has been worked since a very early period,^b and it is still found in great quantities, particularly in the western districts, from the borders of the Lammermuirs to the sea. No part of the same tract is more than six miles distant from limestone,^c and several extensive parishes rest on that rock. Lastly, ironstone is wrought in different parts of the county, and some of the mineral springs, although now deserted, were once held in great repute.

It was in Haddingtonshire that the spirit of agricultural improvement commenced, and it was diffused from it over the rest of Scotland. It was there that the practice of summer fallow was first introduced and extensively adopted, and the plan of encouraging tenants to make improvements by granting them long leases was begun and carried into effect by the proprietors. Many other improvements might be mentioned, but it may be sufficient to add that the threshing machine was invented and perfected by Mr. Meikle, an ingenious mechanic of the county.^d The effect of these improvements, or the continued exercise of skill and ingenuity, has increased the value and fertility of the soil; the produce in the worst seasons is much more than sufficient for the consumption, and with the exception of the districts in the vicinity of great towns, land lets for a higher rent in East Lothian, than in any other part of Scotland. Independently, however, of all these advantages, several defects are still apparent; the farm-houses are indeed excellent, but the cottages are much inferior to those in England; the corn lands in some places are open, in others they are ill-enclosed, and too much land is suffered to lie waste; thus, in the neighbourhood of Dunbar,^e a common of more than 4000 acres is still uncultivated; it is true that it belongs to the burgh.

None of the towns are important. Haddington, the capital, is situated on the Tyne, some miles from the sea, near the centre of the lower district. The products of industry, except those of distilleries, are confined to the consumption of the county; different manufactories have been at different times established, but none of them have flourished. It carries on, however, a con-

siderable trade, and more grain in bulk is sold weekly at its market, than in any other town in the kingdom. Although the same market is the principal support of the town, and one cause of the agricultural prosperity of the county, little convenience is afforded to those who attend it; carts loaded with grain, are crowded together, and many of them are not accessible to purchasers without inconvenience.

The ancient town of Dunbar, formerly an important place, and frequently mentioned in Scottish history, is situated on the east coast, at the distance of twenty-seven miles from Edinburgh. Ship-building, the making of sail-cloth and cordage, soap-works, founderies, and other branches of industry are carried on in a small scale, and its inhabitants engage occasionally in the northern whale-fisheries. North Berwick, to the north-west of the last place, is little better than a village, but it may be mentioned on account of its hill or *Law*, a noted landmark to mariners, and also on account of the ruins of Tantallon castle,^f a stronghold of the Douglasses, that was destroyed in 1639 by the covenanters.

The same county is associated with the memory of several eminent men, with that of the Fletchers, the Maitlands and the Dalrymples. The poet Dunbar was born in Saltoun,^g and Bishop Burnet, the historian, officiated as rector in the same parish. George Heriot, the founder of the noble institution that bears his name, was a native of Gladsmuir, where Robertson wrote his history of Scotland. Lastly, an old house in the suburbs of Haddington^h is still shown to strangers as the birth-place of Knox the reformer.ⁱ

Contiguous to Haddingtonshire on the east,^k the county of Mid Lothian occupies an area of 360 square miles, and the population, relatively to the surface, is equal according to the last returns, to more than 600 to the square mile. So great a number indicates that we have arrived at the county in which the capital of Scotland is situated.

The lower and richer part of Mid Lothian is of a semi-circular form resembling an amphitheatre with an inclination towards the Frith of Forth. But the Pentland chain approaches to the distance of five miles from the frith, covers about forty square miles, and thus divides the same tract into two plains.^l The Moorfoot Hills, another lofty tract, are situated on the south-east, where the county terminates almost in a point between the shires of Roxburgh and Selkirk; they are more than fifteen miles distant from the sea; the highest rises to

^a In the east part of the county [i. e. on the coast of the German Sea], where little rain falls, the harvest in mild seasons is generally ten days earlier than upon the coast lands in the north [i. e. on the Firth of Forth]; and these again are about three or four weeks earlier than the hilly districts.—P.

^b It was dug at Prestongrange, by the monks of Newbottle, as early as A. D. 1200. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c Scarcely any part of the county is above six miles distant from lime rock. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d The threshing machine, now in general use in Great Britain, was invented by Mr. Andrew Meikle, near Haddington, in 1785—6. Several ineffectual attempts had been previously made; the first by Mr. Michael Menzies of East Lothian; the second, by Mr. Michael Stirling of Dunblane, about 1758—the last of these still used, particularly for threshing oats. James Meikle, the father of the above, first introduced the fanners (fanning mill) into Scotland from Holland, in 1710, under the patronage of the celebrated Andrew Fletcher of Saltoun. This is now one of the appendages of the threshing machine, and moved by the same power. (Ed. Enc. art. Agric. Sir J. Sinclair's Gen. Rep. i. 226—33.)—P.

^e On the ridge of Lammermuir, intersecting the muirland farms VOL. III.—NO. 69. 73

in the parish of Spott, south of Dunbar—used for sheep pasture.—P.

^f Tantallon Castle—about two miles east of North Berwick, on a rock overhanging the sea, which surrounds it on three sides. (Stat. Acc. v. 443.)—P.

^g Saltoun—a parish on the Tyne, west of Haddington. It was the seat of the Fletchers of Saltoun.—P.

^h In the suburb of Gifford-gate.—P.

ⁱ Blair, the author of the *Grave and Home*, the author of *Douglas*, were successively ministers of Athelstaneford. Dr. Witherspoon, President of Princeton College, and Dr. Nisbet, President of Carlisle College, were both natives of Yester.—P.

^k Mid Lothian or Edinburghshire is bounded on the east by Haddingtonshire and a part of Berwickshire; on the south and south-west by the counties of Selkirk, Peebles and Lanark; on the west by Linlithgowshire; and on the north by the Firth of Forth, which separates it from Fifeshire.—P.

^l The Pentland Hills rise in the parish of Liberton, about four miles south-west of Edinburgh, and extend south-west about twelve miles, to the borders of Lanarkshire. This range, together with most of the heights in the lower part of the county, is of the trap formation.—P.

upwards of 1800 feet, and they extend over fifty square miles. The rest of Edinburghshire may be considered a low, but not a flat or level county; it is varied by an undulating surface, and by detached hills of moderate height, among which may be mentioned Arthur's Seat on the east, and Corstorphine Hill on the west of the capital.

The county is destitute of rivers, and the streams are too insignificant to require notice; they have, however, been rendered subservient to the abridgment of labour; thus, the course of the Water of Leith is not more than sixteen miles, but, in a distance of ten miles, it turns seventy mills.^a

The minerals are very valuable; a continuous bed of coal extends across the county from the confines of Peebles-shire in a direction from south-west to north-east.^b Limestone is not only found in the same tract, but still further to the east and south-east, in places where coal has not been discovered; sandstone, or freestone, as it is popularly called, is another important mineral, and several quarries of it are worked at no great distance from the city. Ironstone abounds in the coal district, and along the shore to the west of Leith.^c A substance similar in its properties to the petunse of the Chinese, and used in the manufacture of porcelain, is obtained on the Pentland Hills,^d and clay, which is converted into crucibles, is wrought in the parish of Duddingstone.

The ports of Dunbar and North Berwick have been already mentioned; no other place of any consequence is situated between them and Leith,^e which forms one of the suburbs of the capital. Edinburgh is no longer the residence of kings, nor is it longer the centre of government, but it is still the seat of the highest tribunals, and still the metropolis of the country. The courts of justice are even at present the principal source of its opulence, and many lawyers, attorneys and clerks attend them. In past times the town was distinguished by the turbulence of its inhabitants, and by constant feuds; it is now still more distinguished by the peacefulness of its citizens, by the progress of industry and the useful arts, by the cultivation of knowledge, and by its ennobling results. All have it in their power to obtain an elementary education, and to all on whom nature has conferred more than ordinary talent, the road to distinction is open. From the effects of this system in Edinburgh and other parts of Scotland, many advantages have ensued; the limits of knowledge have been extended; the true principles of political economy were first developed and demonstrated by a Scotchman; additional wealth and additional comforts have been diffused from the same country to every region where British commerce extends, for by the genius of Watt, the steam-engine has been rendered the most powerful agent of productive industry. Within the last hundred years,

the sciences have been illustrated by Maclaurin, Simson, Ferguson and Black. Hume, Robertson, Smith and Stewart are equally eminent in philosophy and literature. The greater number of these celebrated men devoted their time and their talents to public instruction in the university of Edinburgh,^f and contributed to the prosperity of the town, inasmuch as they attracted students from every part of the united kingdom, and from foreign countries. The patrons have not shewn themselves of late years so careful of the interests of the city, eminent men have not been appointed to the vacant chairs, and if the same system be continued, or if other recommendations are more cogent than that of merit, the prosperity of the university cannot be long maintained.^g The town derives a considerable income from the seat-rents of the churches, and the magistrates have increased it by appointing popular preachers, as vacancies occur in the capital. It might be well if they were to take more extensive views, and by increasing the reputation of the city as a seat of learning, render it a place of greater resort to young men for the purposes of education.

The city is built on three hills that run parallel to each other. The old town occupies the central hill, which is the highest; the new town stands on the northern or lowest hill, and the third eminence is covered with additions made to the old town. Of the two vallies which separate the three hills, the one on the north is deeper and wider than the other on the south, and it formed at no very remote period the basin of a lake,^h of which the stagnant waters were injurious to the health of the inhabitants. The lake or marsh, however, has been drained, and its bed is now converted into gardens and public walks. It is not much more than half a century since the old town made up the whole of Edinburgh,ⁱ and it then consisted of dark and dirty houses, built without regularity, without taste, and so much confined as to render them unhealthy. The principal street in the same quarter,^k extends along the ridge of the central hill, and is intersected by an immense number of narrow and crooked lanes; the houses consist of six or seven stories in front, and nine, ten or eleven on the side of the valley. The Castle, an irregular and Gothic edifice, separated from the town by an esplanade, rises on a rugged rock at the western extremity of the same hill. The building and the fortifications occupy an area of seven English acres; in past times it was considered a place of great strength, but as there are points within the range of artillery, which command it, it might now be easily reduced. It is now used as a station for soldiers, and it may contain about 3000; the apartments in which James the Sixth was born,^l are converted into barracks for officers, and a new range of barracks for soldiers has been erected on a very injudicious plan, and by no means according

^a The Almond, which forms the north-western boundary, and the North and South Esks, which unite below Dalkeith, and enter the Forth at Musselburgh, are the largest streams in the county.—P.

^b The coal-field of Mid Lothian is 15 miles in length and 8 in breadth. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c Ironstone and coal are both found on the shore in Cramond parish, west of Leith, where there are very extensive iron works at the mouth of the Almond.—P.

^d On the north side of Logan-house Hill, at the height of 1460 feet. (Gaz. of Scotland.)—P.

^e Prestonpans, on the Forth, at the north-western corner of Haddingtonshire; Musselburgh, including Inveresk and Fisherrow, at the

mouth of the Esk; and Dalkeith, between the North and South Esks, near their junction, are places of some importance for their trade and manufactures.—P.

^f Maclaurin, Black, Robertson and Stewart were connected with the university of Edinburgh.—P.

^g C. Dupin, Force Commerciale, vol. 2d.

^h The North Loch.—P.

ⁱ The New Town was begun to be built in 1767. (Gaz. Scot.)—P.

^k The High Street—extending from the Castle to Holyrood-house.—P.

^l On the east of the castle buildings were formerly royal apartments. James VI. was born in a small square apartment in the south-east part of the castle. (Gaz. Scot. Ed. Enc.)—P.

with the rest of the fortress. The Parliament Square,^a at no great distance from the Castle, possesses little to attract attention, except the spacious hall, in which the Scottish Parliament held its sessions.^b The church of St. Giles forms one side of the square; four different places of worship were formerly contained in it, but the number has since been reduced. A square tower rises from the centre of the structure; it is surmounted by slender arches of good workmanship, supporting a steeple, the whole representing in the air the figure of an imperial crown. Beneath the vault of this venerable building rest the ashes of Lord Napier, the immortal inventor of logarithms. The mint in the neighbourhood of the last place, may be mentioned on account of its antiquity and preservation. Although no money is coined, all the officers are still appointed, agreeably to the act of union, and the bell is regularly rung at the hours in which the workmen left off their work in the sixteenth century. The palace is situated at the eastern or opposite extremity of the old town, in a valley with Arthur's Seat and Salisbury Crags on the one side, and the Calton Hill on the other. It was originally a monastery,^c and it is still called Holyrood-house or the house of the holy cross. It is of mixed architecture, and the Grecian style is blended with castellated turrets, which destroy the regularity without adding to the imposing effect of the building. Such are the most remarkable of the ancient monuments, but many modern works have been erected even in the old town. The courts of justice, the County Hall, the Bank of Scotland, the Advocates' Library, and the library of the writers to the signet, are grouped round the cathedral,^d and all of them have been built within a comparatively recent period. Other improvements are at present in progress; a new bridge and a new line of communication are forming between the old and new town, and another bridge now almost completed, and a road cut along the south side of the Castle-hill are to connect the two towns on the west.

The ground on which the new town stands was added to the royalty in 1767, and it was afterwards laid out in conformity to a plan designed by Mr. Craig. Some notion may be formed of the immense additions made within the period already specified, from the fact that the new town comprehends by far the greater portion of Edinburgh. The houses are large and well built; the streets are no less regular than spacious; and the squares present admirable sites for the monuments with which they are adorned. The whole affords a grand and imposing spectacle, one to which it might be difficult to find a parallel in the finest capitals of Europe. Every part is not entitled to unqualified praise, and a critic might condemn some of the edifices; still the combination of the whole is in a style of great simplicity, and the effects of architecture are conspicuous in the judicious arrangement and well-chosen site of most of the public buildings. Thus, the line from east to west is not marked by superstition or prejudice for the nave of the church; and

wherever a church can be placed at the extremity of a spacious street, the front rises in the direction of the street, to which it forms a majestic termination. The register office in which the records of the kingdom are deposited, was built by the late Mr. Adam, after the style of Palladio, and it is perhaps the best work of that celebrated architect. It commands a view of the finest street in the old town,^e a street continued across two vallies from north to south, by two bridges corresponding with it in width. The north bridge consists of five arches, three of which are seventy-six feet and a half wide, and the two others nearly twenty. The road-way is elevated fifty-four feet above the bottom of the valley, which is also crossed by a mound about 698 feet in length, and 210 wide at the summit. The materials of which this vast work is formed, were supplied from the foundations of the buildings in the new town. A third bridge,^f situated near the register office, serves as a communication between the new town and the Calton-hill, on which many buildings have of late been erected. The most remarkable are the High-school, the admired work of Mr. Hamilton, the Observatory, and the monuments of Playfair and of Stewart, both of whom distinguished themselves in the Edinburgh University. The first illustrated the theory of Hutton, and the second is known as one of the ablest and most eloquent mental philosophers of his age.^g The spectator may observe from these monuments a circular tower in the Grecian style; it is the tomb of Hume, the most philosophical of the British historians. The view from the public walk along the same hill commands the Frith of Forth, with the adjacent country on both its banks, and requires only the sky of Italy or Greece to vie with the shores of the bay of Naples, or the coast of the Bosphorus in the neighbourhood of Constantinople.

The university was begun about forty years ago^h after the plan of Mr. Robert Adam, but it was conceived on too great a scale for the wealth of the town. It was found necessary to deviate from the original plan; and to complete it according to its reduced form, a grant of money was obtained from parliament. The site is inconvenient, and as a work of art, it is not unexceptionable; it is probable indeed that the sums expended in finishing what was begun by Mr. Adam, might have sufficed for the erection of a finer building in a more eligible or less confined situation.

Edinburgh is celebrated for the number and grandeur of its monuments, and the elegance and regularity of its streets; but its celebrity in this respect dates only from a recent period, and houses which were formerly inhabited by nobles, are now too mean for the middling classes. If towns, of which the importance or existence depends solely on commerce and industry, be excepted, it would be difficult to find a place, of which the extension has been so great, or the improvements so manifold and various. The increase in the population must bear some relation to the enlargement of the town, and ac-

^a The Parliament Square or Close is an open space in front of the Parliament-house, in the middle of which is an equestrian statue of Charles II. (Gaz. Scot.)—P.

^b It is 122 feet in length by 49 in width, and 40 feet high, with an elegant carved roof. It is called the Outer House, and is now occupied by the courts of the Lords Ordinary. The inner courts, or Inner House, meet in two adjoining chambers.—P.

^c The ruins of the Abbey church still remain.—P.

^d Church of St. Giles.

^e It stands at the north end of the North Bridge, fronting it, and receding 40 feet from the north line of Prince's Street in the New Town.—P.

^f Regent Bridge.
^g The life of Reid has been written by Mr. Stewart, who was his pupil, and the ablest defender of the system which is called in France the Scotch system of philosophy.

^h The foundation was laid, Nov. 16th, 1739.—P.

cordingly it has been very great. In 1687 the number of inhabitants amounted to 20,000, in 1830 it was equal to 162,156, so that it is now more than eight times greater than it was a hundred and fifty years ago. Various branches of industry have sprung up and become flourishing within a later period; we may mention the numerous paper-mills in the vicinity, the casting of iron, the distillation of spirituous liquors on a great scale, the printing of calico and cloth, and the weaving of kerseymeres and shawls; but the most remarkable example of any is to be found in an art that is as much connected with the diffusion of knowledge as the enterprise of commerce: about fifty or sixty years since few books were printed in Edinburgh; it has now become second to London in the number of its printing presses, and consequently of the products that issue from them. Admirable communications extend in every direction from the same town, and most of them are of recent formation. Railways pass from Musselburgh and Dalkeith or the neighbourhood of the coal mines, and their produce is thus sent to the capital. The Union Canal joins that of the Forth and Clyde, and facilitates the conveyance of the manufactures of Glasgow. A new work is now in contemplation; the example set by the inhabitants of Liverpool and Manchester is likely to be imitated in Scotland, and steam carriages may ere long run between Glasgow and Edinburgh.

It has already been remarked that Leith is almost a suburb of Edinburgh; streets extend between them, and unite two towns that were formerly separated. It is situated on both sides of the Water of Leith, at its confluence with the Frith of Forth, and is thus divided into two districts, the southern and northern.^a The northern part is modern; the southern is ancient. The one is laid out according to a plan; the other is built without regularity, and consists mostly of dirty houses, and narrow or crooked lanes.^b The two districts communicate with each other by two draw-bridges across the harbour. In the year 1777, the harbour was considerably improved, and it has since been enlarged. The pier, which forms the eastern boundary of the confluence of the stream, has been carried farther into the sea; quays, basins and docks have been constructed on the opposite side, and these successive additions were rendered necessary by an increase in the trade.

In a military point of view, Leith is of great importance to the defence of Edinburgh, and, accordingly, in past times, the French and the English landed there fre-

quently to succour or oppress Scotland. A fort was built in the same place by Cromwell,^c and probably for that very reason was destroyed by Charles the Second. The harbour is protected by a battery on the eminence that rises on the west of the docks, and extends beyond Newhaven.^d The works are surrounded by an entrenchment and defended by bastions at the gorge.

If Edinburgh and Leith be excepted, no other town of consequence can be mentioned in Mid Lothian.^e The Almond, a small river, or rather stream, separates it from Linlithgowshire or West Lothian, a county contiguous to the last on the east and south-east, to the Frith of Forth on the north, to Lanarkshire on the south-west, and to Stirlingshire on the west. In figure it resembles a triangle, and the area is not greater than 112 square miles, and each square mile contains on an average, 209 inhabitants. A large portion of the surface is either level or gently undulating, and only a fifth part of it is supposed to be unfit for cultivation. It must not, however, be inferred that it is destitute of hills; a ridge extends across it, of which Cairnpapple or the highest point is more than fifteen hundred feet above the level of the sea.^f The richest carse lands and some of the best loams, as well as a great portion of gravel and sandy land, are situated in different parts of the county, but the prevalent soil consists of clay, and it varies from the best to the worst sorts.

The same county is distinguished by the number and value of its mineral products. Silver and lead were once obtained on the hills of Bathgate in the parish of Linlithgow, and it is not many years since a small vein of silver ore was found in a limestone quarry in the neighbourhood.^g It may be also remarked that there is an inexhaustible supply of limestone, while iron ore is wrought in Borrowstonness and Carriden on the Forth; but coal is perhaps the most abundant of the mineral products; it is wrought in different parts of the coast,^h in Uphall and Whitburn on the east and south, in the central parish of Bathgate, and at Cultmuir on the south-western border; and as the Union Canal passes through the country, the produce of the mines is easily conveyed to the capital.

Queensferryⁱ is situated about nine miles from Edinburgh, on the principal road to Perth, where the frith is rather less than two miles in breadth. The superintendance of the ferry is committed to a lieutenant in the navy, and the use of steam vessels is likely to supersede that of the numerous passage boats. The small port of Borrowstonness^k on the same coast, reckons 140 vessels, measuring nearly 1000 tons.^l

^a Called South Leith and North Leith, and forming two distinct parishes.—P.

^b By far the greater part of the town is situated on the south side of the river; but both in North and South Leith, the streets of the old part are narrow and irregular. The parts of the town which have been erected during the last twenty or thirty years are not surpassed by the finest parts of Edinburgh. (Ed. Enc. 1819.)—P.

^c In North Leith—called the Citadel.—P.

^d A village, with a harbour, about one mile north-west of Leith.—P.

^e See note ^c, p. 1258.

^f A range of hills extends across the middle of the county, obliquely from north-west to south-east. The highest of these are Cairnpapple, in the centre, about 1498 feet above the level of the sea, and Cocklerue in the west, about 500 feet. (Ed. Enc.)—The first of these is properly Cairn-papple, and lies south-west of Linlithgow.—P.

^g Silver and lead mines were formerly wrought in the neighbourhood of Linlithgow [in the hills at the southern extremity of the parish,] and a vein of silver was discovered in a limestone rock in Bathgate parish, but too inconsiderable to pay the expense of working it. (Ed. Enc.)—The Bathgate hills, in the north-eastern part of Bathgate parish, are a continuation of the range, already mentioned, including Cockle-

rue and Cairn-naple, and extending along the southern border of Linlithgow parish.—P.

^h Particularly at Borrowstonness and Carriden, at the former of which it has been wrought for more than 500 years.—P.

ⁱ Called also South Queensferry. North Queensferry is a small village, where the passage boats land, on the opposite shore of the Frith, in Fife.—P.

^k Properly Borrowstonness (borough, town, and ness)—from its situation on a promontory on the Forth, near the borough of Linlithgow. Also called Boroughstonness, Borrowstonness and popularly Boness. It is situated in the north-western corner of the county, on the coast north of Linlithgow. Its trade was more considerable before the opening of the Forth and Clyde canal, which has transferred much of it to Grangemouth. Its extensive coal works, with the manufactures of iron, salt and pottery, depending on them, render it still a place of importance.—P.

^l There must be some error in this statement. According to it, the average tonnage of its vessels would be but about 7 tons. In 1796, the shipping belonging to the town was about 25 sail, and the tonnage of the revenue port, nearly 10,000 tons, about one fourth of which belonged in Boness. (Stat. Acc. xviii. 433.)—P.

Linlithgow, the county town, is more remarkable for its antiquity than its trade or industry. It consists of a single street, nearly three quarters of a mile in length. The royal palace occupies the site of an ancient castle;^a in the north-west corner is the room in which Queen Mary was born in 1542, and the spacious hall on the east side of the building was set apart for the Parliament. These memorials of a past age are falling fast into decay, and the palace is now roofless. The church almost contiguous to it, a noble specimen of Gothic architecture, has lately been repaired in a style suitable to the grandeur of the fabric. The length is equal to 180 feet, the breadth to 100, the height to 90, and a lofty spire adorned with an imperial crown rises from the western extremity. The same town was often the residence of the court, and it has been the scene of events that are recorded in history. It was there that the Regent Murray was shot by Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh in 1569;^b and at a later period, in 1662, the solemn league and covenant was burnt with great solemnity in the market place.

The traveller passes from Edinburgh through Linlithgowshire, or West Lothian, on his road to Lanarkshire or Clydesdale, the most important as well as the most populous of the Scottish counties.^c Situated in the centre of the country between the German and Atlantic oceans, it is divided into three wards, the upper, the middle, and the lower;^d Lanark is the chief town in the first, Hamilton in the second, and Glasgow in the third. The last town is the largest of any, and the others are comparatively insignificant. The upper ward, which occupies nearly two thirds of the county, is for the most part mountainous or sterile, and from the unevenness of the surface, and the quality of the soil, it is not likely to be rendered fruitful by industry or labour. The others are more productive, and they abound in many places with valuable minerals, such as freestone, limestone, coal and granite.^e From the lower extremity of the county to a considerable distance upwards, freestone is the most common rock, and it is interspersed with different ridges of whin.^f Limestone is found in the same tract, but only in elevated positions, and generally near the surface. More than 300 labourers are employed in the lime quarries within the county, and the value of the produce varies from L.12,000 to L.15,000. The coal lies beneath the freestone; it is supposed to stretch in a solid mass over an extent of 110 square miles, and the average thickness, it is certain, is not less than five yards. The quantity of coal annually obtained from this vast area is

nearly equal to 800,000 tons, and no part of it has been so much worked as the field in the neighbourhood of Glasgow, which yields seven different sorts, and which, by facilitating the means of production, has mainly contributed to the rise and prosperity of the town. Ironstone occurs in regular strata above the limestone and coal: it is also found in contact with the sandstone; in some places, in the form of balls, which are arranged in beds, and are of so rich a quality as to yield fifty per cent. of ore. The lead mines, which have been already mentioned, and which have been now worked about two hundred years, are situated in the southern extremity of the county.^g The Clyde and the numerous streams that water Lanarkshire, are more or less subservient to the purposes of commerce; they facilitate the transportation of goods, or machinery is erected on their banks.^h

A line of defence was erected in the third centuryⁱ by the Romans against the incursions of the Caledonians, and the same line was fixed upon in the eighteenth, as the site of the Forth and Clyde canal.^k The purpose for which the two works were intended, was very different; if the fate of the falling empire cannot be said to have been retarded by the one, intercourse, industry and civilization have been extended by the other. The canal was begun in 1768, and not completed before 1790. It cost L.500,000, and some notion of the navigation performed on it may be inferred from its progressive returns. In 1800, it yielded a dividend of ten per cent., of twenty in 1815, and nearly 30 in 1820. The produce of the extensive coal-fields in Old and New Monkland is conveyed to Glasgow by the Monkland canal,^l and although the Ardrossan canal is not yet completed, it serves as a communication from the same town to Paisley.^m

Lanarkshire, according to the last returns, contains 316,820 inhabitants; it is therefore the most populous of the Scottish counties. The superficial extent is not less than 870 square miles; consequently the mean number of persons to the square mile amounts to 365.

If the rank of a city be estimated by its commerce, wealth and population, Glasgow must be considered the capital of Scotland. Like other great towns, its origin is involved in fable, and the foundation of it is attributed to St. Mungo, or St. Kentigern,ⁿ a person whose celebrity depends on his miracles. William the Lion erected it into a barony,^o and in 1450, it was raised into a regality by James the Second, but in its new character, it continued subject to its bishop. The dignity was at last vested in the dukes of Lennox by James the Sixth, who

^a It was built on the site of a Roman station. (Gaz. Scot.)—It stands on a rising ground running into a small lake on the north side of the burgh, on the site of a fort or castle, erected by Edward I. (Leighton's Scenes in Scotland.)—P.

^b Jan. 23, 1570. (Chambers' Picture of Scotland, ii. 40. Hume. Smollet.)—Jan. 23, 1571. (Watkins' Edit. of Buchanan's Hist. Scot. p. 485.)—P.

^c It contains the greatest absolute population, but is inferior to Mid Lothian and Renfrewshire in relative population.—P.

^d Each of these wards is governed by a sheriff-substitute, appointed by the sheriff-depute of the county. (Chambers.)—Lanarkshire was anciently divided into three wards or jurisdictions, viz. Clydesdale, Douglasdale and Avendale; but it is now divided into two, viz. the Shire of Lanark, of which Lanark is the chief town, and the Barony of Glasgow, of which that city is the seat of the courts. (Gaz. Scot. 1803.)—P.

^e Is not this last statement a mistake? The two lower wards of Lanarkshire are almost entirely within the coal formation; the upper ward is chiefly within the transition formation of the south of Scotland.—P.

^f Trap or greenstone.—P.

^g The village of Leadhills is situated in Lanarkshire.—P.

^h All the streams of any size, in Lanarkshire, are tributaries of the Clyde. The principal of these are the Douglas, the Nethan and the Kelvin, on the west, and the North and South Calder and the Kelvin, on the east.—P.

ⁱ In the second century—A. D. 140. (See p. 1116.)—P.

^k The lines of Graham's Dyke and the Forth and Clyde canal do not coincide, but intersect each other; the former terminating on the east, at Carriden in West Lothian; the latter at Grangemouth in Stirlingshire. The canal on the west crosses the dyke and approaches nearer Glasgow, before it terminates in the Clyde. Both the lines, however, are conducted along a remarkable valley, which here crosses the island from the Forth to the Clyde, between the trap range of the Campsie Fells on the north, and the hills of the coal formation on the south, and including the northern outcrop of the coal.—P.

^l This canal is connected at its western extremity with the Forth and Clyde canal.—P.

^m The Ardrossan canal is completed to the village of Johnstone three miles beyond Paisley. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁿ A. D. 570.—P.

^o A. D. 1172. (Stat. Acc.)—P.

granted the town an advantageous charter, and made it a royal burgh.^a The inhabitants engaged at an early period in the salmon and herring fishery, but their foreign trade previously to the union, was almost confined to Holland, and carried on by doubling the north of Scotland, a circuitous and dangerous navigation. In 1707, when the two kingdoms were united, Glasgow took the lead in opposing the act; the citizens revolted, and to restore obedience, it was found necessary to have recourse to the rigours of martial law.^b It might not be easy to account for the notions that prevailed, but the inhabitants, it is certain, believed the prosperity of their city at an end, and their own ruin inevitable, in consequence of an act, from which many advantages have resulted to Scotland, and to no place more than to Glasgow. In 1707, the population amounted to 14,000, in 1807, to 114,000, and in 1821, to 147,000.^c The accession gained within the last ten years is still more extraordinary; it is nearly equal to 56,000, for Glasgow contains at present 202,426 inhabitants. This progression, so great and so rapid, can only be attributed to the power of industry, and to the advantages of a favourable position. Abundant mines of coal are wrought in the vicinity, and their produce is conveyed at a low rate along the Monkland canal. The Forth, the Clyde, and the canal which unites them, afford the most direct access to the old and the new world, and Glasgow receives in exchange for her manufactures the products of both hemispheres.

But it may be necessary to show how much the prosperity of the town was increased in consequence of a measure, which the inhabitants opposed with equal violence and folly. The act of union was no sooner passed than Glasgow obtained a free navigation for its ships to all the British colonial ports, and possessing that advantage, it became the principal station from which the tobacco of Maryland and Virginia was transported to France.^d Not long afterwards, manufactories of cloth, lawn and cambric were erected in the town, and before the introduction of its muslins, these articles formed its most valuable exports.^e The long contest, which terminated in the independence of America, proved very detrimental to the commerce and industry of the town, and the intercourse, which the war had destroyed or interrupted, was established on a new basis, in other words, products different from those which were formerly admitted, were exported to America after the peace.^f Not long afterwards the new process of spinning cotton by machinery, the invention of the celebrated Arkwright, was generally adopted in Glasgow, and new branches of industry were successively introduced. Iron founderies were erected, flax, hemp and woollen manufactories were

established, and the inhabitants, in place of confining their manufactures to the supply of the colonies, sent their goods to London and the principal markets in England. But the mills in which the different articles were manufactured, and in which cotton was spun according to the process of Arkwright, might have been still confined to the banks of the streams that set them in motion, had it not been for the genius of Watt.^g The history of modern art might be examined in vain for the purpose of showing any other invention from which so much advantage has resulted, one from which so great and so uniform a power has been obtained in so small a compass and at so small an expense. The application of steam to navigation, the consequence of the same invention, is now common, but it was not before 1812 that the first steam vessel sailed on the Clyde. In like manner, the process of spinning and of weaving by steam, although of modern date, is now carried on to a great extent, and the city of Glasgow possesses more than 210 steam engines, which communicate their power to as many mills or manufactories.^h There are at present in the same town fifty-four large spinning factories, in which nearly 600,000 spindles are turned, and the capital invested in these works is upwards of L.1,000,000.ⁱ Eighteen mills for weaving cotton move by mechanical power 2,800 looms and 32,000 hand looms.^k In the calenders that are moved by steam, 110,000 yards of calico may be calendered in a day, the same number can be dressed, and 30,000 glazed.^m The other products of industry are of less importance; they consist of glass, delft ware and different substances that are used in the arts.

Some of the useful institutions may be briefly enumerated. The college occupies an area of more than two acres, and in an elegant building designed by Mr. Stark, is contained the Hunterian museum, a very valuable collection of natural history, anatomical preparations and medals. The number of students that attend the university is upwards of 1400. In 1795, Mr. Anderson, a professor in the university of Glasgow, founded and endowed the Andersonian Institution. Young men, who do not receive an university education, are instructed in this seminary in mathematics, natural philosophy, pharmacy, chemistry, and the application of chemistry to the arts. The numerous schools for the instruction of the poor are creditable to the benevolence of the upper classes; by their means 6516 children of both sexes are gratuitously educated, while in the other schools, the total number of pupils does not exceed 10,283. The advantages of education are put within the reach of every individual.

The same town is adorned with many public buildings, and its ancient cathedralⁿ is considered the most

^a A. D. 1611. (Stat. Acc.)—P.

^b This doubtless refers to the riots in Glasgow, on account of the malt tax, in 1725—suppressed by General Wade, with a military force.—P.

^c In 1708 (by census,) 12,766; in 1811, 110,460; in 1819, 150,000. (Chambers.)—P.

^d The farmers-general of France received the greater part of their tobacco through the medium of Glasgow. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e The linen trade began in 1725, and was for a long time, till supplanted by the cotton, the staple manufacture of Glasgow. The principal articles were linens, lawns, cambrics, checks and diapers. (Gaz. Scot. Stat. Acc.)—P.

^f The most important import trade with the United States, since the peace of 1783, has been that of cotton from the Southern States.—P.

^g In the improvement of the steam-engine.—P.

^h There are 73 steam engines in Glasgow and the immediate suburbs, employed in manufactures. (Ed. Enc. 1817.)—P.

ⁱ There are 52 cotton mills (in town and country,) belonging to Glasgow, with 511,200 spindles, and a capital invested of about L.1,000,000. (Ed. Enc. 1817.)—P.

^k There are 18 works belonging to Glasgow, for weaving by power, which contain 2800 looms. The number of hand looms, employed by the manufacturers of Glasgow, is about 32,000. (Ed. Enc. 1817.)—P.

^l There are 17 calendering houses in Glasgow, containing 39 calenders moved by steam, in which 118,000 yards may be calendered in a day, besides dressing 116,000 not calendered, and glazing 30,000. (Ed. Enc. 1817.)—P.

^m C. Dupin, Force Commerciale, vol. 2.

ⁿ The High Kirk (church)—dedicated to St. Mungo.—P.

perfect specimen of Gothic architecture in Scotland, almost all the other churches of equal antiquity having been injured or demolished by the blind zeal of the reformers. The length of the interior from east to west is equal to 319 feet, but as it is now divided into several distinct churches, the symmetry of the whole is lost.^a The building was preserved from the fury of Knox and his Vandals, by the firmness of the municipal authorities.^b The college, a neat and commodious building, extends more than a hundred yards along the high street; the interior is divided into two courts, of which the larger is 103 feet in length, and 80 in width. The town-house is a modern edifice,^c and it has been admired on account of the magnificence of its front, which is supported on rusticated pillars, and adorned with Ionic pilasters; the space between the columns and the building affording a convenient piazza to the merchants and men of business that frequent it. The Tontine is the name of a spacious hall in which the English, Scotch and French newspapers are read; the expenses are defrayed by fifteen hundred subscribers, but free access is allowed to strangers and the inhabitants. Independently of the purposes for which the institution is intended, it may easily be imagined that it is favourable to commerce, and the liberality by which it is supported, is worthy of a commercial city.

The town of Hamilton rises on the banks of the Clyde about ten miles and a half above Glasgow,^d and fourteen miles further is the village of New Lanark, celebrated on account of the cotton factories, that have been established by their philanthropic proprietor.^{e,f} The lead hills are situated at some distance above the last place, and not far from the Clyde; their name denotes the substance for which they are famous, and which is found there in greater abundance than in any other part of Scotland.^g

A large meadow adorned with trees and situated on the right bank of the Clyde, serves as a public walk to the inhabitants of Glasgow,^h and is intersected by the road that leads to Peebles, the capital of a county, although it does not contain 3000 inhabitants; still different branches of industry are carried on in a small scale, such as the manufacture of stockings, carpets and flannels, and there are besides one or two large breweries. The county itself is inferior to many others both in size and in the number of inhabitants; for it is not

^a It is now divided into two places of worship, the Outer and Inner; the former occupying the western part of the choir; the latter, the nave—with a common vestibule between them. The cemetery underneath the eastern part of the church, formerly served as a place of worship for the Barony or Landward (country) parish, and was called the Laigh Kirk (Low Church,) but is now restored to its original use.—P.

^b In 1579, at the instigation of the protestant clergy, the magistrates engaged to demolish the edifice, and assembled a body of workmen for the purpose; but the craftsmen or members of trade corporations flew to arms, took possession of the building, and threatened to kill the first man who should lay hands on it. The magistrates were thus forced to desist from their purpose, and the building was preserved. It was then converted into three protestant places of worship (see note ^a), after having been cleared of the statues of saints and other Catholic appendages. (Chambers. Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c The town-house (town-hall) was built in 1636. (Ed. Enc. Pict. of Glasgow.)—P.

^d On the west bank of the Clyde near the mouth of the Avon.—P.

^e Mr. Owen.

^f The village of New Lanark and the cotton factories were founded by David Dale, father-in-law of Robert Owen. It stands in a valley on the banks of the Clyde, between the falls of Corra Linn and Stone-

more than 365 square miles in superficial extent, and the mean population is less than twenty-nine individuals to the square mile. The boundaries of Peebles-shire are the counties of Lanark on the west, Dumfries on the south, Selkirk on the east, and Mid Lothian on the north. The surface, which is in many parts hilly, becomes mountainous towards the south, and the heights that separate it from Annandale in Dumfries-shire, vary from 2500 to 3000 feet above the level of the sea. The general elevation of the pasture lands is about 1200 feet, and the hills with few exceptions are covered with herbage, heath being almost exclusively confined to the highest summits. The dale or valley of the Tweed, which forms a great part of the county, and from which it derives its popular name of Tweeddale, communicates with many narrow vallies, that branch from it in different directions. Thus, the scenery consists of hills, dales, and numerous streams, but the spectator looks in vain for lofty trees or indeed for trees of any kind, and the effect of the natural beauties is apt to be associated with the idea of bleakness or sterility.

The soil of the cultivated land, lying chiefly on the sides of the lower hills, and the banks of the rivers, is for the most part a light loam; clay, moss and moor are more common on the high grounds. As to the minerals, coal and limestone are wrought in the northern part of the county, or in the parishes of Linton and Newlands; ironstone too is obtained in the last of these parishes, and slate is exported to the adjacent counties from the parish of Stobo on the Tweed.ⁱ Peebles-shire, however, is not distinguished by its mineral riches, and as it is by no means a manufacturing county, it has little to offer except sheep and wool in exchange for the articles that are consumed.

The next county, although smaller than the last, is more important from the number and industry of its inhabitants. In the year 1754, Renfrewshire contained only 26,654 inhabitants; in 1831, the population amounted to 133,433. The extent of surface is not more than 241 square miles, and it is bounded by the Frith of Clyde on the north and west, by Lanarkshire on the east, and by Ayrshire on the south. Nearly two thirds of the surface are hilly, but the highest hill or Misty-law is not more than 1240 feet in height. The greater portion of this district is ill adapted for tillage, and it is generally kept in pasture. The cultivated land

byres, and west of the town of Lanark. The Clyde is precipitated over three large falls in this vicinity, viz. Bonnington Linn, Corra Linn and the Fall of Stonebyres. The town of Lanark, a royal burgh, and the county town, stands on elevated ground, to the east of the Clyde, but is not a place of much importance.—P.

^g The range of the Lead Hills is that part of the great transition chain in the south of Scotland, which divides the waters of the Clyde from those of the Nith. The village of Leadhills is situated at a great height on this range, and near the sources of the Clyde. It is entirely inhabited by miners, who, like those in the neighbouring mining village of Wanlockhead in Dumfries-shire, have long devoted a part of their earnings to the establishment of a library.—P.

^h The public park, or green, on the banks of the river, adjoining the south-east side of the town, contains upwards of 108 acres of grass, and more than 3 miles, 6 furlongs, of gravel walks. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁱ At least two thirds of the county on the south and east consists of greywacke and argillite, forming part of the great transition range of the south of Scotland. The remainder of the county on the north-west consists of sandstone, with coal and limestone. The dividing line enters the county at Kingside, and passes through the parish of Newlands and along the northern border of Stobo into Lanarkshire.—P.

is almost exclusively confined to the north and north-east districts, and to the centre of the county. The rivers and streams are the Clyde, the White Cart, the Black Cart, and the Gryfe, from which last the county is often styled Strathgryfe.^a The Clyde, the only large river, flows along the confines; the White Cart has been rendered navigable from Paisley to the Clyde. The Black Cart flows from the south-west, and the Gryfe from the west, and both meet at Walkinshaw about two miles above their confluence with the White Cart. These streams are chiefly worthy of notice on account of the many cotton and other mills which they set in motion. Smaller streams are applied to the same purpose, and a constant supply of water is secured by means of reservoirs, several of which from their size and appearance might be mistaken for lakes.

The minerals are of primary importance, and they constitute the main source of the commerce and manufactures. Coal is worked in part of the hilly district, and both coal and lime in the flat district near Renfrew. But it is in the central district that coal is obtained in the greatest quantities. More than twelve different works are established, and of these the most extensive is the one at Quarrelton on the Black Cart.^b The coal at that place consists of five contiguous strata, and the thickness of the whole, measured at right angles to their surface, is upwards of fifty feet, but as in some places the seam forms a considerable angle with the horizon, the thickness of the strata, measured vertically, is there upwards of ninety feet. The coal in consequence of so great a depth is wrought in floors or stories. Limestone abounds in different directions, and twelve or fourteen quarries are at present worked.^c Ironstone, which is scattered throughout the middle district, is found in strata and in the form of balls. Considerable quantities of pyrites, obtained from the coal stratum at Hurlet and Househill, are manufactured into sulphate of iron, or green vitriol.^d Lastly, excellent freestone, lying near the surface, is wrought in the neighbourhood of Paisley, and in other parts of the county.

Renfrew, the nominal capital of Renfrewshire, is an ancient and small burgh too insignificant to require notice.^e But Paisley, from its size and importance, may be considered the third city in Scotland. It is situated on the White Cart, between two and three miles south of the

^a From the river Gryfe the county derived its most ancient name of Strathgryfe. (Stat. Acc.)—P.

^b Coal, limestone and freestone abound in various parts of the county. There are no fewer than twelve coal works in actual operation. The most extensive are those at Quarrelton, near the centre of the county, at Polmadie, on its north-east boundary, and at Hurlet and Househill, to the south-east of Paisley. (Ed. Enc.)—All the works, above specified, except Polmadie, are in the Abbey parish of Paisley. That of Quarrelton is near the manufacturing village of Johnstone (on the Black Cart,) begun in 1782, and now one of the most flourishing places in the county. The whole eastern part of the county is included within the coal formation. The limestone is properly an appendage of that formation, very little being found beyond its limits.—P.

^c Limestone is wrought at about eight different quarries. One of the most singular masses of it occurs at the entrance of the romantic glen of Gleniffer, three miles south of Paisley. It appears in the face of a high rock, under a superincumbent mass of greenstone, and forms a bed about ten feet thick, dipping towards a centre, where several mines meet, forming a subterranean labyrinth. (Ed. Enc. 1825. Stat. Acc. vii.)—P.

^d The coal mines of Hurlet afford materials for a manufactory of sulphate of iron, and the most extensive alum manufactory in Great Britain is carried on at the same place. (Ed. Enc.)—The materials are obtained from a stratum of shale, placed above the coal, and abounding in iron pyrites, which having been exposed to the atmosphere for more than 200 years, and at the same time kept dry, the natural forma-

Clyde, and nearly seven west from Glasgow. The old town stands on a rising ground on the western, and the new in a valley on the eastern bank of the river, and they communicate with each other by three bridges. The most remarkable of its public buildings is an ancient abbey, part of which has been converted into a parish church, while the rest is in ruins.^f A monument, however, is still preserved;§ it was raised in honour of Margery Bruce, the daughter of king Robert Bruce, and wife of Walter, the great steward of Scotland, from whom the Stuarts descended.

It was after the union that Paisley began to flourish as a manufacturing town. The various branches of the linen manufacture were established after the same period; in 1760, the manufacture of silk gauze was introduced, and became in a few years so successful as to afford employment to nearly 5000 workmen. But the cotton manufacture or the one by which the others have been in some degree superseded, was commenced about the year 1780. In 1810, the cotton yarn which was sold, amounted in value to L.63,000, and the capital laid out in the buildings and machinery of the mills, was estimated at L.630,000. Seven thousand looms were then employed in the weaving of muslins, five hundred were wrought by steam, and they produced coarse cottons to the value of L.125,000 yearly. These, however, are not the only branches of industry, that are carried on; soap-making, tanneries, distilleries, breweries and founderies, together with numerous bleach-fields and print-fields, furnish employment to many of the inhabitants. Of the rapid rise of Paisley some notion may be inferred from the fact that the population of the town and abbey-parish amounted to less than 7000 in 1755, and to more than 50,000 in 1831.

Port-Glasgow and Greenock are situated in the same county and on the banks of the Clyde, the former about twenty, and the latter about twenty-three miles below Glasgow. The former contains between ten and eleven thousand inhabitants; it is built around a basin, excavated so as to serve as a dock for the vessels which are prevented by the weight of their cargoes from proceeding to Glasgow. It reckons about one hundred and twenty vessels measuring nearly 20,000 tons. Greenock was only an obscure village at the period of the union,^h and

tion of alum and sulphate of iron has been continued by the decomposition of the pyrites, so that the rock has become impregnated with these substances, which are extracted from it by lixiviation. (Nicholson's Journal, xvi.)—P.

^e Renfrew is the county town—situated near the junction of the Clyde and Cart, north of Paisley.—P.

^f The nave of the Abbey Church is now occupied as a place of worship for the Abbey Parish, an extensive country parish in the heart of which the town (burgh) of Paisley is situated, and of which the New Town is considered a part. The west end of the church is open, and forms a fine Gothic ruin. (Ed. Enc.)—Originally Paisley formed but one parish, dependent on the Abbey. In 1488, the town (now Old Town) of Paisley was erected into a burgh of barony by James IV. and formed into a separate parish inclosed by the Abbey or country parish. The suburbs, including the New Town, are of course within the limits of the Abbey Parish—the Abbey itself being situated in the new town on the east of the Cart. In the burgh, in 1821, there were three parishes, viz. the High, the Middle, and the Low Church, besides numerous places of worship for dissenters. Paisley was not represented before the passage of the Reform Bill.—P.

^g In a building called the Abercorn Chapel, still entire, on the east side of the cloisters, and south of the church.—P.

^h Greenock consisted of only a few fishermen's huts about 1697. The directors of the Scotch India and African Company having then determined to establish salt works on the shores of the Firth, Sir John Shaw, the superior, was led to improve its maritime advantages

afterwards in 1740, the gross receipt of the customs amounted to L.15,000; in 1828, they were equal to L.455,596.^a It now possesses three hundred and fifty vessels, measuring more than 50,000 tons. It is at Greenock and Port-Glasgow that the foreign and coasting trade of the county, and the principal foreign trade of Scotland, are carried on. They have an extensive trade with America and the West Indies, Ireland and the west of England, and by the means of the Forth and Clyde canal, with every part of Scotland. The herring and whale fisheries^b were once more important than at present, but the former is still flourishing, and the merchants of Greenock are extensively engaged in the Newfoundland and Nova Scotia fisheries.^c

The maritime county of Ayr is contiguous to Renfrewshire on the north, to Lanark and Dumfries-shires on the east, and to Galloway^d on the south, and it is washed in an extent of nearly seventy miles on the west by the Irish Sea and the Frith of Clyde. It is important as an agricultural county, and as a manufacturing one, it is only inferior to Lanarkshire and Renfrewshire. The area is not less than 1039 square miles, and the relative population is nearly equal to one hundred and forty individuals to the square mile. It is divided into the three bailiwicks of Cunningham, Kyle^e and Carrick. The first or the most northern is separated from the second or central division by the river Irvine; and the Doon, which is familiar to the readers of Burns, forms the boundary between the second and Carrick or the southern district. Cunningham is level and fruitful, Kyle is varied by heights, and the greater portion of Carrick is hilly or mountainous. Most of the rivers rise in the county, and fall into the frith or the sea, which washes it on the west; the principal are the Stinchar, the Girvan, the Doon, the Irvine, the Garnock and the Ayr, from which last, valuable whetstones are exported to England and different parts of Scotland. But Ayrshire possesses other advantages besides numerous rivers, an extensive coast and several commodious harbours—it abounds in coal and lime; to the one may be traced the origin and rise of its manufactures, and to the other its general improvements and increased fertility. The old

rotation of three consecutive crops of corn, followed by six years hay and pasture, has been generally abandoned, and, after the example of the eastern counties, has given place to an alternation of white and green crops. The dairy, however, is the great object of attention, the cows are not surpassed by any in Scotland, and the cheese is exported to most parts of Britain. An immense number of horses are bred in the same county; indeed it has been called the *patria* of the Lanarkshire or Clydesdale horse, which, for purposes of draught, may bear a comparison with any in the island. It must not be inferred that the agricultural improvements are yet complete; on the contrary, most of the lands are not sufficiently manured, and imperfectly drained, defects which must be partly attributed to the small size of the farms, affording little or no opportunity for the employment of capital, or the division of labour.

The products of industry are the various articles of the woollen manufacture, and in addition to the extensive works in which the different branches are carried on, private families in almost every parish are employed in making blankets and coarse cloth, which are sold in the markets and fairs of the county. Beith has long been noted for its thread manufacture,^g and the cotton works at Catrine are probably the most extensive of any in Scotland, at all events, it is not many years since they furnished occupation to more than nine hundred persons, who consumed 10,000 lbs. of cotton wool, and made 35,000 yards of cloth every week.^h Pig and bar iron are wrought on a great scale, and founderies are erected at Muirkirk, Glenbuck, and other places. The other manufactures are leather, saddlery, earthen ware, kelp and salt.

The seaport town of Ayr, the capital of the county, is situated on the banks of the river whose name it bears, and at no great distance from the Doon, of which the bar is impassable to ships.ⁱ The public monuments are not remarkable, and some of them date from the time of Cromwell, who built a citadel in the vicinity, and converted the principal church into an armoury.^k The harbour begins below a bridge of four arches,^l built between the town and the northern suburbs.^m Two piers of stone

(Myers' Geog. i. 178.)—Before the Union (1707), the merchants of Greenock had some trade to the Baltic for timber, in exchange for herrings, and to France, Spain and other parts of Europe. In 1714, a custom-house was established in Greenock, as a member of Port-Gla gov. About 1745, the town was formed into a separate parish, called the New Parish of Greenock, and in 1757, it was erected into a burgh of barony, by Sir John Shaw. (Stat. Acc. v.)—Greenock, like Paisley, was not represented previous to the Reform. In the town of Greenock, in 1817, there were two parishes (the new one erected in 1809.) The suburbs were included in the Old or country Parish. Besides these three established churches, there was a Gaelic chapel, and six other places of worship.—P.

^a In 1728, the gross receipt of the customs amounted to L.15,231; in 1828, they amounted to L.455,596. (Bell's Geog.)—P.

^b The Whale Fishery from the Clyde has been by no means successful. It was first attempted in 1752, but soon given up. It was again revived in 1786, but the Greenock merchants soon tired of it, and it was confined to Port-Glasgow. (Stat. Acc. x. 580. A. D. 1793.)—P.

^c This last statement is made, in the same terms, in the Statistical Account (vol. v. 580,) from which it is copied into the Gazetteer of Scotland, 1803.—P.

^d Wigtonshire and the stewartry of Kirkcudbright.—P.

^e Kyle is divided by the river Ayr into King's Kyle on the south, and Kyle Stewart on the north. Kyle or Coil has derived its name either from the Gaelic *coil*, a wood, or from Coilus, a British king ("auld King Coil,") who is said to have been killed in battle on the river Coil (Coyl) a south branch of the Ayr.—P.

^f Native country.

VOL. III.—NO. 61.

71

7 X

^g The manufacture of linen thread was introduced into the town of Beith (on the east of Kilbirnie Loch), and the surrounding country, in 1730, and in 1760, it is said to have amounted in value to L.16,000 annually. Since then it has greatly declined. (Stat. Acc. viii. 319.)—P.

^h The cotton works at Catrine (on the north side of the river Ayr, fourteen miles N. E. of the town of Ayr) were established in 1787, by Mr. Alexander of Ballochmyle, in partnership with the celebrated David Dale, founder of the New Lanark cotton works.—P.

ⁱ The construction would seem to imply that the entrance of the Doon is impeded by a bar; but the entrance of the river Ayr is impeded by a bar occasionally thrown across it, especially by north-west winds. The bed of the river is narrow, and the depth of water, at spring tides, not above twelve feet; so that vessels exceeding 140 tons cannot pass the bar. (Ed. Enc. Stat. Acc. ii.)—P.

^k Cromwell built his citadel around the old church of St. John the Baptist, which stood near the sea, and also near the site of the old castle built by William the Lion. The citadel enclosed twelve acres of ground, including the church and the site of the castle. He converted the church into an armoury, and as an indemnity, gave 1000 English merks to the citizens for building a new one. The tower of the old church still remains.—There are now two established churches in Ayr. (Ed. Enc. 1813.)—P.

^l The river is crossed by two bridges, the Auld and New Brigs of Burns—the former, which is very narrow, with several low arches, is said to have been built in the reign of Alexander III.; the latter is a recent structure, situated about a hundred yards below the old bridge (Chambers' Pict. Scot. i. 295.)—P.

^m The principal suburb on the north side of the river forms a sepa

and wood, prolonged to the distance of 550 yards on the right and left of the river, serve as moorings to vessels which take in cargoes of coal from wharfs similar to those at Sunderland and Tynemouth. The port reckons about sixty vessels, which measure 5000 tons, and they are mostly employed in exporting the coal that abounds in the surrounding country. The town and neighbourhood have been rendered classical by the muse of Burns, and the ruins of Alloway Kirk excite a deeper interest than that resulting merely from a romantic situation. A costly monument, erected in honour of the poet, rises near the humble dwelling in which he was born;^a the one contrasts well with the other, and both are emblematic of the conduct of his countrymen—they suffered him to live in poverty, they raise monuments to his memory.

Kilmarnock, the most flourishing town in the county, was at no very remote period an obscure village.^b It is situated on the Fenwick near its junction with the Irvine, about fourteen miles to the north-east of Ayr. It was formerly one of the worst built places in Scotland; it is now distinguished by modern houses and regular streets. Independently of the carpets, blankets, tartans, bonnets and woollen manufactures, of which it is the principal seat in Ayrshire, many workmen are employed in weaving cotton, muslin and silk for the manufacturers of Glasgow and Paisley. Greater extension has of late been afforded to its trade by improved communications, for which the inhabitants are indebted to the Duke of Portland. The works of that public spirited nobleman are the harbour at Troon, a promontory which stretches about a mile into the Frith of Clyde,^c and the rail road, which extends from the same harbour to the town of Kilmarnock, a distance of more than ten miles. The harbour extends more than two hundred yards into the sea, and it is proposed to prolong it to three hundred. The depth at the present extremity is about 18 feet at low water. A graving dock was finished about five years ago, and it is now much frequented for the repairing of coasting vessels. Another, which was still more lately completed, is thirty-seven feet wide at the gate, and vessels of almost any burden may enter it. Extensive warehouses are erected, and a yard is open for the building of ships. There are upwards of 3000 acres of coal fields in the country along which the railway passes from the harbour to Kilmarnock. Coal, accordingly, has hitherto been the principal article of conveyance to Troon, and the average quantity exceeds a hundred tons daily. Iron, grain, timber, and other articles, are transported to Kilmarnock.

Another instance of public spirit is exhibited in the works, which have been begun and carried on at Ardross-

rate burgh (of barony), called Newton upon Ayr. Ayr itself is a royal burgh.—P.

^a This house is situated about a mile and a half south-east of Ayr, on the right hand side of the road to Maybole, within a few hundred yards of Alloway Kirk, and but little farther from the Brig of Doon. The monument, a costly edifice of white stone, in the form of a Grecian temple, rises on a height between the kirk and the bridge.—P.

^b Kilmarnock was erected into a burgh of barony in 1591. It was not represented before the Reform Bill.—P.

^c It is about midway between the mouths of the Ayr and Irvine. Off it, at about two miles distance, is a small island, called Lady's Isle, within which is a road for ships.—P.

^d Irvine stands on the north side of the river Irvine at its mouth. Saltcoats is on the coast, about five miles north-west of Irvine, and

an by the Earl of Eglinton. The Frith of Clyde is in many respects ill adapted for the purposes of navigation; the channel is narrow—it is exposed to squalls, and rendered dangerous by shallows. Besides, it can only be navigated when the wind blows from certain directions, and that appears almost a sufficient reason for having the harbour of Glasgow in the open bay of Ardrossan, where, whatever be the direction of the wind, mariners can put to sea, which they cannot do either at Greenock or Port-Glasgow. As Ardrossan thus offered the site of a safe, commodious and accessible harbour, the works were commenced with much spirit, and a circular pier of 900 yards was completed in 1811. A wet dock was afterwards begun, which according to the plan of Mr. Telford, should contain a hundred vessels, and have a depth of water equal to sixteen feet. But the works have been given up, and they are not likely to be finished without public aid. The harbour was only part of the original plan; it was proposed, instead of the present circuitous passage by the Frith of Clyde, to open a direct communication with Glasgow, Paisley and the other flourishing towns in the vicinity. The line of a canal was therefore marked from Glasgow to Ardrossan, a distance of thirty-one and a half miles, and the expense of cutting it was estimated at L.125,000. About a third part of this work, namely, that which extends from Glasgow to Johnstone, is finished, and it cost nearly L.90,000. The other ports in the county are those of Saltcoats and Irvine,^d and their principal trade consists in the export of coal to Ireland.

Returning to the Forth and Clyde canal, we enter Stirlingshire, which is situated on the isthmus between these two friths.^e It is contiguous to the counties of Perth and Clackmannan on the north, to Linlithgowshire on the east, to Lanarkshire on the south, and to Dumbartonshire on the south-west and west. The population amounts by the last returns to 72,621 individuals, and the surface has been estimated at 625 square miles. Nearly two-thirds of the surface consist of hills, and are unfit for cultivation; they afford, however, good pasturage to sheep, for although heath appears occasionally, they are mostly covered with green herbage. The Lennox hills, the principal tract of this description, extend across the county from Dumbartonshire on the west to the town of Stirling on the north, and their elevation is not higher than 1,500 feet.^f Loftier summits are situated in other directions; Ben-Lomond on the north-west, on the banks of Loch Lomond, is 3262,^g and Benclach in the parish of Alva on the north side of the Forth is 2400 feet.^h The country is low on the north and on the east of the Lennox hills, and much of the

one and a half south of Ardrossan Point. It has a good artificial harbour.—P.

^e The Friths of Forth and Clyde.

^f Seldom exceed an elevation of 1500 feet above the sea. The height of the Campsie hills is about 1500, and that of the Kilsyth hills 1365. (Ed. Enc.)—The trap range extending from the Clyde at Dumbarton, in a north-east direction to the Forth at Stirling, where it meets the Ochils, is called by the general name of the Lennox Hills. Different portions of the range receive different local names, viz. from east to west, the rock of Stirling, the Gargunnoch and Kilsyth hills, the Campsie Fells (hills), the Kilpatrick hills, and the rock of Dumbarton.—P.

^g 3176 feet. (Bell.)—P.

^h 2420 feet. (Bell.)—Benclach or Benclough (Gaelic, *Benn-Cloich*,

land near the Forth is only a few feet higher than the surface of the water.

Almost every variety of soil, common to Scotland, may be found in Stirlingshire, but that by which it is most distinguished, is the alluvial or carse land on the Forth. It covers an extent of about 40,000 acres within the county, and twice as many in the adjoining counties of Perth, Clackmannan and Linlithgow, in all about 200 square miles. It is without doubt the most fruitful land in the kingdom; it is unmixed with stones, it consists of the finest particles of earth, and in point of friability it approaches to loam. It is in some places thirty feet deep, and nowhere so much above the level of the sea at high water. Lastly, the debris of plants and animals have been found at the depth of nineteen feet, while the upper surface consists entirely of fine earth.

The same county is well supplied with valuable minerals, and the abundance of coal in particular, has given rise to different manufactures. The northern boundary of the great coal belt, which extends in an oblique direction from Cantyre on the west, to Fifeshire on the east, runs in Stirlingshire along the southern base of the Lennox hills; the mineral abounds, as has been already seen, on the south, although it has not yet been discovered in any quantity on the north of this line. Limestone, ironstone and sandstone are common in different places, and other substances, such as copper, lead and silver, have occasionally been wrought.

Stirlingshire was at an early period exposed to frequent contests, and to defend it against the incursions of the Caledonians, who descended like torrents from its mountains, a chain of forts was built by Agricola.^a At a later period it was the boundary of four kingdoms, namely, the Cumbrian and Northumbrian on the south, and the Scottish and Pictish on the north,^b and became in consequence the battle-field of these warlike barbarians.

Stirling, the capital, was formerly called *Striveling*, the place of contention or fight, and from its ancient castle, it is said, may be seen twelve spots in which as many battles were fought. It is certain that the castle itself was long one of the most important fortresses in the kingdom, and as such, its possession was contested from the time of the Danish invasion in the year 1009^c until it was taken by General Monk in 1651. Situated

peak of the stone or rock) is the highest of the Ochils, and near their western extremity; it is situated at the point where the three counties of Clackmannan, Perth and Stirling meet, partly in each. Alva hill, or Wood hill, farther west in the same range, is 1620 feet high.—P.

^a The chain of forts (*pratentura*), built by Agricola, occupied nearly the same line as the wall of Antoninus, and of course extended along the southern border of the county. It could not therefore have been a direct defence to it against the Caledonians.—P.

^b The Cumbrian (*Cumraig*, or *Cymraig*) kingdom of Strath-Clyde continued till the 10th century. It extended over all the west of Scotland, south of the Frith of Clyde. Its inhabitants are said to have been of kindred origin with the Welsh, i. e. *Cimbri*, or *Cymry*. (Pinkerton.) The Anglo-Saxon kingdom of Bernicia or Northumberland extended over the eastern part of Scotland, south of the Forth, including the Lothians. The Pictish kingdom occupied the east of Scotland, north of the Forth. Abernethy, on the Tay, in Perthshire, was its capital. The Picts are considered by G. Chalmers as descendants of the original Celtic population of Scotland (the *Caledonii* of the Romans); by Pinkerton, as descendants indeed of the Caledonians, but originally a Gothic colony from Norway. The Scottish kingdom was founded in the 6th century by the Dalriads (Gaelic, *Dalruadhini*), an Irish colony, who settled in Argyle, and became the ancestors of the Highlanders. They occupied the north-west of Scotland.—P.

^c Stirling Castle was rebuilt by the Northumbrians, who had taken

at the western extremity of the rock on which the town is built, it commands an extensive view of the beautiful country in the neighbourhood. The Scottish kings used frequently to hold their court in Stirling castle; there James the Second was born, and there he murdered with his own hand his kinsman, the earl of Douglas. The palace^d is now converted into a house for the governor, and barracks for the soldiers, but the apartments occupied by the celebrated Buchanan, while tutor to James the Sixth, are still shown to strangers. The Forth, which waters the valley below it, pursues a very meandering course, so much so that following it to Alloa, the distance is more than twenty miles, while in a direct line it is less than seven.^e These windings are called by the common people the *links* of the Forth.^f The town itself is ancient and irregularly built; all the old streets, except the one on the summit of the hill, which is broad and spacious, are crooked and narrow. Considerable additions have been made, however, within the last thirty years, and modern houses and regular streets have been erected on the north and on the east of the town. Although not remarkable for its manufactures or any branch of industry,^g it is not without some inland and foreign trade, the latter chiefly to the Baltic. Vessels of seventy tons ascend to the quay, after a circuitous and tedious navigation from Alloa.

The village of Bannockburn is situated about two miles to the east of Stirling, and is still memorable on account of the battle in which the Scots, under the conduct of Bruce, defeated the English, and regained independence.^h The marsh into which the English soldiers incautiously rushed, still remains, and the stream that was stained with their blood, has since been made subservient to the purposes of industry. It is long since the inhabitants have been disturbed by the march of hostile armies, and the village is now flourishing; although still a place of very moderate population, it possesses extensive manufactories of carpets, tartans and leather.

Continuing our journey eastwards, we arrive at the town of Falkirk, which may be mentioned on account of its three annual *trysts* or fairs, the most important of any in Scotland for the sale of oxen and sheep. The neighbouring port of Grangemouth has become flourishing from its position on the Forth and Clyde canal;ⁱ but the vil-

possession of that part of Scotland, in the 9th century. In the 10th century, it was retaken by the Scots, and, during the Danish invasion in 1009, it was the place of rendezvous of the Scottish army. (Gaz. Scot.)—The Danes made three successive invasions of Scotland in the reign of Malcolm II. (A. D. 1003—33) viz. in Moray, Angus and Buchan.—P.

^d The palace is a large building, in the form of a quadrangle, in the south-eastern part of the castle.—P.

^e The distance, by the windings of the Forth, from the quay of Alloa to the bridge of Stirling, is 19½ miles, whereas the distance by land does not exceed seven miles; though the turnings in the road are numerous. (Stat. Acc. viii. 593.)—P.

^f The Scottish word *links* signifies, 1. the windings of a river, forming peninsulas: "the bonny *links* o' Forth;" 2. the rich carse land in those peninsulas: "Forth's *links* o' waving corr" (Macneill); 3. sandy flat ground on the sea shore, covered with bents, furze, &c., and used in playing golf: the *links* of Leith, of Montrose, &c.; 4. any tract of sandy ground, not on the sea-coast, of a similar character, as Bruntsfield Links, part of the old Borough-muir of Edinburgh.—P.

^g Cotton and woollen goods, but particularly carpets, are among its chief manufactures. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^h July 24, 1314.

ⁱ It is situated at the junction of the canal with the Forth, and is thus an important port. It was built in 1777.—P.

lage of Carron must be considered the most remarkable place in the vicinity, for its iron works are among the most extensive of any in Britain. They were erected about the year 1760; twenty furnaces are now employed, more than two hundred tons of coal are consumed weekly, and employment is provided for upwards of 2000 persons.^a Various articles used in the arts and in war are manufactured at Carron; among the former are cylinders, steam engines, pumps, boilers, flies, wheels and pinions; among the latter are different articles of ordnance, and the carronade, a short ship gun with a chamber, which derives its name from that of the place. The transportation of these ponderous articles to different parts of Britain, and to foreign countries, is facilitated by means of the Forth and a navigable canal.^b

The Forth separates Stirlingshire from Clackmannanshire; the latter is bounded on the south-east by Fifeshire, and in every other direction by Perthshire.^c Although the smallest county in Scotland, it is more important than might be inferred from the extent of its surface; thus, the area does not exceed fifty-two square miles, but the population is not much less than three hundred persons to every square mile.^d Nearly three-fourths of the surface are under cultivation, a greater proportion, with the exception of East Lothian, than that of any other Scottish county. It is besides rich in minerals; silver, copper, lead, iron-ore, cobalt and antimony have all been discovered on the Ochil hills, between Airthrie and Dollar.^e They have never been worked on an extensive scale, and the miners have never penetrated below the level of the plain or the base of these mountains; but it is still believed that valuable metallic veins are contained in them, and that they may reward the enterprise of future capitalists. A mass of greenstone, in the neighbourhood of Stirling, is known by the name of the Abbey-Craigs;^f its external appearance is columnar, and the internal structure is crystallized. It affords, in the grinding of wheat into flour, a useful substitute for the French buhr-stones, which could not be obtained in Britain during the last war. It is not many years since the stone of the Abbey Craig was first applied to that purpose, and the discovery was made by Mr. James Brownhill, a miller at Alloa. The Clackmannanshire millstones are now considered superior, in some respects, to the French; many hundreds of them are used in different parts of England and Scotland, and the ingenious individual already mentioned, was rewarded

for his discovery by the Society for the Encouragement of the Arts. Coal has been worked during two hundred years, and the quantity obtained annually from this small county, amounts to more than 130,000 tons.^g The excess above what is required for the home consumption, is exported to Leith, Dunbar and other parts of the country. Machinery for drawing water from the mines, was constructed before the invention of the steam-engine, and the Alloa colliery is drained by an overshot water wheel, which is thirty feet in diameter, and which raises the water from the depth of three hundred. And it may be remarked, that a powerful steam-engine, belonging to the Devon coal company,^h is capable of raising 1,000,000 gallons of water in twenty-four hours, from the depth of two hundred and eighty feet.

The small town of Clackmannan, the capital of the county, is finely situated on an eminence above the banks of the Forth, and is crowned by an ancient tower or keep, all that remains of the palace of King Robert Bruce.ⁱ The port of Alloa is well situated for commerce; the quay is well built, and the dry dock can admit vessels of large burden. The custom-house comprehends within its precincts, the creeks of Stirling, Kincardine, and Clackmannan. A hundred and thirty vessels are registered, carrying nearly 10,000 tons. There are cleared outwards, on an average, from 900 to 1000 vessels, carrying 50,000 tons, and employing 2500 seamen. The distillation of spirits, it may be added, is the most important branch of industry; there are not fewer than six large distilleries in this small district, and two of them paid some time ago to government, in the form of excise duty, a greater sum than the whole land-tax of Scotland.^k

If Clackmannanshire be excepted, no other county is so small as Kinross-shire, which is bounded on the north-east, east and south by the county of Fife, and on the north and west by Perthshire. The greatest length from east to west is about twelve miles, the utmost breadth from north to south is not more than ten, and the area is probably equal to eighty-three square miles. The number of persons amounts to a hundred and ten to the square mile; it is therefore much inferior to the last county in point of population.

It is the highest level land in the peninsula formed by the Forth and the Tay; it was formerly called *Ross* or the promontory, and it comprehended in addition to the present county those of Fife and Clackmannan.^l The productive lands cover an extent of 30,000 acres, or

^a There are five blast furnaces, which produce nearly 200 tons of pig iron weekly, and above 20 air furnaces and cupolas for castings. No less than 200 tons of coal are consumed daily. Upwards of 2000 people are employed at the works. (Ed. Enc. 1813.)—P.

^b A canal leads directly from the works to the Carron Wharf, on the Forth and Clyde canal.—P.

^c The county is properly bounded on the south-west by the Firth of Forth, separating it from Stirlingshire; on the north by Perthshire; on the east, for a short distance, by Fifeshire; and on the south-east by a detached portion of Perthshire, including Culross. On the north-west, it is interlocked with detached portions of Stirlingshire.—P.

^d About 283.—P.

^e The trap range of the Ochils is a continuation of that of the Lennox Hills, which terminate at Stirling. It commences in the Abbey Craig, in the parish of Logie, on the north of the Forth, opposite Stirling, and thence extends easterly along the northern border of the parishes of Alva, Tillicoultry and Dollar. It thus skirts the county of Clackmannan on the north, and along its southern foot ranges the valley of the Doan (Devon.) The rest of the county on the south-east, of which the surface is uneven, belongs to the coal formation.—P.

^f The Abbey Craig (in Logie parish, separated by the Forth from

the rock of Stirling, with which it corresponds)—so called from its vicinity to the ruined abbey of Cambuskenneth.—P.

^g The present annual output of coals may be taken at 130,000 tons. (Ed. Enc. 1815.)—P.

^h At the Sauchy mine, in Clackmannan parish. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁱ The old tower is said to have been built by King Robert Bruce, and was long the seat of the chief of the Bruces, the hereditary sheriff of the county. (Stat. Acc. Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k There are no less than six large distilleries in this small district [the county of Clackmannan]; Kilbagie, in the parish of Clackmannan, is the most extensive. (Ed. Enc.)—The two great distilleries of Kilbagie and Kennetpans, in Clackmannan parish, paid to government an excise duty considerably greater than the whole land tax of Scotland, previous to 1788, when the license duty was doubled, and an increased duty levied on all Scotch spirits imported into England. From that time, the business declined, but in 1795 the duty paid by those two distilleries was L.8000 yearly. (Stat. Acc. xiv. 623—6.)—P.

^l This is erroneous. The subject is stated more correctly in the Edin. Encyc. "The county of Fife at a former period included the county of Kinross, and part of Clackmannan. The whole district was

about three-fifths of the whole; the remaining portion consists either of a light and scanty soil, or of moorish and barren land. Coal is worked in the southern districts, and the prevailing rocks are whinstone,^a sandstone and limestone. Several lakes are scattered in different directions, and Loch Leven, the largest, may bear a comparison with any other in the lowlands of Scotland. It is situated in the middle and near the capital of the county; it covers an extent of about six square miles, is adorned with several islands, and abounds with different kinds of fish. The largest of the islands is upwards of two acres,^b and it is crowned by the ruins of the castle in which the unfortunate queen Mary was confined. The lake is fed by several rivulets, but only one stream of any size issues from it at the eastern extremity, passes through a considerable part of Fife, and enters the sea at the town of Leven.^c

Kinross rises in a plain at the west end of the lake, on the great road from Edinburgh to Perth; it is styled the capital, and the only town in the county;^d in reality, however, it is little better than a village. A few weavers are employed by the manufacturers of Glasgow, but no branch of industry is conducted on a great scale.^e

The county of Fife is contiguous to the last, and to Perthshire and Clackmannanshire, on the west; the river Tay forms the boundary on the north; it is bathed by the German Ocean on the east, and by the Frith of Forth on the south.^f The mean length of the county from east to west is about thirty-six, and the mean breadth from north to south about fourteen miles,^g so that the surface is equal to five hundred and four square miles. The relative population is upwards of two hundred and fifty-five persons to the square mile.

It is varied in every direction by hill and dale, but the surface in general is by no means lofty, and it has been calculated that about four-fifths of it are fit for cultivation; the remaining portion consists of hills and moors. It is divided into two portions by a high tract, of which the western part is formed by the Lomond hills, and which stretching almost in a direct line eastwards approaches within a few miles of the shore. West Lo-

mond, the highest of these hills, is seventeen hundred and twenty-one feet above the level of the sea; Largo Law on the east is nine hundred and fifty-two, and Kelly Law is eight hundred and ten. The same county is naturally divided into three parts by the Eden and the Leven; the northern extends between the former of these rivers and the Tay, the central lies between the Eden and the Leven, and the southern between the Leven and the Frith of Forth. In the southern part the soil is very fruitful, and consists of a deep rich loam which covers a tract about three miles in breadth. In the central division a cold and sterile clay, resting mostly on sandstone, stretches to the heights on the south of the Eden. But along both the banks of the same river is situated the *How of Fife*, or the rich valley of Stratheden. A continuation of the Ochils separates this valley from the Tay, but the soil is in many places fertile, and often deeper on the acclivities than at their base. It thus appears that the most fruitful lands are situated on the confines, while the bleak or barren parts, the moors and mosses, are chiefly confined to the central districts. It was formerly said by James the Sixth, that Fife resembled a *gray cloth mantle with a golden fringe*, and the simile is not inapplicable to it at the present day.^h

The southern division of Fifeshire from the Forth almost to the Eden, abounds in coal, and every kind common to Scotland is found in that part of the country. The strata incline to the east and south-east, and do not extend more than two or three miles from the shore.ⁱ Thus, coal occurs in this district and along the coast line from west to east in the parishes of Torryburn, Abbots-hall, Kirkaldy, Dysart, Wemyss, Scoonie, Largo and Pittenweem. The works in Dysart are very extensive, and one of the beds, eighteen feet thick, is said to have been worked more than three hundred years ago.^k On the north of this tract, the coal and the strata that accompany it, incline commonly to the north or north-east, and the largest collieries are situated in the parishes of Dunfermline, Dalgety, Auchterderran and Leslie. Lastly, from the vale of Eden northwards to the Tay, there is no appearance of coal or the concomitant

known by the name of Ross, or the peninsula, and hence Culross [in the detached portion of Perthshire on the Forth] signified the lower [back] part of the peninsula [Gaelic, *cul*, backside,] Kinross the head of the peninsula [Gaelic, *ceann*, head,] and Muckross, now Fifeness, the snout of the peninsula, or the latter may have been so called from the number of wild boars [Gaelic, *muc*, a boar] that infested it." (Art. Fifeshire.)—Kinross-shire was not separated from Fifeshire until 1426. (Ed. Enc.)—The whole peninsula between the Forth and the Tay formerly went under the general name of Ross. (Stat. Acc.)—This Gaelic name, *Ross*, is frequently applied to peninsulas in Scotland. Thus, the county of Ross, so called from the two peninsulas on its eastern coast, on the north and south of the Firth of Cromarty; Montrose, the fenny peninsula (Gaelic, *Moinross*, from *moin*, a fen or morass, and *ross*): Roseneath, a peninsula on the Clyde in Dumbar-tonshire—Gaelic, *Rossnachoch* (*Ross-na-h-oighe*,) peninsula of the virgin (*oighe*).—P.

^a Greenstone or trap.—This forms the summit rock on the hills, both of the Ochils on the north, and of those of the coal formation on the south. Sandstone is the underlying rock of the whole county. The limestone accompanies the coal.—P.

^b The largest island (St. Serf's Isle, or the Inch) is generally said to contain 45 acres (23.44 acres. Ed. Enc.) Castle Island contains about two acres.—P.

^c It would be singular if more than one stream of any size issued from it. Its outlet is the river Leven.—P.

^d Kinross is the county town, and the seat of the sheriff courts and other public meetings.—P.

^e Population in 1811, 2214. It was formerly celebrated for its manufacture of cutlery, and in the latter part of the last century was ex-

tensively engaged in the manufacture of coarse linens, called Silesias; the quantity stamped averaging annually, from 1780 to 1790 inclusive, 118,434 yards, at the value of L.4441. (Stat. Acc. vi. 169.)—P.

^f Following the western boundary from the Tay on the north, Fifeshire is first bounded in that direction by Perthshire (W.); then by Kinross-shire (S. W., W., N. W. and N.); then by Fos-away parish, in Perthshire (N.); then for a short distance by Clackmannanshire (W. and S. W.); and lastly, by Culross, in the detached portion of Perthshire (W.) The Firth of Forth is generally considered as extending along its south and south-eastern coast to Fifeness, whence the coast extends north-west by St. Andrews to the mouth of the Eden, and then north to the mouth of the Tay.—P.

^g Its greatest breadth is about 19 miles from north to south, and its greatest length about 48 miles, from Fifeness on the east, to the borders of Clackmannanshire on the west. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^h This remark was made in allusion to the close line of boroughs along the southern coast, compared with the moors in the interior of the county.—P.

ⁱ This must refer to the strata on the coast, particularly in the neighbourhood of Dysart.—P.

^k There are 14 beds of coal on the Sinclair estate, in Dysart parish. Three of the thickest, which are contiguous, are now working. The upper is 5 feet thick, separated from the second, by a stratum of 18 inches thick (thin coal and till or slate); the second, 8 feet thick, and underneath it, a stratum of stone 2 feet 3 inches thick; the lower, 5 feet thick; so that the whole thickness of workable coal is 18 feet. The coal is now worked at the depth of 60 fathoms. Dysart coal was among the first wrought in Scotland, having been begun 300 years ago. (Stat. Acc. xii. A. D. 1794.)—P.

minerals. Limestone abounds in the same part of Fifeshire that is so rich in coal,^a and it may be sufficient to remark that the lime works at Charlestown on the Forth^b are the most extensive of any in Scotland. More than a hundred thousand tons are annually raised from them; they are partly sold as they are taken from the quarry, and 12,000 tons of coal are consumed every year in calcining the remainder.^c Such are the most important mineral substances; some of the others are ironstone, lead, and clay well adapted for fire bricks.

The civil divisions of Fifeshire are the districts of St. Andrews, Cupar, Kirkaldy and Dunfermline. Cupar is entitled the capital, but it is by no means the most populous or the most industrious town in the county. It is situated at the junction of the St. Mary, a small stream, with the Eden; it consists of three or four streets, several detached houses and many lanes. The manufacture of linen is the most important branch of industry, and more than 500,000 yards have been stamped in a year.^d The other articles made in the same place are soap, candles, leather, cordage, bricks and tiles. Although remarkable for its antiquity, few ancient monuments remain, and no part of the castle in which the thanes of Fife held their courts can be discovered.^e The hill on which it stood, is still styled the Play-field of Cupar, and the satire of the Three Estates, one of the oldest Scottish dramas, was acted on it in 1535.^f

At no great distance from the mouth of the Tay, and about twelve miles to the east of Cupar, is situated the ancient city of St. Andrews. It was erected into the capital of a diocese at the intercession of James the Third by Pope Sixtus the Fourth in the year 1441,^g and it possessed, during a long period, the distinction of being the metropolitan see of the kingdom. The cathedral, once its great ornament, is now in ruins; to build it was the labour of a century and a half; it was destroyed in a single day by the zeal of the reformers.^h The remains

^a In the range of the Ochils, limestone is found only at one place, near Newburgh. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b In Dunfermline parish.—P.

^c The following statements are contained in Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. vol. xiii. p. 468. "From 80,000 to 90,000 tons of limestone are quarried annually. It is partly manufactured into lime at the works, and partly sold in the unburnt stone. About 12,000 tons of coal are annually consumed in burning the lime." This was in 1793—4. Has there been no increase since then?—P.

^d About 500,000 yards of linen are annually stamped at Cupar. (Stat. Acc. 1796.)—P.

^e It was long the residence of the Earls of Fife, and afterwards became a national fortress. (Stat. Acc.)—The Thanes of Fife, from the earliest times of which any account has been transmitted to us, held their courts of justice at Cupar. (Gaz. Scot.)—P.

^f The place, where, during the middle ages, the theatrical representations, called *mysterics* and *moralities*, were presented, was styled the *Playfield*. Arnot, in his Hist. of Edinburgh, says, "that of Cupar in Fife was on the Castle-hill." (Stat. Acc. xvii.)—In 1555, the esplanade in front of the castle was appropriated for the performance *sub dio* of Sir David Lindsay's Satire of the Three Estates, a witty drama, principally levelled at the clergy, and supposed to have had great influence in bringing about the religious revolution, which soon after ensued. (Chambers' Pict. of Scot. ii. 178.)—The same date (1555) is given in the Stat. Acc., in which the Proclamation is inserted. The first outbreak of the Reformation at Perth was in 1559. Sir D. Lindsay is said to have written the Three Estates before 1536. (Gorton.) His estate, called the Mount, was in the neighbourhood of Cupar.—P.

^g St. Andrews was the see of a bishop in the time of the Picts, at least in the 9th century. It was erected into an archbishopric by Sixtus IV. at the request of James III. during the incumbency of Patrick Graham. This could not have been in 1441. James III was born in 1452. Patrick Graham finished the monastery of the Observantines in 1478. Sixtus IV. became pope in 1471.—P.

^h It was begun in 1159, and finished in 1318, and was thus 159 years

are part of the south side, of the east and west ends, and the chapel of St. Regulus, of which the body and great tower are still standing.ⁱ The ancient castle, like the cathedral, has now fallen into decay, but it is remembered as the scene of many a struggle and many an act of injustice. It may be sufficient to add that Cardinal Beaton beheld from one of its windows the execution of the reformer Wishart, whom he had unjustly condemned to death, and before the same window the body of the cardinal himself was exposed immediately after his assassination. The principal church, which is sufficiently large to hold between two and three thousand people, contains the monument of Archbishop Sharpe, who was murdered near the town by the covenanters,^k an event which is still recorded by rude sculptures on the walls.^l The university of St. Andrews, the oldest in Scotland, consisted originally of three colleges, St. Salvator's, St. Leonard's, and St. Mary's; but the second has been dissolved, and the first is set apart for the students of divinity.^m The number of students seldom exceeds three hundred, and the university has been long known abroad on account of the facility with which it confers degrees. The same town carried on formerly a considerable trade, and it possessed in the time of Charles the First from thirty to forty vessels. It is now nowise remarkable for commerce or industry.

Kirkaldy,ⁿ like St. Andrews, is the chief town of a district; it is situated on the Frith of Forth about thirteen miles to the north-east of Edinburgh. It consisted formerly of several lanes, communicating with a very long, narrow and irregular street, but of late years improvements have been made, and new streets and modern houses have been erected.^o The town, once a place of much more consequence than at present, was a port of some importance so early as the fourteenth century, when it was made over as a burgh of regality to the abbot of Dunfermline by David the Second.^p It was afterwards raised to the rank of a royal

in building. It was destroyed in a single afternoon (June 1559) by a mob, after having been excited by a sermon of John Knox against idolatry.—P.

ⁱ The only remains of the cathedral are part of the east and west ends, and of the south side. (Ed. Enc.)—Both towers at the east end are still standing. One only of the western towers now remains, and a part of the west end of the outermost south wall. (Stat. Acc.)—The chapel of St. Regulus (St. Rule's chapel,) though near the cathedral, was not a part of that edifice. It is said to have been erected by Hergust, king of the Picts, for St. Regulus, a Greek monk, who landed at St. Andrews, A. D. 370. The walls of the chapel, and its square tower, still remain. The latter is in fine preservation. Its low semicircular arches, and general style of architecture, indicate a great antiquity.—P.

^k On Magus moor, three miles west of St. Andrews, 1679.—P.

^l The monument is 30 feet high, and contains besides a Latin epitaph, a statue of the archbishop kneeling, and a bass-relief, on an oblong marble slab, representing his murder. (Chambers' Pict. Scot.)—P.

^m St. Mary's was appropriated to the study of theology in 1579, by James VI.; the university having been then remodelled by the celebrated Buchanan. It is therefore called the Divinity or New College. In 1747, on a petition from the masters of St. Salvator's and St. Leonard's, these two colleges were united by parliament into one society, called the United College of St. Salvator's and St. Leonard's. (Stat. Acc.)—P.

ⁿ Kirkaldy, i. e. Kirk-Keldei, church of the Culdees.—P.

^o Kirkaldy, including Pathhead on the east, in Dysart parish, and Linktown on the west, in Abbotshall parish, all of which form one continuous street, is about three miles in length.* The extremities of this street are narrow, tortuous and ill-built, but in the middle it expands to a noble breadth, and is almost perfectly straight, with tall and elegant houses. (Chambers.)—P.

* From this circumstance, it is familiarly called "the Lang Toun o' Kirkaldy."

P. A. D. 1334.—P.

burgh,^a and important privileges and immunities were conferred on it. About a hundred vessels belonged to Kirkaldy during the reign of Charles the First, and evidence is not wanting to shew that it was then more populous than at present. The period of the civil war was the commencement of its decline, and the inhabitants suffered so much in consequence of their exertions in behalf of the Parliament, that it was deemed necessary in 1682 to present a petition for relief to the convention of royal burghs. Its commerce, however, has revived since the middle of the last century, and it now possesses about eighty vessels, the burden of which amounts to 7000 tons. Its spinning-mills, linen manufactories and tanneries, a foundery, and a large distillery, afford employment to the poorer inhabitants. It may be added that the town was the birth-place of Adam Smith, the author of the *Wealth of Nations*, and the first person who raised political economy to the rank of a science.

Dunfermline, the only other place that requires to be mentioned, and the most important manufacturing town in the county, is situated about fourteen miles to the west of Kirkaldy, and more than four to the north of the Frith of Forth.^b The principal manufacture, and the one in which nearly 1800 looms are employed, consists of diaper and damask table linen; the cotton manufacture, which is now increasing, was introduced at a later period, in consequence of the demand for such articles by the manufacturers of Glasgow and Paisley. The same place is memorable on account of its remains of royal and ecclesiastical magnificence; the sites of two palaces have been discovered by antiquaries,^c and the ancient monastery is now in ruins. The last building founded by Malcolm the Third, was much injured by Edward the First, who quartered his troops in it during winter,^d and was finally desecrated at the Reformation.^e The part occupied by the chancel and transepts was lately transformed into a Gothic church,^f which accords ill with the Saxon character still visible in the ruins.^g While the workmen were occupied in building the church, the tomb and the remains of King Robert Bruce were discovered.

“*Oppidulis præcingitur*”^h are the terms used by Buchanan in reference to the numerous small towns on the northern shore of the Frith of Forth. These places are now fallen into decay, but they derived their former importance from the advantages of commerce, to which the inhabitants had devoted themselves at a time when it was almost unknown in most parts of Scotland.

^a In 1450, the commendator of the abbey, and the convent, disposed of the burgh and harbour, with all their rights and privileges, to the bailies and community of Kirkaldy, soon after which it was erected into a royal burgh. (Stat. Acc.)—P.

^b About 3 miles north of the Frith of Forth at Queensferry. (Ed. Enc.)—This is the general statement.—P.

^c The tower or castle of Malcolm III. (Canmore,) and a little S. E. of it, a palace of later construction, in which James VI. resided. Only a few fragments of these buildings remain.—P.

^d A. D. 1303.—P.

^e The Abbey of Dunfermline was founded for the Benedictines in the 11th century, by Malcolm Canmore (Gaelic, *ceann-mor*, great head.) Edward I. destroyed all but the church and a few cells for the monks. At the reformation, these cells, and the choir and transepts of the church, were demolished, leaving only the nave, which was used as the parish church till 1818, when the choir and transepts were restored, and the edifice thus completed. The nave, however, is of heavy Saxon architecture, while the new structure appended to it, is of light Gothic. (Chambers.)—P.

^f In 1818.—P.

The county of Forfar or Angusⁱ is separated from Fife by the Frith of Tay; its boundaries are Aberdeenshire and Kincardineshire on the north, the German Ocean on the east, the Frith of Tay on the south, and Perthshire on the west. The superficial extent, according to the lowest computation, is upwards of 840 miles, and the population by the last census amounts to 139,606 individuals.

It may here be remarked that what is popularly termed the east coast of Scotland comprehends that part of the country between the friths of Tay and Moray; it forms a sort of large plain, which descends from the Grampians to the sea, and includes the counties of Forfar, Kincardine and Aberdeen. The northern division, or more than a third part of Forfarshire, is covered by the Grampians; but the heights are not bold or precipitous, their summits are generally rounded, and Catlaw, the loftiest in the county, is not more than 2264 feet above the level of the sea.^k The same hills are covered with a thin stratum of moorish soil bearing heath and coarse herbage. They are intersected by small vallies, watered by rivulets that are enlarged in their course towards the south-east by streams or torrents from the heights.^l The Sidlaw hills, a parallel and a lower range, situated on the south of the Grampians, attain in some places an elevation of fourteen hundred feet.

Strathmore, or the Great Valley, as its name signifies in Gaelic,^m is situated between these two divisions, reaching in length a distance of thirty-three miles,ⁿ with a breadth varying from four to six. This part of it is commonly called the How of Angus, but the whole of Strathmore stretches from Stonehaven to Perth, and is prolonged by the vale or strath of the Earn, a distance of about 112 miles.^o If lime for manure, and coal for fuel were more abundant in this tract, it might become equally important as an agricultural and manufacturing district. The How of Angus, the most fruitful division of the county, is diversified by corn fields, plantations and villages, and no part of it is much higher than 200 feet above the level of the sea. It has been at different times proposed to carry a canal through the district, and to prolong it to Dumbarton, and thus to unite the three great rivers of Scotland, the Forth, the Tay and the Clyde. This enterprise, too vast for the means of the proprietors, is not likely to be realized without the assistance of government. The fourth and the last division extends from the Sidlaw hills to the German Ocean on the east, and the Frith of Tay on the south

^g In the nave.—P.

^h It is girt by a belt of little towns.

ⁱ Forfarshire or Angus-shire.

^k The Braes of Angus [Grampians] in some places possess an elevation of nearly 3000 feet. (Ed. Enc.)—Catlaw is on the northern border of the parish of Kingoldrum, and near the southern skirt of the Grampians.—P.

^l The principal rivers of the county rise in the Grampians, viz. the North and South Esk, which flow south-east into the German Sea, and the Isla, which flows west into the Tay. In their descent from the mountains, they receive numerous branches.—P.

^m The Gaelic term *Strath* is applied to a wide, open valley, and that of *Glen* to a deep and narrow one.—P.

ⁿ This only includes that part of the valley within the county.—P.

^o The distance from Stonehaven to Perth, by the post-road through the strath, is 67 miles; from Perth to Stirling, 38 miles. (Gaz. Scot. Roads.)—The distance from Stonehaven to Stirling is thus 105 miles. The writer probably intends to include in this distance of 112 miles the whole length of the valley from Dumbarton to Stonehaven.—P.

The principal towns are situated in this part of Forfarshire, which occupies nearly a fourth part of the county, and is on the whole fruitful and well cultivated.

Granite, micaceous schistus and porphyry are the most common minerals in the Grampian district. The Sidlaw hills are chiefly composed of sandstone of different colours, and in some places, susceptible of a high polish. Shell marl, which is much used, abounds in different parts, particularly in the lochs near the base of the Grampians, on the Sidlaw hills, in the parish of Kirriemuir, and in the neighbourhood of Forfar.^a The most important lime-works are in the maritime division, at Hedderwick near Montrose,^b and in the parish of Craig on the sea-shore.^c

None of the streams can be dignified with the name of rivers. The North Esk issues from Lochlee, flows eastwards, and then bends towards the south-east, when it forms the boundary between the county and Kincardineshire, and falls into the sea about three miles to the north-east of Montrose. The South Esk rises from the Grampians in the north-western part of the county, waters Brechin, and discharges itself into the basin of Montrose, about five miles from the mouth of the North Esk.^d

The five royal burghs of Forfar, Dundee, Arbroath, Montrose and Brechin are situated in the county of Forfar. Dundee, the most important of any, occupies the site of the ancient *Alectum*, and according to tradition, it was called *Donum-Dei* in 1189, by the Earl of Huntingdon, in gratitude for his miraculous escape from shipwreck on his return from the third crusade. The town is situated on the northern bank of the Tay, about twelve miles from its mouth. It contained a population of 30,575 souls in 1820,^e and the number amounts at present to nearly 40,000. Public buildings, warehouses, and whole streets, consisting of new houses, are the proofs of its modern prosperity. It possessed upwards of 170 vessels in 1820, measuring nearly 18,000 tons; they are employed in the foreign and coasting trade, and in the Greenland fisheries. The docks are left dry at low water, and the port is not free from inconvenience. The mouth of the frith is comparatively narrow, and the tide at its entrance rushes with considerable force, and carries along with it a great quantity of sand. But as the channel becomes broader, the velocity of the

^a Shell marl is found in great abundance in the bottoms of lochs and mosses, in that part of Strathmore, extending west from Aberlemno. It is found in Balrie moss in Airley parish, and in the Loch of Kinnordy and the moss of Logie in Kirriemuir parish, all of which are near the base of the Grampians; also in the moss of Meigle along the south of the Dean, but most abundantly in a chain of small lakes near Forfar, viz. the Loch of Forfar, which flows into the Dean, and the Lochs of Restenet, Rescobie and Balcavies, which flow into the Lunan. The Dean flows west into the Isla, a branch of the Tay, and the Lunan into the sea south of Montrose, thus showing the great uniformity of level in Strathmore. The two first of these lochs had been drained (1791,) and the marl was obtained from the others by dragging. (Stat. Acc.)—P.

^b In the parish of Montrose. This lime-work is not mentioned in the Stat. Acc.—In 1793, there were extensive lime-works in the parish of Pert, on the North Esk, near its mouth. (Stat. Acc.)—P.

^c At Boddan, on a small point on the north side of the bay of Lunan.—P.

^d The South Esk, about two miles from its mouth, expands into the basin of Montrose, and contracting opposite the town of Montrose, enters the sea about three miles from the mouth of the North Esk.—P.

^e In 1801, 26,084; in 1811, 29,616.—P.

^f C. Dupin, Force Commerciale, vol. ii.

^g The principal channel of the Tay is on the south side, near the

current is diminished, and sand, which was held in suspension, is deposited, and forms large banks or shallows in the neighbourhood of the town. When the tide ebbs, the waters take necessarily a contrary direction, and carry along with them much mud from the upper part of the river. A ballast machine, worked by a steam-engine, is used for clearing the harbour, which otherwise might be obstructed with alternate deposits of sand and mud at every flux and reflux of the tide.^g Two light-houses, built at the expense of the town, have been erected on the sands of Barry; the one consists of stone, and the other of wood; the one is about sixty, and the other about forty feet in height. The light in the latter is shifted so as to correspond with the changes that often occur in the sands, and the mariners, who enter the frith, make it a rule to keep both lights in a line.^h The principal manufactures are osnaburghs or coarse linen, thread, gloves, canvas and cordage.ⁱ As the demand for sail-cloth has been less since the peace, many manufacturers have adopted the expedient of spinning finer thread, which is made into cloth for domestic purposes.

Arbroath or Aberbrothwick^k is, after Dundee, the most commercial town in Angus. It is situated about eighteen miles to the north-east of Dundee, and the inhabitants are engaged in the same sort of industry; they are employed in making sail-cloth and coarse linen; indeed there are upwards of one hundred factories in Forfarshire for spinning and weaving the thread for that purpose. The harbour is built in the form of a rectangle, and is defended from the sea by a wall of hewn stone on the north, and a pier on the south. In this part of the town are the house inhabited by the keepers of the celebrated light-house on the Bell Rock, and the signal tower by which the keepers on shore correspond with those on duty. The Inch Cape or Bell Rock is situated about twelve miles to the south-east of Arbroath, and about thirty to the north-east of St. Abb's Head in Berwickshire. It may be seen from the charts of the coast that it lies in the direct track of the shipping on the Frith of Tay, and of the greater proportion on the Frith of Forth, embracing not only the extensive local trade of many populous counties, but forming the principal inlet on the eastern coast of Britain, in which the shipping on the German Ocean and the North Sea take

shore of Fife. The sand banks, which are numerous between Dundee and Errol on the west, in which distance the river is from two to three miles wide, are on the north side. The shore on that side, along the Carse of Gowrie, consists of light earth, subject to continual encroachment from the river, which thus adds to the obstructions. The harbour was formerly cleared by a basin, left open at low water, and afterwards by opening arched passages in the piers, by which rapid currents were produced, which carried off the sand and mud deposited. (Stat. Acc. viii.)—P.

^h The channel at the entrance of the Tay is about a mile broad, between two sand banks running out from the shores on the north and south. These sands are frequently shifting, from nearly the same causes that vary the bed of the river. The two light houses are erected on the flood mark on the sandy downs or links, at the mouth of the river, in the parish of Barrie. The larger, or stationary light, is a circular stone building erected on piles; the smaller is a moveable wooden building, raised on rollers. This is shifted, when necessary, so that the two lights may be always in the same line with the entrance of the river, and so that when they appear as one, the mariner may be sure of his safety. The expense of the lights is defrayed by a small tonnage duty on all vessels entering the Tay. (Stat. Acc. viii. Malham's Nav. Gaz. ii.)—P.

ⁱ Cotton bagging is extensively manufactured.—P.

^k Aberbrothock, mouth of the Brothock, so called from its situation at the mouth of a small river of that name.—P.

refuge from easterly storms. During the quadratures when the sea does not fall so low at the reflux, the rocks can hardly be distinguished, but in spring tides when the ebbs are greatest, the part visible at low water is 142 yards in length, 70 in breadth, and about 1 feet in height. A chain of rocks still lower and almost contiguous to the last extends to the distance of nearly two miles.^a According to a tradition, which does not appear very probable, a large bell was erected in the fourteenth century by the monks of Arbroath, on the principal rock in this vast reef. Mariners were thus warned of their danger, and the name of the Bell Rock serves still to commemorate the benevolent labour of the monks. The light-house that has lately been erected on the Bell Rock, is an extraordinary monument of its kind, more so in some respects than the celebrated Pharos of Alexandria, the tower of Cordouan^b at the entrance of the Garonne, or the far-famed Eddystone light-house; for independently of its distance from the land, the obstacle arising from the depth of water at which the operations were commenced, was greater than in any other work of the same sort. It was begun in 1807, and finished in 1811.^c The light from it, when the sky is serene, may be distinctly seen at the distance of eight leagues. As the only mode of warning mariners of their danger in dark and cloudy weather, when neither the building nor the lamps can be distinguished, two large bells, each weighing 1324 pounds, are tolled day and night by means of the machinery that sets the reflectors in motion.

Montrose, about twelve miles from Arbroath, is the first port on the north of it. It is situated on a flat and sandy peninsula, formed by the German Ocean, the South Esk, and a large expanse of water, called the Basin. A handsome wooden bridge has lately been erected across the river to the island of Inchbrayrayock, which, together with the stone bridge from the island to the shore, opens a communication on the south. The quay commences beyond the wooden bridge on the side fronting the sea,^d and vessels of three or four hundred tons can reach it at high water. The harbour of Montrose reckons 150 vessels, measuring nearly 13,000 tons; they are chiefly employed in the coasting and Baltic trade, and in the whale fishery. Their number, it may be added, is rapidly increasing, and Montrose is rising in importance. The population amounts to 10,000 inhabitants, and the products of industry are the same as those of Dundee.^e

Brechin and Forfar, the only other towns in the county, are of minor importance; the first claims the

rank of capital, but the sheriff courts are held in the second.^f Brechin is situated about eight miles to the west of Montrose, on the side of a hill, the base of which is washed by the South Esk.^g It is remarkable for its antiquity; it was formerly walled, and some relics of its fortifications may be still discovered.^h It was twice destroyed by fire, once by the Danes in 1012, and a second time by the Marquis of Montrose in 1645. It was erected into an episcopal see by David the First in 1150, and the present parish church occupies the west end of the ancient cathedral.ⁱ

Kincardineshire, or, as it is frequently called, the Mearns, is contiguous to the German Ocean on the east, to the river Dee and Aberdeenshire on the north, and to the county of Forfar on the west and south. It is of a triangular form, and contains 380 square miles, exclusively of three square miles of lakes. According to the last returns, the population amounted to 31,431 individuals; so that the average number to every square mile is upwards of 82, a greater proportion than might have been anticipated from the scarcity of minerals, and the nature of the soil.

More than half the surface is made up of hills and heaths of little value; little more than a fourth part of it is cultivated. A third of the area is covered with the Grampians, which, crossing the whole breadth of the county from east to west, are sterile, rugged, and very thinly inhabited. Hills of five or six hundred feet may be observed within three miles of the coast in this mountainous tract; and at the western extremity of the county, about twenty miles from the sea, Mount Battock, the loftiest in Kincardineshire, rises to the height of 3500 feet.

Lime is by no means abundant, and there is no coal in the county. Native iron has been found in detached pieces in the parish of Fettercairn, where no indications of iron have been discovered. Granite, basalt, puddingstone, and sandstone are the prevailing rocks. The Grampians are mostly composed of the first, which is scattered over the surface, and much of the soil in that part of the county is formed from the decomposition of granite. A very fruitful soil, consisting of decomposed basalt or *rotten rock*, as it is popularly called, extends along the coast on the south of Stonehaven. Puddingstone abounds in the same quarter, and is formed into millstones. Sandstone prevails in the tract along the coast, and also in the How of the Mearns, which is covered with loam of various qualities, none of which are unfruitful.

^a The rock extends from north-east to south-west, in the direction of the sandstone strata, and consists of an upper and lower level. The former measures, at low water of spring tides, 427 feet in length, and 230 in breadth. The lower, on the south-west, which appears only at the ebb of spring tides, and then is not entirely bare, extends 1700 feet in length, making the whole length of the rock, visible at that time, 2127 feet. During spring tides, the higher level is about four feet above water at ebb, and the lower level just visible; while at flood, the higher level is about twelve feet under water. During neap tides, which are six or seven feet less than the spring tides, the higher level is two or three feet under water at ebb. On the south-west, a reef extends under water, so that at the distance of a mile, there is only 4 or 5 fathoms. In other directions, particularly on the south-east, in the direction of the dip of the strata, the depth increases more rapidly, so as to be 3 fathoms at 100 yards, and 18 to 22 fathoms at a mile's distance. (Ed. Enc. Malham's Nav. Gaz.)—P.

^b Tour de Cordouan.—P.

^c The work was begun by Mr. Stevenson, the architect, Aug. 17, 1807, and the light was first exhibited, Feb. 1, 1811.—P.

^d On the side towards the sea. The South Esk enters the sea about two miles below the bridge.—P.

VOL. III.—NO. 60.

^e The principal manufactures are sail-cloth, sheeting and linen. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f Brechin was formerly the county town, and the see of a bishopric. Forfar is at present the county town, where the courts and other public meetings of the county are held. The sheriff courts have been held in Forfar for more than 200 years. (Stat. Acc.)—P.

^g On the north bank of the South Esk, over which there is a stone bridge.—P.

^h It was formerly walled about, and some relics of the ancient gates still remain. (Gaz. Scot.)—Brechin in former times had ports or gates at the different entries of the city. Some vestiges of them are extant, and the names of North, South and West Port still remain. (Stat. Acc. xxi. App.)—P.

ⁱ The chancel (east end) of the cathedral was destroyed at the Reformation, as being defiled by the idolatries of the mass; the nave (west end) was converted into the parish church, and has lately been repaired. At one of its corners rises the steeple, an elegant square tower, 120 feet high. The round tower of Brechin, called the little steeple, stands near the church, and is a remarkable specimen of antiquity; there being only one other structure of the kind in Scotland, a smaller one at Abernethy in Perthshire. The tower of Brechin is 80 feet high, with an octagonal spire of 23 feet—in all 103 feet.—P.

Although the county is watered by numerous streams, the only rivers of any consequence are the North Esk and the Dee;^a the first, it has been remarked, forms the boundary between the county and Angus-shire, and the second, which flows about eight miles through the northern part of Kincardineshire, separates it from Aberdeenshire.^b The Loch of Drum, and the Loch of Leys, are situated on Dee side or in the northern district;^c the latter is remarkable on account of an artificial island, founded on piles of oak, and crowned with the ruins of an edifice concerning which tradition is silent.

The towns and villages are small, and their manufactures are inconsiderable. Stonehaven, Stonehive or Rockharbour is situated on the coast about fourteen miles from Aberdeen. It contains about two thousand inhabitants, who are partly employed in rope-making, and in the manufacture of canvass and osnaburghs. The harbour is well sheltered, and formed by a natural gap between the rocks; but it has not sufficient depth of water. The commerce of the county, besides its trade in sheep and cattle, consists in the import of timber, coal and lime, and the export of grain and fish. The ports by which the trade is carried on are Stonehaven, Johnshaven, and Gourdon. Lastly, the village of Laurencekirk, in the centre of the county, is noted for its wooden snuff-boxes.

The German Ocean washes Aberdeenshire on the north and east; it is contiguous to the counties of Kincardine, Forfar and Perth on the south, and to those of Inverness, Moray and Banff on the west. The greatest length is about eighty-five miles, and the greatest breadth nearly forty; the boundary line is upwards of 280 miles, and of these sixty extend along the coast. The area of the county is not less than 1960 square miles, or nearly a sixteenth part of Scotland. The total population, by the last returns, amounts to 177,651 individuals.

It is made up of five divisions.^d Marr comprehends the district between the Dee and the Don, and a considerable tract on the south of the Dee. It is the loftiest part of Aberdeenshire; few of the bounding lines are lower than 3000, and some of them are higher than 4000 feet above the level of the sea. Formartin, or the second division, includes in a distance of ten miles all the lands between the Don and the Ythan, and extends beyond the last river to the banks of the Deveron.^e The land on the coast is low and fruitful; but beyond it, and at no great distance from the sea, hills and mosses are spread over the country. Buchan, after Marr, the largest division in Aberdeenshire, extends along the eastern coast, and a considerable portion of it has been

improved and rendered productive by labour. Several fruitful vallies are scattered over Garioch, or the district surrounded by Marr, Formartin and Strathbogie. Strathbogie, or the last division, about 150 square miles in extent, derives its name from that of the river which waters it, and consists mostly of hills, mosses and moors. Although the eastern coast is flat, Aberdeenshire, it has been seen, is a high country, and in the south-western or largest division, some of the heights are little inferior to any in Scotland.

Of the numerous straths or vallies in different parts of the county, several are comparatively large and fruitful; but although Aberdeenshire has participated in the improvements of modern husbandry, and although the best rotations are now followed, the wealth of the farmer consists in his cattle, not in his corn. The number of oxen is supposed to be about 120,000, and the sales in England and the south of Scotland, amounting to more than 12,000, are estimated to bring L.150,000 annually.

The fishings on the coasts and rivers, together with the Greenland whale fishery, which has been lately much extended, form an important branch of trade, of which the revenue is not less than L.80,000 or L.100,000.

The minerals are not the most valuable; no coal has been discovered, and limestone is not obtained in sufficient quantities. The mountains of Braemar are famed for their precious stones or *cairngorums*,^f which are sought by the country-people in the summer season, and sold to the London jewellers. Manganese is found near Aberdeen, and black-lead in the neighbourhood of Huntly. Granite, however, is the most valuable as well as the most abundant mineral; and in preparing the land for tillage, granite stones, amounting in value to L.40 or L.50, are sometimes collected from an acre, and shipped to London, where they are used in paving the streets. The total quantity exported from the county yields a yearly revenue of more than L.40,000, and seventy vessels of 7000 tons, and manned by 4000 sailors, are employed in transporting it to England.

The Dee and the Don, the principal rivers, receive the waters of a great many tributary streams, and empty themselves into the sea at no great distance from each other. Old Aberdeen is situated on the Don; the modern town, or New Aberdeen, on the Dee; they are little more than a mile distant from each other, and their united population is upwards of 50,000 souls. The churches, some of which were almost destroyed by the reformers, and King's college, which was formerly under the direction of the celebrated Boetius,^g are situated in

^a The only other river of importance is the Bervie Water. It rises in the Grampians in the northern part of Glenbervie, then flows south across the How, and passing through the trap range along the coast, by a pleasant valley, enters the sea at the town of Inverbervie.—P.

^b The Dee rises at the head of Braemar, and after flowing east in Aberdeenshire, about 53 miles, crosses a projection of Kincardineshire on the north for eight miles, and then forms the boundary between the two counties for fourteen miles, till it enters the sea below Aberdeen. Its course is nearly due east for 75 miles. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c These two lochs are each about three miles in circumference, and are situated on the north side of the Dee, with which they communicate, in a tract of low grounds and mosses, running parallel to the river, at one or two miles distance, and in the parish of Banchoory Tarnan, which includes that part of the county, north of the Dec.—P.

^d The divisions, here mentioned, are ancient.—Aberdeenshire is at present divided into eight civil divisions viz. the districts of Kincar-

dine O'Neil (in the south-west,) Garioch, Alford (on the upper part of the Don,) Strathbogie, Turrell (in the north-west,) Deer (in the north-east,) Ellon (in the east,) and Aberdeen (in the south-east.) (Gaz. Scot.)—That part of the county, in the neighbourhood of the town of Aberdeen, is sometimes called Aberdeen Proper; but Aberdeen was properly in Mar.—P.

^e Formartin lies on the east coast, between the rivers Don and Ythan, and stretches across the whole county, from S. E. to N. W., at an average breadth of about ten miles, till it reaches the Deveron. (Sinclair's Gen. Rep.)—P.

^f *Cairngorm* stones, so called from the mountain of Cairngorm (blue mountain.) They are properly rock crystals, (brown and yellow,) topazes (blue, white and brown) and beryls; the latter rare, the others abundant. The yellow rock crystals have been called topazes; other specimens, emeralds and amethysts.—P.

^g Hector Boece or Boies (Boethius,) a native of Dundee—first principal of King's College.—P.

Old Aberdeen.^a The town was erected into a bishopric or city in the year 1153 by the translation of the episcopal see of Mortlach in Banffshire, and the college was endowed more than three hundred years afterwards by Bishop Elphinstone.^b The library, which contains about 15,000 volumes, is entitled to a copy of every work entered in stationers' hall. Marischal college, which is situated in the new town, was founded in 1593 by George, Earl Marischal of Scotland. The buildings, which occupy a considerable area, are very irregular, in consequence of having been erected at different periods. The observatory, which was lately built, commands an extensive view of the horizon; and the cabinet of natural philosophy belonging to the college, is considered one of the finest in Scotland. It must be observed, however, that the number of young men attending the two colleges, is much less than might have been expected from the eminence or zeal of the professors, the system of tuition and the advantages afforded to the students.

New Aberdeen is in a far more flourishing condition than the old town. It is spacious and well built, and the stranger observes everywhere the signs of extension and improvement.^c The principal streets are adorned with fountains; and the bridges, edifices and houses are mostly built of granite.^d The cause of so much prosperity must be attributed to the commerce and industry of the inhabitants.^e The entrance into the Don, below Old Aberdeen, is almost closed by a bank, which affords only a passage for small boats. This obstruction has occasioned the gradual migration of the citizens from the old to the new town on the banks of the Dee; and even there the harbour was long rendered difficult of access by the sand and alluvial deposits of the river,^f an inconvenience which is now removed. A mole on the left bank of the river, extending in the direction of N. N. E., and originally built by Mr. Smeaton, has been lengthened nearly 300 yards; its breadth, at the summit, is six yards, and its total length 492. A light-house on the mole, shows the entrance into the harbour; and a break-water has been constructed on the opposite bank of the river. But notwithstanding these works, vessels, when the winds are contrary, are often liable to run

^a The construction requires it to be understood, that the churches, or at least those, some of which were almost destroyed by the reformers, are situated in Old Aberdeen. In Old Aberdeen, before the Reformation, was a large cathedral, dedicated to St. Machar, of which there remains only the aisle (converted into the parish church of Old Machar, the parish including the burgh of Old Aberdeen.) In New Aberdeen, there were at the same period, besides the ancient parish church of St. Nicholas (rebuilt about 1750,) four chapels, two of which were occupied in 1797, as places of worship, and five monasteries. (Stat. Acc.) In 1830, there were twenty-six places of worship, of all denominations, in Aberdeen (nearly all in New Aberdeen.) (Chambers.)—P.

^b The college was founded by Bishop Elphinstone in 1505. The bull of institution was issued by Pope Alexander VI. in 1494. The charter was granted by James IV. in 1497.—P.

^c The expenses attending the various public improvements have been such as to create a deficiency in the burgh funds, of not less than L.4000 per annum, and eventually to place its whole property in the hands of trustees. (Bell's Geog. iii. 213.)—P.

^d Immense quantities of granite and sienite are quarried in the neighbourhood of Aberdeen.—In 1821, there were exported 41,000 tons of stone, the value of which was upwards of L.40,000. (Bell. Idem.)—P.

^e New Aberdeen is extensively engaged in manufactures. These consist chiefly of linen, woollen and cotton—also hosiery and carpeting; coarse yarn spun by machinery, partly exported, and partly worked into canvass and sheeting—also iron founderies, and several large breweries. (Bell. Idem.)—The manufacture of knit woollen stockings was formerly the most important in Aberdeen. The wool was chiefly imported by the Aberdeen merchants from England, and after having

ashore, so much is the neighbouring coast exposed to the waves of the North Sea, and to the current of the Dee, which runs to the south. An extensive quay has been erected above the mole, and it is partly lined with large buildings for the preparation of train oil; beyond the same quay are situated the downs, which command the beach between the two Aberdeens.

Aberdeen holds a high rank among the industrious towns in Scotland; its principal manufactures consist of cotton, linen and woollen goods; one of the largest flax manufactories in the country has been established on the Don, and the manufacture of cotton affords employment to more than a thousand inhabitants. Three hundred and fifty vessels, of 400,000 tons, belong to the port, and they are employed in the different fisheries, and in the foreign and coasting trade. Lastly, a navigable canal, eighteen miles in length, passes from Aberdeen to Inverury,^g and the products of the country in the neighbourhood are thus conveyed to the town.

No towns of any importance are situated in the interior of the county.^h If we continue our journey northwards from Aberdeen, along the coast, we pass the village of Newburgh, at the mouth of the Ythan, a river formerly celebrated on account of its pearl fisheries.ⁱ Peterhead, the most easterly point of Scotland, is situated to the north-north-east of the last place. The town contains nearly 7000 inhabitants, and is built on the edge of an extensive bay, which affords good anchorage to ships of all sizes. Besides the old harbour on the south, a new one has been erected on the north, so that, whatever be the direction of the wind, vessels can now enter Peterhead. The governors of the Merchant Maiden Hospital in Edinburgh, are the trustees of the harbour, and they have expended L.15,000 on these works. The commissioners of public roads in the Highlands, have applied a like sum for the same purpose, from the funds placed at their disposal by parliament. Cape Kinnaird^k is situated to the north-west of Peterhead, and the harbour of Fraserburgh has been built at its base. The townsmen subscribed L.5620 for the repairs of the harbour, and an equal sum was granted by the road commissioners. The jetty has in con-

been prepared, was distributed by agents, throughout the north-eastern counties, particularly Aberdeenshire and the adjoining part of the Mearns. The stockings were knit by hand, by the women, children and aged persons, and were returned by the same agents to Aberdeen, where the trade centred. In 1797, not less than 30,000 persons were occasionally employed in spinning and knitting, and the amount annually exported was estimated at L.103,000. (Stat. Acc.) L.183,000. (Gaz. Scot. 1803.)—P.

^f By a bar of sand, which was perpetually shifting its situation. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g The canal commences in the harbour of Aberdeen, and crossing to the valley of the Don, proceeds up that river to Inverury, an ancient royal burgh, at the confluence of the Don and the Ury. The rise is 169 feet by 17 locks, 15 of which are near Aberdeen. It might be extended 12 miles farther on a level. (Ed. Enc.)—It was originally proposed to continue it up the Don to Monymusk, with a branch up the Ury, through Garioch, to Inch. (Stat. Acc.)—P.

^h The only other royal burghs in the county, besides Aberdeen, are situated near each other, on the Don, viz. Kintore, on the south bank of the river, and Inverury, a little above, on a point of land at the confluence of the Don and Ury. They are decayed places, of little importance.—P.

ⁱ The Ythan is chiefly noted for the large pearls, which its muscles produce, some of which have been sold as high as L.3 sterling. (Gaz. Scot.)—P.

^k Kinnaird's Head—an elevated promontory, at the north-eastern point of Aberdeenshire. A light-house is erected on it. Fraserburgh is situated on the south side.—P.

sequence been prolonged to the distance of 146 yards from low water mark; and so much advantage has resulted from this improvement, that additional subscriptions have been levied among the inhabitants, to complete the harbour, which is now one of the safest and the best on the eastern coast.

Almost all the country through which we have travelled, and which extends from the Solway Frith to the Grampians, has been denominated the Lowlands of Scotland. The remaining portion, or the Highlands, is widely different. The inhabitants wear a different dress; they speak a different language; they are of a different origin. The government of petty chiefs, and the evils of the feudal system, a system long established and abolished at a comparatively recent period, have had their influence on the character of the people, and the Highlander is not perhaps less distinguished by cunning and servility, than he confessedly is by courage. The latter is the virtue of a military vassal, and the former arose necessarily in a small community, of which the different members held small portions of land at the will of a barbarous chief, who exercised almost despotic authority over their property and their lives. Commerce, and every sort of industry, except that of raising a scanty subsistence from the ground, or from rearing cattle, were almost unknown in the period of which we speak, and if bleakness and sterility are not less characteristic of the Highlands than "the mountain and the flood," it is not wonderful that the inferior condition of the people is evinced in their miserable cottages, or rather hovels, in their wretched clothing, and still more wretched food, and in the absence of comforts, in which the lower classes throughout other parts of Scotland participate. All the causes by which civilization has been retarded, no longer exist, but the effects of those causes are still apparent, and there is reason to believe that the best means have not hitherto been employed for so desirable an end as the moral and intellectual improvement of the inhabitants. The subject may be afterwards more fully examined, but it may be remarked that a hundred years have not yet elapsed since the tyranny of petty chiefs was at its height, or since the great bulwarks of English liberty afforded no protection in the Highlands against "the speedy course of feudal justice." Many traces of the state of society under such a system^a are still conspicuous, and a long period may pass away ere they are wholly effaced. It was the object of every proprietor to divide his lands into as many small farms as possible, a custom by which the number of his retainers was increased, and which was rendered necessary by the manner of life, the habits and inclinations of the people. The farms were thus

^a Previous to 1745, or before the abolition of heritable jurisdictions.—P.

^b A tenure formerly prevailed very generally in Scotland, called in the Lowlands, *run-rig*, or *rig and reunit*, by which a large farm or town was held in common by a number of tenants, who divided the arable land into narrow ridges or small portions, which were so allotted that their individual possessions were intermingled, and these, too, were alternated from year to year. This tenure was particularly prevalent in those parts of the country exposed to military or predatory incursions, as on the English and Highland borders. This practice even continued in some parts, till the close of the last century. (Stat. Acc.)—P.

^c Gaelic (Scotch and Irish) *baile* (plu. *baillte*), a town or city—also a manor or township. (Manks, *balley*, plu. *baljyn*.) This word is the

possessed by joint tenants,^b of which the number was regulated by the quantity of food that could be raised from the land. The larger farms occupied a portion of a valley to which many miles of mountain pasture were annexed; they formed so many hamlets or petty townships, which the inhabitants called *baillé*,^c and which are known in the low country dialect by the name of *touns*. The rate at which the lands were let was very moderate, and the wealth of a chief was not estimated by the rental, but by the number of his tenants; they were his soldiers in war; he associated with them, or lived in indolence, during peace.

There were besides other tenants, who were denominated tacksmen, and they formed an intermediate class between the chief and the ordinary tenantry. They were little different from the ordinary landowners; they were the officers, who, under the chief, commanded the soldiers in war, and they traced their origin to some ancient or celebrated warrior, who had made over a portion of his land as a provision to the younger branch of his family. Part of their farm was sufficient to supply their wants, and the rest was divided among a number of subtenants or cotters, who were bound to perform a certain quantity of labour, as rent for their land. Cotters were likewise settled as labourers on the farms of the small tenants, and they had generally a share in the stock of cattle, which formed a joint property. A few individuals exercised the most common trades; there were some blacksmiths, weavers, tailors and shoemakers, and a portion of land was assigned to them by one or other of the tenants. Thus, every man in the Highlands had a certain quantity of ground; there was no such person as an independent labourer or artisan,^d for whatever his calling might be, that of a husbandman was united, and his subsistence with that of his family was derived from the soil. The produce of the land was consumed on the spot; there was no separation of employment, much less any thing like a division of labour. While the vast and complicated system of commerce and production was pervading other parts of the island, it was cut off from the Highlands by the same mountains that served as barriers against law and justice.

Many advantages, however, resulted from the unsuccessful rebellion in 1745; and the measures which were afterwards adopted, while they were necessary for the subjugation, were not less so for the civilization, of the Highlands. The country was disarmed, a force sufficient to command it was stationed at the principal passes, it was intersected for the first time by roads, it became subject to the same laws as the rest of Scotland, and all the benefits of regular government were gradually obtained. But it seldom happens that a sudden change takes place from imperfect civil

prefix to the many names of places in Scotland and Ireland, beginning with *bal* (Scotland) and *balli* or *bally* (Ireland.) Dublin was called by the native Irish, *Bally-lean-cleath*, the town of the harbour of hurdles.—*Baile* is not written with an accent in Gaelic, but is pronounced as two syllables.—The *baile* of the Gaels corresponds with the *tre* or *treo* of the Welsh (*Cymry*)—hence *Cantrev* (*cant* and *treo*), a hundred, i. e. a hundred hamlets or townships. Although *baile* (*balley*) is common to all the present Gaelic languages, and is used by them all equally in the sense of town, yet in the sense of city, it is used only by the Scotch Gaels; the Irish using in that sense, *callair* (the Welsh *caer* or *caer*, properly, a fortress.) and the Manks, *ard-ralley*, high town (Gaelic, *aird-bhaile*.) The Welsh now use for city, *dinas*.—P.

^d Qu. one who was simply a labourer or artisan.—P.

institutions of long standing to others of a better description without producing much inconvenience and many temporary evils. The business of plunder was at an end, and the glory of the chieftains was gone. Regardless of the tenantry that had been their pride in feudal times, they followed the example of the proprietors in the south, and let their lands to the highest bidder. Persons of capital were thus induced to settle in the Highlands, and many small farms were united into one. Of the numerous Highlanders, thus thrown out of employment, some removed to the Lowlands, and engaged in different branches of industry, others migrated to America, and many entered the British army, of which they have been the flower since the latter part of the eighteenth century. The country, too, has been improved; many roads have been made, canals have been cut,^a and inland navigation has been extended by means of these canals and numerous lakes. The fisheries have become an object of national importance, and although it might have been at first necessary to excite the indolent Highlander by the lure of a government bounty, it may be doubted if its continuance be accordant with sound policy. The rearing of sheep, the department of rural economy best adapted for the soil and climate of the Highlands, is every year becoming more general; extensive woollen manufactures may in time be established, other branches of industry may be introduced, and the country, instead of containing a scanty and indolent population, may be peopled by active and industrious men. Much good has already been effected by the Highland Society, the improvement of the Highlands and Islands being one of the objects of that institution. Another object is to contribute to the preservation of the language, poetry and music of the Highlands. It may be remarked that the limits within which the Gaelic is used, are gradually contracting; in other words, it is unknown in places where it was spoken fifty years ago.^b Such indeed is the natural consequence of the measures adopted after the rebellion, and of every successive attempt to improve the country, or to enable the inhabitants to participate in the industry and civilization of the Lowlands. It is not necessary to inquire whether the two objects of the Society are incompatible with each other; it is certain that the first, or the improvement of the Highlands, is retarded by the second, or the preservation of the Gaelic language.^c The introduction and diffusion of useful knowledge are thus in some degree prevented, or at all events rendered more difficult, and prejudices which ought to be eradicated are thus perpetuated. The improvement so much desired cannot be complete, so long as these prejudices exist, and so long as the language and habits of the Highlanders are different from those of the other inhabitants of Scotland.

The superior condition of the lower orders forms a characteristic difference between the past and present state

of the Lowlands; the houses of the peasantry are better built, the inmates pay greater attention to cleanliness, and from the facility with which the various products of industry are multiplied, the people are in possession of many articles of household furniture and dress, which, among the peasantry at least, might have been sought in vain fifty years ago. But a corresponding improvement has not yet taken place among the lower orders in the Highlands; their costume is still the same, and their houses are only remarkable for their rudeness. They are built of round stones, cemented with clay or mud, and the roof is formed by a covering of turf or heath. The interior consists generally of a single chamber, but in those of the best description it is divided by a wicker partition. The smaller division is reserved for the poultry, pigs or cattle, if there are any, and the other serves as the kitchen, dining-room and bedroom of the whole family. The fire is placed in the middle of the chamber, and a hook suspended from a chain, supports a single pot, all that is used for dressing the victuals. An aperture is made in the roof for the passage of smoke; the opening is not placed in a direct line above the fire, lest it might be extinguished by the rain, and the greater part of the smoke is thus diffused through the apartment, or escapes only by the door. The beds of the family are so many blankets laid over ferns or heath, and their food, as simple as their habits, consists of oat-meal, milk, and vegetables. The grain that is raised in the country, suffices for their subsistence, and for the distillation of whisky,^d their favourite liquor.

It will be afterwards seen that the industry of the inhabitants is now directed to objects that are likely to reward them, to the rearing of cattle and sheep, to the mines, forests and fisheries, which form the wealth of the Highlands. The country may now be examined. Buteshire, a county on the west coast of Scotland, in the Frith of Clyde, consists entirely of islands, and comprehends those of Bute and Arran, the two Cumbraes, Inchmarnoch, and a few islets. The first of these islands, one of the most important of the Hebrides, and the one that gives its name to the county, is separated by a narrow channel from the district of Cowal in Argyleshire. It is about fifteen miles in length, and nowhere so much as five in breadth, but in some places it is so much indented by the sea, that the heads of opposite bays are not more than a mile from each other. The superficial extent is nearly equal to 30,000 acres.

It is as remarkable for the mildness as for the moisture of its climate; in the former respect it has been compared to the southern counties of England, and it has been ascertained that the annual fall of rain is at least equal to twice the average quantity on the eastern coast.^e The surface is varied by low hills, of which the highest is not more than

^a The Highland canals are the Caledonian Canal, through the *G'en-mort-na-Albin*, in Inverness-shire, and the Crinan Canal, across the isthmus of Cantyre, in Argyleshire. (Ed. Enc. Bell.)—P.

^b The Gaelic, Erse or Highland Scotch (called by the Highlanders, *Gaelic Albanach*, Albanian or Caledonian Gaelic) is a dialect of the Gaelic-Celtic family, so closely allied to the Irish language (Irish Gaelic,) that the two are to a large extent mutually intelligible. The term Gaelic properly characterizes the whole family; the Irish calling their language Gaelic, as well as the Highlanders theirs. The Manks (native language of the Isle of Man) is radically a Gaelic dialect, but more widely separated from the original stock (particularly by foreign admixture—Norse, English) than either the Scotch or Irish Gaelic.—P.

^c The design of the society is not so much to preserve the Gaelic as a living language, as to collect and preserve its literary monuments. For this purpose, they have critically investigated the authen-

ticity of the Ossianic poems, and have published a highly valuable Report on the subject. They have made large collections of Gaelic literature, especially poetry, and have promoted the philological study of the language. Similar efforts have been made by the Highland Society of London.—P.

^d Whisky is a corruption of the Gaelic *uisge*, water, and *usquebaugh*, of *uisge beatha* (pron. *beaha*.) water of life. The river of the water of life (Rev. xxii. 1) is rendered, *amhainn do uisge na beatha* (pron. *arain do uisge na beaha*.) river of water of the life. There is the same distinction in French, *eau de vie* and *eau de la vie*.—P.

^e At Mount-Stuart, in Bute, the annual quantity of rain, on an average of seven years, was 46.6 inches; at Duddingstone, on the Forth, near Edinburgh, on an average of eight years, 25.7 inches.—There is said to be less rain in Bute, than in the adjoining districts, owing to the attraction of the clouds by the mountains of Arran and Cowal. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

720 feet above the level of the sea. Slate and lime are found in different places, and extensive beds of sea-shells are scattered on the western side of the island. Agriculture has of late years been extended, all the crops in the lowlands of Scotland are raised, and nearly three-fourths of the surface are fit for cultivation. Fifty thousand barrels of herrings were often exported from the island in the course of a year. The manufacture of cotton is one of the branches of industry, which has been introduced within a comparatively recent period, and the extensive spinning mills in the neighbourhood of Rothesay afford employment to many of the inhabitants.^a

Rothesay,^b the only town, is situated on the north-western side of the island, opposite a spacious bay, in which there is a safe anchorage.^c The pier is commodious, and the number of vessels belonging to the port measure upwards of 5000 tons.^d Packets sail regularly from the town to Greenock,^e and there is a daily mail boat to Largs in Ayrshire.^f The ruins of the ancient castle of Rothesay are the principal ornament of the place; it was long a residence of the Stuarts, and the bed-rooms and banqueting room of Robert the Second and Third, the last monarchs by whom it was inhabited, are still shown to strangers.

Arran, about twelve miles to the south of Bute, is more than twenty miles in length, and from seven to eleven miles in breadth. The surface is equal to 165 square miles, but it is rugged and mountainous, and not more than a seventh part is fit for cultivation. The loftiest summits, the deepest and most romantic vallies, are situated in the northern part of the island. Goatfell^g towers above the rest, and according to the trigonometrical survey, it is 2865 feet above the level of the sea. Limestone, marl and slate are by no means uncommon, and indications of coal have been at different times discovered. The herring fishery is the most productive branch of industry, and convenient harbours are situated at the two towns, or rather villages of Lamlash and Loch-Ranza, the one on the eastern, and the other on the northern side of the island. It is divided into the two parishes of Kilbride and Kilmory, and in both of them the Gaelic was formerly the only language of the inhabitants, but it is now little known, and there are at present twelve English schools in Arran.

The Cumbraes are two small islands on the coast of Ayrshire; the largest is about four square miles in extent, and nearly a half of it is cultivated. A light-house is erected on the small one, which is inhabited by five or six families.

^a A large cotton mill was established in 1778, by an English Company—the first in Scotland. This establishment has been recently enlarged, and greatly improved by Mr. Thom, who has superseded the use of steam-engines by water power. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b Rothesay, or Rothsay—the first the more usual form. Some have supposed the name of Danish origin; others have derived it from the Gaelic, *Riogh (Righ) Suidhe*, the King's Seat, from the Castle of Rothesay, once a royal residence. Rothesay is a royal burgh, and the county town.—P.

^c It is situated at the bottom of an extensive bay, on the N. W. side of the island, in which there is safe anchorage. (Gaz. Scot.)—This is a mistake; Rothesay is on the N. E. coast of the island.—Rothesay is situated on a bay of the same name, on the north-east side of Bute. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d In 1790, the shipping amounted to 4246 tons, of which 3104 were employed in the herring-fishery. (Gaz. Scot.)—P.

^e By means of steam-boats on the Clyde, it communicates with Glasgow commonly many times in a day. (Bell.)—P.

^f It lies on the west side of the Firth of Clyde, nearly opposite Largs.—P.

^g Goatfield. Fell and field are here the Dan. *field*, Swed. *fjäll*, mountain.—P.

^h Inchmarnoch (island of Marnoch) is about a mile long. On the west side are vast strata of shells. The ruins of a chapel, dedicated to St. Marnoch, are still visible. (Gaz. Scot.)—P.

The islet of Inchmarnoch, on the south-west of Bute, derives its name from a chapel dedicated to St. Marnoch. The area is less than a square mile, and the greater part of it is fruitful.^h A light-house has been built on the islet of Pladda on the south of Arran,ⁱ for the guidance of vessels into the Frith of Clyde.^k

If we ascend the same frith, and turn to the right, we may arrive at the town of Dumbarton, which is situated near the confluence of the Clyde and the Leven,^l and almost insulated by the last river at high water. More than two thousand tons of shipping belong to the harbour, and the rise of water is equal to eleven feet at spring tides. The principal manufacture, or that of crown glass, affords employment to many of the inhabitants, and of the extent to which it is carried, some notion may be formed from the government duties, of which the annual amount has not been less, on an average of several years, than L. 100,000.^m The fairs that are held in the town attract many persons from different parts of the country, and the one that takes place in the month of June, is considered the principal mart for Highland cattle in the west of Scotland.

The ancient castle of Dumbarton crowns a lofty rock that rises abruptly from a plain at the confluence of the two rivers, which wash both sides of its base,ⁿ and surround it during high tides. Although the fort was considered impregnable in the days of the venerable Bede, it was reduced by famine in 706;^o and at a later period, while held by the adherents of Queen Mary, it was taken by escalade.^p It has since stood several sieges, and before the rebellion of 1745, it was not inaccurately designated the key of the West Highlands.

When the merchants of Glasgow found it necessary, in consequence of the increase of their trade, and the distance of their town from the sea, to have a port and a depot for their exports and imports towards the mouth of the Clyde, they made choice of Dumbarton. The proposition was communicated to and rejected by the municipal authorities and burgesses. Numerous shipping, it was urged, always raised the price of provisions, seaports were necessarily dirty, the townsmen hated the bustle of trade, and other absurdities had their weight in influencing their opinion. The proposal was rejected, and it is perhaps impossible to mention another instance in which Scotchmen acted so contrary to their interest.^q

The county of which Dumbarton is the capital,^r is divid-

ⁱ Pladda is about a mile distant from the south-east point of Arran.—P.

^k This light-house is furnished with two lights, to distinguish it from the others in the Frith.—P.

^l On the eastern bank of the Leven, a little to the north-west of the castle.—P.

^m A manufactory of glass is carried on to such an extent, as to pay nearly L.4000 of duty annually. (Ed. Enc. 1817.)—Average duties L.3800 per ann. (Stat. Acc. 1792.)—P.

ⁿ The Clyde on the south, and the Leven on the west.—P.

^o The venerable Bede informs us, that it was the strongest fortification in the kingdom in his time, and deemed almost impregnable; it was reduced by famine in the year 756, by Egbert, king of Northumberland. (Gaz. Scot.)—In 726, this city was attacked by Egbert, king of Northumberland, and Oangus (Ungus,) king of the Picts, and the Britons were compelled to submit. (Leighton's Scenes in Scotland, 100.)—Ungus reigned from 730 to 761. (Ed. Enc.)—Dumbarton (the *Alcluth* of Bede, the *Balclutha* (town of the Clyde) of Ossian, and the *Dunbritton* (fort of the Britons) of the Gael) was the capital of the Strathclyde Britons (*Cymry*).—P.

^p A. D. 1571. It was the last place in Scotland, that held out for Mary.—P.

^q C. Dupin, Force Commerciale, tom. vi. p. 300.

^r Dumbartonshire.

ed into two parts that are some miles distant from each other ;^a the larger or the western is bounded by Perthshire on the north, by Argyshire on the west, from which it is separated by Loch Long, an arm of the sea, by Lanarkshire and the Clyde on the south, and by Stirlingshire on the east. The eastern portion is enclosed by the last county and by Lanarkshire. The area is equal to 230 square miles, and the relative population is not less than 144 persons to every square mile.

The soil on the low grounds, consists of schistose clay, and in some places, particularly on the banks of the Clyde, of a rich black loam. But about two thirds of the county are occupied by lofty hills, some of which are 3000 feet in height,^b and all of them form part of the ridge which traverses the island from Forfarshire to the Frith of Clyde.^c Coal, iron-ore and limestone are the most valuable minerals. But the first is only worked on the south-east border, where little more than 11,000 tons are annually raised. As to the second, it is computed that 3000 tons of ironstone are sent every year to the Carron foundry from the parishes of Kirkintilloch^d and Cumbernauld. Although limestone abounds, it is only worked in two or three places on account of the scarcity of fuel.

The Leven, the outlet of Loch Lomond, is the principal river ; it flows five or six miles through a fruitful plain, and joins the Clyde at Dumbarton Castle. The extent of coast formed by Loch Long and Gareloch^e affords the advantage of water carriage to a large part of the county, and in the remaining portion the conveyance of goods is equally facilitated by the Forth and Clyde canal.^f Loch Lomond is about twenty-five miles in length, and more than six at its greatest breadth. A small part of it is situated in Stirlingshire, the rest in Dumbartonshire. It is not inferior to any of the British lakes in the beauty and variety of its scenery, which depend on its numerous and well wooded islands, and the striking contrast of its verdant and shaded banks with the rugged mountains that rise above them. The northern part is comparatively narrow, the southern or broadest is bounded by a fruitful plain, and between the two extremities extend the heights, which are crowned by Benlomond.^g

As a manufacturing county, Dumbartonshire is not without importance, and the printing and bleaching of cottons

form a great branch of industry. There are besides three extensive cotton mills, several paper mills, and an iron-work for edge tools and other articles.^h The glass works of Dumbarton have been already mentioned ; there are several tanneries in the same place, a manufactory of alkali at Burnfoot, and another of pyrolignous acid at Millburn. Many printfields are situated on the banks of the Leven,ⁱ and the small stream of Dunlocher turns in its short course sixteen water-wheels.

The maritime county of Argyle, made up partly of the mainland, and partly of islands, which shall be afterwards described, is bounded by Perthshire and Dumbartonshire on the east, by Inverness-shire on the north, by the Irish Sea and the Frith of Clyde on the south, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west. The greatest length of the continental portion from the Mull of Kintyre on the south to Ardnanurchan Point on the north, is about 115 miles, and its breadth is more than sixty-eight. The surface has been computed at 3800 square miles, of which 1065 are insular, and the remainder, or more than a thirteenth of the whole of Scotland, is situated on the mainland. The coast in the last portion consists of many long promontories, and deep bays or inlets, and the length of line thus formed is upwards of 600 miles. Several fresh water lakes are situated in the interior, and their superficial extent, it has been supposed, is equal to sixty square miles. Like the rest of the Highlands, Argyshire presents the dreary prospect of hills, rocks and barren mountains. The lofty Ben-Cruachan is 3390 feet above the level of the sea, and some of the heights are not much inferior in the neighbourhood of Benlomond.^k The inlets cut deep into the land, and the district of Cowal is peninsulated by Loch Long on one side, and Loch Fine on the other. Some barley is raised for the supply of the distilleries, the other crops are oats, potatoes and turnips, but the arable land bears a very small proportion to the uncultivated ; indeed there are not more than 125,000 acres of the former out of 1,408,000.^l The rearing of cattle was long the principal branch of rural economy, and the breed of oxen is still considered superior in many respects to most in Britain. But about the middle of the last century the coarse woolled heath sheep were introduced, and it was soon discovered that they were much better adapted than oxen for the lofty and barren districts,

^a The eastern portion is a long narrow tract, composed of the parishes of Cumbernauld and Kirkintilloch, separated from the rest of the county by a part of the parish of Calder (Cadder) in Lanarkshire. It is bounded by Stirlingshire on the north and east, and by Lanarkshire on the south and west. The Great Canal passes through it longitudinally. The main body of the county is of a very irregular figure. It consists of two arms, one extending north, and the other east from Dumbarton. The Clyde forms the southern and south-western boundary, separating it from Renfrewshire ; Lanarkshire bounds it on the south-east for a short distance ; Stirlingshire on the north-east to the mouth of the Endrick in Loch Lomond, and then on the east to the northern boundary, Loch Lomond separating the two counties for the greater part of the distance ; Perthshire on the north ; Argyshire on the west, Loch Long forming the boundary for the greater part of the distance, toward the south.—P.

^b In the parish of Arroquhar at the northern extremity. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c That part of the west division of the county, which lies east of the river Leven, is intersected by a continuation of the lofty ridge, which crosses the island from Forfarshire to the Frith of Clyde. (Ed. Enc.)—This portion of the ridge forms part of the chain of the Lennox Hills. The highest hills in the county, viz. those on the west of Loch Lomond, have no connexion with this ridge, but form part of the Grampians.—P.

^d Kirkintilloch. (See note a.)—P.

^e Gareloch, or Loch Gair—an arm of the Firth of Clyde to the west of the Leven, extending about twelve miles north into Dumbarton-

shire, and with Loch Long on the west, forming the peninsula of Roseneath.—P.

^f The Forth and Clyde canal traverses the eastern division of the county, and just crosses the south-eastern corner of the western division.—P.

^g Loch Lomond is nearly surrounded by ranges of mountains or hills. On the south-east are the Kilpatrick Hills (trap range,) leaving between them and the lake, a tract of low land, extending along the Leven. On the west are the mountains of Luss and Arroquhar, separating it from Loch Long. On the east is Ben Lomond, the highest summit, with the chain that extends north and connects it with the Grampians. At the upper extremity, a narrow valley extends in the direction of the lake, called Glenfalloch.—P.

^h At Dalnotter iron-work (in Old Kilpatrick,) nails, edge-tools and all sorts of wrought iron goods are manufactured on an extensive scale. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁱ The banks of the Leven are covered with numerous bleachfields, printfields and cotton-works. (Gaz. Scot.)—Bleaching flourishes to a greater extent on the Leven, than in any other part of Scotland, on account of the limpid purity of its water. (Chambers.)—P.

^k Ben Lomond is in Stirlingshire, separated from Argyshire by Loch Lomond and Dumbartonshire. Does the writer refer to the summits on the borders of Dumbartonshire ? Beinn Ima, or the Cobler of Arroquhar, in that direction, is 2389 feet above the sea.—P.

^l Number of acres on the mainland, 1,415,898 ; in the whole county, 1,918,714. (Bell.)—Number of acres cultivated on the mainland, 126,130. (Sinclair's Gen. Rep.)—P.

yielding both a much greater quantity of food for man, and the raw material of an important manufacture. There are not probably fewer than 350,000 of these valuable animals throughout the continental part of Argyleshire, and although they have increased so rapidly since the time of their introduction, it must not be inferred that the number of oxen is diminished; on the contrary, there is reason to suppose it greater at present than at any former period, a circumstance that must be attributed to the improved state of the arable and pasture lands.

The products of the fisheries are not less important than those of agriculture; they afford perhaps a greater quantity of food; they furnish employment to a greater number of hands. The form of the county is admirably adapted for this branch of industry; it is penetrated almost in every direction by arms of the sea, it is traversed by extensive lakes, and some idea of its importance may be derived from the fact that the herrings caught during two seasons in Loch Fine, were computed to be worth more than L.80,000.^a

If the spirit of improvement, which was introduced several years ago, be continued, Argyleshire is likely to become important as a manufacturing and commercial county. The old roads have been extended, and new ones have been made almost in every direction. The Crinan canal, which has been cut across the peninsula of Kintyre, at an expense of L.140,000, shortened the voyage from the ports in the West Highlands and the Hebrides by a distance of nearly two hundred miles. Lastly, the county has been made to communicate with the German Ocean by means of the Caledonian canal, of which Loch Linnhe forms the entrance into the Atlantic; and from the completion of this vast work, Argyleshire has derived the advantages of increased navigation and frequent intercourse.

A portion of Argyleshire, it has already been observed, is insular, and the islands form part of the Hebrides. The Western Isles or Hebrides lie between 55° 30' and 58° 28' north latitude, and 4° 52' and 7° 40' west longitude from Greenwich. They are about 200 in number, but not more than eighty-seven are inhabited. Their superficial contents are probably greater than 2800 square miles, and their total population is nearly equal to eighty thousand inhabitants. The Norwegians and the Danes contended for the possession of them in ancient times, but in the present day the inhabitants appear to differ little from the Highlanders; they speak the same language, wear the same dress, and observe the same customs. Bute, Arran and two or three small islands, it has been already seen, make up a distinct county. The other Hebrides form part of the counties of Argyle, Inverness and Ross. The superficies of those belonging to the first county is equal to 992 square miles; 1150 are attached to the second or Inverness-shire, and 560 to Ross-shire.

They are sometimes divided into the Outer and Inner Hebrides, and as the latter lie nearer the shore, they are much better known. The former, separated from them by a channel varying in breadth from fifteen to forty miles, exhibit a great variety of forms; some of them are conical, others are flat; some are several miles in diameter, others are only a few yards. The eastern sides of the islands are low or marshy, and they afford excellent anchorages; the

western sides, on the other hand, are rugged or precipitous, and almost destitute of safe harbours.^b The same islands are remarkable for the number of their dark and sombre lakes. Peat is the most prevalent soil on the low grounds, but on the heights it appears only in patches. The vegetation on the peat land consists chiefly of heath, mosses and lichens, and these plants are most abundant on the eastern sides of the islands; the western are more fruitful, and the vegetation is comparatively rich and verdant. In winter, the islands are exposed to violent storms; the Atlantic, after a continued gale of westerly wind, rolls its impetuous billows, and dashes them against the headlands on the western coasts, presenting sometimes the terrific spectacle of breakers, extending in ranges for miles.^c The most important islands and the principal ports shall be afterwards enumerated, although few of the latter are remarkable for their buildings or public works.

Inverary, the capital of the county, is the only town of any consequence in Argyleshire. It is situated at the mouth of the Aray, on a small bay about eight miles from the head of the Loch Fyne.^d The houses are well built, and they form a handsome street in front of the lake. Repeated attempts have been at different times made to introduce manufactures, but none of them appear to have succeeded. The principal support of the place is derived from the herring fisheries, which have flourished during a long period, and there is reason to believe that French merchants were formerly in the habit of repairing to Inverary for the purpose of bartering their wine for herrings. It is long, however, since the inhabitants have been engaged in any commerce with foreigners; their trade consists in the export of wool, timber, bark and fish to Glasgow and Liverpool, and in the import of different articles that are consumed in the town and neighbourhood. The counties of Bute, Dumbarton and Argyle make up what is commonly called the West Highlands.

Perthshire is contiguous to the last county and Dumbarton on the west, to Stirling and Clackmannan on the south, to Fife, Kinross and Forfar on the east, and to Aberdeen and Inverness on the north. The superficial extent is not less than 2638 square miles, but of these more than fifty are occupied by lakes. The greatest length from east to west is about 77 miles, and the utmost breadth from north to south is equal to 68. The extent of Perthshire indicates its importance; in that respect it is only inferior to Inverness-shire, but the relation between the surface and the population, amounting to little more than fifty-four persons to the square mile, is considerably below the mean term throughout Scotland. It is partly lowland and partly highland; the last portion, however, occupies a much larger space than the first, and more than two-thirds of the whole are unfit for cultivation. The arable land is mostly confined to the southern and eastern extremities, and to the plain of Strathmore, bounded in Perthshire by the Grampians on the north-west, and on the east by the Ochils and Sidlaw hills.

Benlawers, the highest mountain, on the side of Loch Tay, is upwards of 4000 feet above the level of the sea; the next in point of elevation are Benmore on the south-west, and Schiehallion on the north-east; and it is supposed that

^a Smith's Survey of Argyleshire.

^b The contrary is the fact, particularly in the islands of North and South Uist—the eastern coast being steep and rocky, with many inlets forming harbours; the western coast sloping down to the sea, and bordered by a sandy beach, but without harbours. The cultivated lands are generally along the west coast.—P.

^c Bell's Geography, vol. iii.

^d Loch Fine—Gaelic, *Loch-fhin* or *fhionn*, fair lake or estuary. Loch Long is also Gaelic (*Loch-luing*, lake of ships—from *loch*, lake and *long* (plu. *luing*.) ship).—P.

there are at least seven in the county, which are more than 3000 feet in height. But the different mountains through almost the whole breadth of the county, are intersected by straths or vallies, some of them comparatively large, and all of them watered by streams, or varied by lakes, of which the banks are adorned with natural woods. The lakes have been described by many tourists; it is therefore only necessary to mention the situation and extent of the most remarkable. Loch Tay almost in the centre of the Highland district, is about twelve miles in length, one in breadth, and in some places a hundred fathoms in depth. Loch Erich on the north-west, although not so broad, is longer than the former, and extends into Inverness-shire. Loch Earn is situated on the south of Loch Tay, and Loch Rannoch on the south-east of Loch Erich. Lastly, Lochs Vennachar, Achray and Katrine on the south-west, are famed for their romantic scenery.

The principal rivers, the Tay and the Forth, have been already mentioned. The Earn rises from the lake of the same name, flows in an easterly direction, and bending towards the south,^a waters Strathearn, a fruitful district, and joins the Tay after a course of twenty-five miles. At no great distance from their confluence, it passes by the village of Pitcaithly, a celebrated place on account of its mineral waters.

If all the soils common to Scotland have not been observed, the number may be readily supposed to be considerable in so extensive a county, and it is certain that some of the best and worst sorts are contained in it. The alluvial soils or carse lands are the most productive; and the Carse of Gowrie on the west and north-west of the Frith of Tay,^b a tract of about 18,000 acres, is one of the most fertile in Scotland. The lands at the base of the Ochils^c are only inferior to the last district in point of productiveness, and some of the straths in the Highlands are by no means unfruitful. A great part of the county was in former times covered with forests, which were successively destroyed as agriculture extended, or population increased. The defect, however, has been supplied within the last fifty or sixty years; the larch, which has been transported from the Tyrol, flourishes on the heaths and barren districts, and plantations of different forest trees, which are profitable to the proprietors, and ornamental to their estates, may be seen in most parts of the county.

Perthshire, it is said, was the boundary between two divisions of Scotland, which were distinguished in former times by their woods or forests; firs abounded in the one, and deciduous trees were common in the other. It may be said too to divide the granite and the freestone districts in the same country, the latter being comparatively rare on the north, and the former on the south of Perthshire. There is, however, a scarcity of valuable minerals; coal has only been found in the neighbourhood of Culross, a detached portion of the county on the south-east of the rest, and on the shores of the Forth. Although limestone is not uncommon, it is rendered of comparatively little value from the want of fuel to calcine it. Slates abound in the Highland district, and indications of copper, lead and iron have been

observed in different places; a copper mine was at one time wrought in the parish of Logie, and two lead mines, the one near Tyndrum, and the other in Glenlyen, although formerly considered productive, have been both abandoned.

Perth, the capital, is a place of great antiquity; it was formerly the seat of parliaments, and the frequent residence of Scottish kings, who were crowned in the vicinity.^d To enumerate the many memorable events in the history of Scotland, of which the same place was the scene, might occupy several pages. It may be doubted, however, if it ever was more flourishing than at present; at all events, different branches of industry are now cultivated, which were formerly unknown. It is the commercial capital of the South Highlands, and their improvement has been accompanied with a corresponding extension of its trade; and until industry is diffused over that part of Scotland, until the work of improvement is complete, Perth is likely to rise in importance. A steam-boat descends daily from it to Dundee, and another arrives from the same place. Seven different roads diverge to the defiles or straths in the Highlands, and the excellence of these roads, and the difficulties that have been overcome in making them, are equally worthy of admiration. The Tay runs south, and takes a bend towards the east about a mile below the town, which is situated on an extensive plain, partly surrounded by hills on the south and west of the river. The part on which the town stands, is divided into two meadows, the North and South Inches, each about a mile and a half in circumference, and each forming an agreeable walk.^e The town is regularly built, and consists of several streets extending from east to west, which are intersected by others at right angles from north to south. It contained formerly many churches and religious houses, most of which were destroyed by the blind zeal of the reformers. It is not without importance as a place of instruction; the grammar school has long enjoyed a high and merited reputation, and there is an academy in which drawing, mathematics and the different branches of natural philosophy are taught.

The principal manufactures of the county are carried on in the same place; they consist of linen, cotton, leather, paper and other articles. The vessels belonging to the port, measure about 3000 tons, and the exports are corn, salmon and different manufactures. The imports are the raw materials of the manufactures, and various articles of consumption. Although other towns and villages are situated in the county, none of them are of sufficient importance to require notice.

Inverness-shire is contiguous to Perthshire on the south, and is the largest county of any in Scotland. The outline, however, is very irregular; a narrow tract extends between Nairnshire and the Moray Frith, and another portion detached from the rest is enclosed by the counties of Banff and Moray; Argyleshire penetrates into it from the south-west; it is indented on the west by several lochs or arms of the sea, and it has already been remarked, that several of the Hebrides are politically attached to it.^f

It is obvious from these remarks that the surface cannot

^a The Earn bends south-east, not far from its outlet, and then flows nearly east through Strathearn.—P.

^b It is situated on the north of the Tay, between that river and the foot of the Sidla Hills, and between Perth and Dundee.—P.

^c Strathearn extends along the foot of the Ochils on the north.—P.

^d At Scone, on the opposite side of the Tay.—P.

^e The town divides a spacious plain into what are called the North and

South Inches. (Gaz. Scot.)—The Inches are level fields or meadows on the north and south of the town, used for public walks and pastures. The South Inch is planted with rows of trees.—P.

^f Its general boundaries are Nairn, Moray and Aberdeen on the east, Perth and Argyle on the south, the Atlantic on the west, and Ross and a part of Moray Frith on the north.—P.

be easily calculated; it has not, however, been computed at less than 3036 square miles, and of these 132 are occupied by lakes.^a If the calculation be correct, the extent of land is equal to 2904 square miles, and, in each of them, the average number of inhabitants is little more than twenty-eight individuals.

The appearance of the country is varied by lofty mountains, deep and narrow vallies, and numerous rivers and lakes. Glenmore, or the Great Glen, which is bounded on either side by precipitous heights, is for the most part about a mile in breadth; it extends from north-east to south-west, and divides the county into two nearly equal parts. The Ness discharges itself into the Murray Frith at the northern extremity of Glenmore, and the southern is formed by an inlet of the sea, that communicates with the Atlantic. The intermediate country is watered by several lakes that shall be afterwards mentioned.

Eight subordinate vallies join the great glen of Caledonia, which, it has been already seen, extends from sea to sea. The mountains, too, stretch across the island, confining and running parallel to the vallies, and forming lofty boundaries on both sides of them. The deep glens between these masses are the natural recipients of the waters that fall from the high grounds, and which for want of an outlet are formed into lakes; and as the vallies are long and narrow, so are the lakes; their average breadth is less than a mile; their average length is probably more than nine. Loch-Ness, the largest, is twenty-two miles long and from one to two broad.

The length of the rivers is modified by the direction of their course, and those that flow westwards into the Atlantic are in general shorter than those that fall into the German Ocean. The Spey, the largest of any, rises from a loch on the east of Glenmore,^b flows a distance of about ninety-six miles in a north-east direction, and receives the waters of 1300 square miles. The Ness issues from the lake of the same name, waters the town of Inverness, and discharges itself into the Murray Frith. The Lochy flows westwards,^c and enters Loch Eil after a course of ten miles. The Beaully has its source in the north-west, and carries the waters of several feeders into the frith that bears its name.^d

Mention has been made in a former chapter of the chain of mountains that traverses the county; it has been seen that Ben-Nevis, in the district of Lochaber, rises to a greater height than any in Britain, and that some of the others in the neighbourhood are not much lower.

The western side of the county, between Glenmore and the Atlantic, from Argyleshire on the south, to Ross-shire on the north, is the most desolate tract in Inverness-shire. The extensive district of Badenoch, which lies on the east side of the valley, terminates in Lochaber on the south, and in the Aird, the most fruitful part of the county, on the north.^e

The nature of the country may be inferred from the fact that two thirds of it are covered with heath, that the arable land does not exceed a fortieth part, and that the woodlands, green pastures, and cultivated fields, do not

make up more than eight acres out of a hundred. The productive land lies chiefly on the sea-coast, and along the banks of the lakes or rivers where the soil is alluvial and fruitful.

The most common minerals are granite, limestone, slate and marble. A great part of Ben-Nevis is composed of beautiful porphyry; lead has been discovered in the same mountain, and plumbago in Glengarry.^f The want of coal is severely felt by the inhabitants, and limestone, the most useful of their minerals, is thus rendered of little value.

The public works by which the same county is distinguished, have been completed within a comparatively recent period. The memorable rebellions in 1715 and 1745 contributed to the security of the inhabitants of the south, and to the subjugation of the Highlands. To accomplish so desirable an end, the three military stations of Fort George, Fort Augustus and Fort William were erected in the valley of Glenmore. The first was raised to guard the entrance of the Moray Frith on the east, the second to repel attacks from the centre, and the third to prevent any rising in the west.

The military roads which were made for a similar purpose by the soldiers under General Wade, attract, even at the present day, the attention of strangers, both on account of the patient labor requisite for the completion of such works, and also on account of the skill with which they are executed. It may be sufficient to add that mountains and marshes, formerly impassable, are now intersected by roads, which were made at a time when the country was barbarous, and which have mainly contributed to its civilization. In later times, other roads have been extended in many directions; and an easy communication is now afforded to most parts of the county. The public spirit of the proprietors has been encouraged by government, for of the sums expended on the roads, only one half is defrayed by the county; the other is granted by parliament.

It has already been remarked that a series of lakes extends in a direct line from north-east to south-west along the great valley of Caledonia. These lakes are Lochs Ness, Oich, Lochy, Eil and Linnhe.^g It is highly probable from the geological appearance of the country, that in a period now unknown, the lakes were continuous or the whole valley was submerged. If this supposition be correct, the waters must have broken the barriers, which confined them on the east and west, and made a passage for themselves to the German and Atlantic Oceans. The natural effect of such a change must have been to uncover the higher parts of Glenmore, or to form the necks of land that separate the salt and fresh water lakes. This opinion is further strengthened by the excavations which have been made in the valley, and which, with few exceptions, consist of sand, gravel and water-worn stones. The work of art, or the communication between the two seas, was thus rendered comparatively easy, and the advantages of a canal in such a situation, were pointed out by the celebrated Watt at so early a period as 1773.^h A considerable time, how-

^a This is the extent of the mainland, as given by Sinclair (Gen. Rep.)—That of the islands (Sky, Harris, Uist, Barra), by the same, 1209 square miles.—P.

^b The Spey rises in Badenoch, and a few miles from its source, forms an expansion called Loch Spey. (Bell.)—P.

^c The Lochy issues from Loch Lochy, and flows south-west through Glenmore.—P.

^d The Frith of Beaully, or Loch Beaully, forms the western extremity of Moray Frith, between the counties of Inverness and Ross.—P.

^e The Aird extends along the south side of the Frith of Beaully, between Beaully and Inverness. (Sinclair's Gen. Rep.)—P.

^f Glengarry.

^g Lochs Eil and Linnhe are sea lochs, or rather different parts of the same inlet. Loch Linnhe commences at the strait of Ardgower, about nine miles below Fort William, and extends to the sea.—P.

^h Mr. Watt was employed in making a survey of the valley, for that purpose, in 1773.—P.

ever, elapsed before its commencement, and one of the motives, which induced government to undertake the work, was to afford relief to the Highlanders. The system of sheep farming, a very great improvement, was perhaps too rapidly extended, and it cannot be denied that it had for a time the effect of throwing many out of employment. The formation of roads and canals, and the multiplication of fishing stations, were considered by government the best means of alleviating the distress resulting from a too sudden change. The Caledonian Canal was therefore begun in 1804,^a and completed in 1822, at an expense of more than L.800,000. It is not too much to say that the benevolent purposes, which it was intended to promote, were in a great degree realized during the long period that elapsed from its commencement to its completion. The summit level of the navigation, in a distance of about sixty miles from sea to sea, is only ninety-four feet above the ocean, and that circumstance renders Glenmore one of the most remarkable vallies in the kingdom. The length of the excavations of the canal is twenty-one miles and a half, and that of the intermediate lakes thirty-seven and a quarter, which gives a total length of fifty-eight miles and three quarters. It is 20 feet deep, 50 wide at the bottom, and 110 at the top. It is thus rendered navigable for frigates of 32 guns, and merchant ships of a like size. The differences of the level are compensated by 25 locks, of which the depth is 20 feet, the length 170, and the breadth 40. The canal rises 94 feet from the east sea to Loch Oich by 13 locks, and it descends 90 from the same loch to the opposite sea by 12 locks. Eight of these twelve, to which mariners have given the appropriate name of Neptune's Stairs, are situated near the western extremity of the canal, towards the bay that terminates in the Atlantic^b. The greatness of the dimensions renders the canal accessible to the largest class of merchant vessels in the trade of the North Sea; and although a short period has elapsed since its completion, many advantages have resulted from it. Others may be reasonably expected; commerce is likely to be further extended, and industry more widely diffused. The forts, which have been already mentioned, and which were raised to keep the Highlanders in awe, are now wholly useless for that purpose, and the time may come when the strong built barracks and spacious magazines shall be converted into store-houses and manufactories, affording employment to an increasing population, and spreading wealth over the surrounding country.

No part of the county has been more benefited by the canal than the capital, which, after the rebellion of 1745, was little better than a mass of ruinous houses. It is situated on both sides of the Ness, at its entrance into the Murray Frith. Part of the town and the old fort were built by a military colony sent by Cromwell to keep the Highlanders in subjection. It now possesses an academy, a library and a collection of philosophical instruments. It is besides the seat of different manufactures, and the centre of a mercantile intercourse, which extends to every part of the county.

No other towns of any consequence are situated in

^a Mr. Telford was employed by government, in 1802, in making a new survey.—P.

^b At Banavie, one mile from the western termination in Loch Eil.—P.

^c Banff or Bamff.

^d Cairngorm, 4060 feet high, is at the southern extremity of the county.—P.

Inverness-shire; but it has been remarked that several of the Hebrides are politically attached to it. Of these, the largest or the Isle of Sky contains nearly 10,000 inhabitants. It is very long and much indented by deep bays, and many smaller isles are situated in the vicinity. Roads made by government pass from one extremity to the other, and they are connected with others that lead to the small ports of Trotternish, Snizort, Dunvegan and Sconser.

The northern ramifications of the Grampians bound the valley of the Deveron, which flows into the North Sea, and waters the small town of Banff,^c the capital of a county, and one of the best built towns in the north of Scotland. The river is crossed by a handsome bridge of seven arches, but the harbour is rendered inconvenient by the shifting of sand banks. The boundaries of Banffshire are the counties of Inverness and Moray on the west, the Murray Frith on the north, and Aberdeenshire on the east and south. The surface is not less than 627 square miles. The soil along the coast consists chiefly of sand and loam, and is in many places well cultivated. But although there are several fertile vallies, and valuable pastures, sheltered with natural wood on the banks of rivers, Banffshire is in general a hilly, and, on the south, a mountainous district. Numerous streams are tributary to the Spey and the Deveron, the former of which forms its western, and the latter its eastern boundary, and both of them yield a considerable revenue from their salmon fishings.

Marble, limestone and marl abound, but from the want of coal, most of the lime is imported from Sunderland. The other minerals are freestone, granite, slate, brick-clay, and the rock crystals that are found on the elevated range that forms the southern and western limits of the county.^d

A vegetable substance, the cupbear or cupmoss,^e grows only on rocky and high situations, and its use as a purple dye, is said to have been discovered in 1755, by a native of the county. The quantity that is annually exported from Banffshire to Glasgow, amounts in value to more than L.700.

No manufactures are established on a great scale. The wealth of the farmer consists in his cattle; the climate and the soil are on the whole unfavourable to the raising of corn, and not more than a fifth part of the county is considered fit for tillage. The relation, however, between the surface and the population, is greater than in most parts of the Highlands; it is nearly as seventy-five to the square mile.

Elginshire or the county of Moray is washed by the frith of the same name on the north, and bounded by the last county or Banffshire on the east, by Inverness-shire on the south, and by Nairnshire on the west. The area is not more than 480 square miles, but in former times it was much larger, and the province of Moray,^f as it was then called, comprehended a considerable portion of the adjoining counties.^g Not more than a third part of the land is productive, and the relative number of inhabitants is upwards of seventy-one to the square mile. The county is naturally divided into two parts, the northern and the

^e *Cudbear* (so called from Dr. *Cuthbert* Gordon, who first manufactured it on a large scale) is a red or brownish red dye-stuff, prepared from lichens, particularly the *Lecanora tartarea*. The cup-moss is the *Cenomyce pyxidata*. The first manufactory of cudbear in Glasgow, was established in 1777.—P.

^f It formerly comprehended the shires of Nairn and Elgin, and a great part of the shire of Banff. (Gaz. Scot.)—P.

southern, and these are widely different from each other. The first comprehends the low grounds which stretch from the coast to the distance in some places of twelve, and in others of only five miles. The second division includes the heights or mountains in the interior. In the former, the climate may bear a comparison with that of most parts in Scotland, and the prevailing soil is a sandy loam, which yields plentiful harvests; in the latter, the winters are long and severe, the quantity of rain is greater than on the coast, and it sometimes happens that the ground is covered with snow, before the crops are collected. Limestone, sandstone, marl and slate abound in different parishes, and about a century ago iron ore was wrought in the county.

The numerous mountain streams serve to enlarge the principal rivers, the Spey, the Lossie, and the Findhorn. Of these, the first or largest forms the eastern boundary of Morayshire, which it enters at Aviemore, a place more than thirty miles from its source. It then flows in a deep bed with a considerable declivity, and reaches the sea at Speymouth.^a It affords the means of transporting the products of the woods on its banks, but it is ill adapted for the purposes of navigation; indeed it is only navigable near its mouth, and that merely for small vessels.

Many of the inhabitants are employed in agricultural, few in manufacturing industry; in the former of these occupations, particularly in the branch that relates to the rearing of cattle, considerable advances have been made. The native cattle have been crossed and improved by the Argyleshire race, and the Shetland sheep, once the only sort in the county, is now superseded by a better breed.

Elgin, the county town, is situated on the banks of the Lossie, about three miles from its mouth. It was formerly a place of more importance than at present, having been once the seat of a diocese,^b possessing the largest revenue of any in Scotland. Little of the ancient cathedral now remains, but the ruins are still imposing. The modern town consists principally of a single street more than a mile in length, and near the middle of it are the court-house, the parish church, the town-house, and the county gaol. The harbour in the neighbourhood,^c admits vessels of eighty tons at spring tides, and a considerable quantity of grain is exported to Grangemouth and Leith. Lastly, the burgh of Forres near the bay of Findhorn,^d and about twelve miles west of Elgin, contains nearly 4000 inhabitants.

The small county of Nairn was formerly contained in the ancient province of Moray. It is contiguous to the modern shire on the east and south, to Inverness-shire on the west, and to the Moray Frith on the north. The extent of surface is equal to 198 square miles, and the total population according to the last returns, to 9354 individuals. The northern or maritime part of Nairnshire, like the northern part of Morayshire, is fruitful; the prevailing soils consist of loam and clay, and both of them are considered equally productive. But the portion of arable land in the south, or at the distance of a few miles from the shore, is

very inconsiderable, and mostly confined to a sandy loam or gravel. Sandstone and marl are the only minerals of any importance, and the latter is not only abundant, but of an excellent quality.

The Findhorn and the Nairn, the only streams of any consequence, pass into the county from Inverness-shire, and it has been seen that the former also waters Morayshire, where it discharges itself into the sea, but the town of Nairn, the capital of the county, is situated at the confluence of the latter with the Moray Frith. It is a place of great antiquity, and it was formerly defended by a castle, of which the ruins cannot easily be discovered. It is now, however, without commerce or industry, and the population amounts to little more than two thousand individuals.

The small shire of Cromarty consists for the most part of different districts that are surrounded by Ross-shire.^e The boundaries of both counties are the sea on the east and west, Sutherland on the north, and Inverness on the south. The friths of Dornoch, Cromarty and Moray cut into the land on the eastern side, and the western is more deeply indented by numerous smaller inlets or lochs, which run into the interior, and of which the most remarkable are lochs Gareloch and Carron.^f The superficial extent of the two counties, exclusively of the islands that depend on Ross-shire, is not supposed to be less than 2474 square miles. But the population is so thinly scattered, that even according to the last returns, the ratio between the inhabitants and the surface is little more than 30 to the square mile.

If a narrow tract on the eastern coast be excepted, where the soil and climate are not unfavourable to vegetation, the general aspect of the country is rugged, mountainous and barren. A few patches of natural wood, and some plantations near the seats of the principal proprietors, relieve the prospect of this bleak and desolate region, subject to frequent rains in summer, and to much snow in winter. The western districts exhibit many broken summits, rocky mountains, and snowy glaciers in their deep and shaded recesses. But the numerous lakes^g in the same quarter are well adapted for fishing stations, and they are regularly visited by shoals of herrings. The principal rivers are the Conon and the Orrin, the Beaully which separates the county from Inverness-shire, and the Oickel^h which divides it from Sutherland.

Many of the farmers hold only a few acres of land with grazing ground, which is commonly contiguous, but in some instances, at a distance from their farm. They raise oats, barley for the distillation of spirits, and potatoes. It is customary for them to keep a great many cattle and horses, but for want of food, all of them are stunted in their growth, and from the same cause together with the severity of the climate, many of them perish in winter. It cannot, however, be denied that the state of the country has been improved of late years. Thus the repeal of the tax on salt has led to a more successful prosecution of the fisheries,

Cromarty. But in 1685 and 1698, George Earl of Cromarty procured by acts of parliament, the annexation of all his estates in Ross-shire to this county, giving it an extent far greater than before. The largest division, thus annexed, lies near the western coast, between Ross and Sutherland. Thirteen smaller districts are scattered through Ross-shire, even including islands on the western coast. In matters of police, this county is united with Ross, and it is placed under the jurisdiction of the sheriff of Ross.—P.

^e Gairloch and Loch Carron.—Also, Loch Broom, Loch Torridon and Loch Alsh.—P.

^g Sea lochs, or inlets.—P.

^h Ockel or Oikel.—P

^a The Spey enters the sea at the port of Garmouth, in the parish of Speymouth.—P.

^b The bishopric of Moray, comprehending the counties of Moray and Nairn, and a great part of Banff and Inverness.—P.

^c Lossiemouth—at the mouth of the Lossie, six or seven miles from Elgin. (Gaz. Scot. Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d The village of Findhorn, at the mouth of the bay, three miles distant, is its port.—P.

^e The shire of Cromarty originally consisted of a narrow tract, ten miles in length, extending along the coast of Murray Frith, south from the entrance of Cromarty Frith, in which was included the town of

and within the same recent period, many small farms have been united and let to persons of capital from different parts of Scotland; and although much opposition has been experienced, it may now be said that the system of sheep-farming, the one best adapted for the Highlands, is established in Ross-shire.

The minerals are freestone and limestone, and the latter approaches in many places to the qualities of marble. Ironstone is abundant, and according to a highland tradition, it was smelted many hundred years ago on the banks of Loch Eu. Repeated but hitherto unsuccessful attempts have been made for the discovery of coal.^a

The towns are Dingwall, Fortrose and Tain, all of them royal burghs, and all of them inconsiderable in point of population or industry. The first is situated on a plain at the west end of the Cromarty Frith, and small vessels can ascend to the town. Although the streets are paved, and many of the houses are well built, it is an ancient place, and there is reason to believe that it was formerly larger than at present. No branch of industry worthy of notice is carried on by the inhabitants, and their number does not amount to 2200. Fortrose, on the northern side of the Moray Frith, is still less populous, but it is the station from which ferry boats ply to Fort George on the opposite coast. The two forts were built after the rebellion of 1745 by George the Second, and their cross fire defends the entrance of the bay.^b Tain, on the southern coast of the Dornoch Frith, is considered the capital of Ross-shire;^c it possesses nearly 3000 inhabitants, and the only branches of industry in which they are engaged, are the spinning of flax, and the dressing of leather. The village of Ullapool, on the banks of Loch Broom, is the most important place on the western side of the county, and it was built at an expense of more than L.20,000 by the British Society for the improvement of the fisheries.

The port of Cromarty, a place of greater consequence than any in Ross-shire, is situated on the bay that bears the name of the small county and the town.^d The bay or frith, as it is commonly called, receives the waters of several lakes and mountain streams; it is deep, spacious, and sheltered on all sides. Cromarty is thus rendered one of the safest and most capacious harbours of any in the kingdom; and it is likely from its situation to become a depot of trade in the northern part of Scotland, and a place of resort to the royal navy in the northern and eastern seas. The principal manufacture, that of hempen bagging, has been estimated at L.27,000, and there are besides extensive breweries and different branches of the woollen manufacture.

The island of Lewis,^e the largest of the Hebrides that are attached to Ross-shire, may be mentioned on account of Stornoway, the principal port, which contains nearly

5000 inhabitants, most of whom find employment in the white and herring fisheries. The harbour is well frequented, and the seat of a custom-house; a packet sails regularly from it every week with the mail and passengers to the mainland.

The county of Sutherland is washed by the sea on the west, the north and the south-east; Caithness and Ross-shire are the boundaries on the north-east and south. It extends from 35 to 50 miles from north to south, and from 45 to 50 from east to west. The area, although not accurately determined, is not less than 1840 square miles, and the population relatively to the surface is not so great as fourteen persons to the square mile.

The coast, like that of the other Highland counties, is formed by a number of inlets, bold promontories, rocks and islets. The principal arms of the sea are Lochs Assynt,^f Laxford and Inchard on the west; Durness Bay, Loch Eriboll, the Kyle of Tongue,^g and the bays of Torrisdale and Strathy, on the north; and Loch Fleet in the Dornoch Frith on the south-east. The most remarkable promontories are Ru-Stoir^h on the south side of Loch Assynt, Cape Wrath on the north-west extremity of the county, Farout Head on the north, and Strathy Head on the north-east.

The interior consists of mountains, mosses or heaths, lakes and streams, and although it exhibits considerable variety of surface, the different parts resemble each other in sterility, ruggedness and the appearance of desolation. But the western side is perhaps more remarkable in this respect than any other portion of the county; no valley of any extent can be observed, and seldom a tree or shrub to vary the gloomy scene. It appears from the agricultural report, that the cultivated land, green pastures and woods do not exceed 60,000 acres, or a thirtieth part of the whole, and that the cultivated land alone is little more than one acre in a hundred.

The principal streams are the Fleet, the Brora and Helmsdale, which rise from the central part of the county, and fall into the Dornoch Frith on the south-east.ⁱ The extent of surface occupied by lakes is about 47 square miles, or 30,000 acres.

The sea has formed several large cavities in the limestone rock on the northern coast; one of them at Snow^k on the east of Durness, is about 32 yards in width and 20 in height, and another in Fraisgill is 50 feet high and 20 broad at its mouth, but it contracts gradually to its termination, a distance of more than half a mile. It has already been remarked, that with one or two exceptions the Highlands are destitute of coal; but that useful and valuable substance is included among the minerals of Sutherland, and it is worked not without profit near the banks of the Brora, where a railway has been constructed from the mines to the

^a A seam of coal, four inches thick, has been discovered on the eastern coast, near Cromarty. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b Fort George stands on a long narrow neck of land, called Ardersier Point, on the south side of Moray Frith, east of the Ness. It was begun in 1747 (after the suppression of the rebellion of 1745,) and finished in twenty years. Chanonry Ness projects into the Frith on the north side, nearly opposite Fort George, leaving comparatively a narrow passage into the upper part of the Frith. This last point extends from the town of Fortrose, and forms what are called the Links of Fortrose. The ferry is at the extremity of the point. I can find no mention of a fort on Chanonry Ness. Fort Augustus and Fort William were built at the same time with Fort George.—P.

^c It is the seat of the courts and the county jail.—P.

^d Cromarty, in Cromartyshire, is situated on the south side of the entrance of Cromarty Frith.—P.

^e Lewis and Harris form two parts of one island, connected by a narrow isthmus. Lewis is in Ross-shire, and Harris, in Inverness-shire.—P.

^f By Loch Assynt is doubtless meant the arm of the sea between Assint and Edrachilis, called Kilis (*Caolis*) or Kiliscuig (the Kyle or the Narrow Kyle.) Loch Assint is a fresh water lake in the interior of Assint.—P.

^g The Bay of Tongue. Kyle (Gaelic, *Kilis*) signifies a separation by water, an inlet or estuary.—P.

^h Great Point—also written, Row-Store. It forms the western point of Assint.—P.

ⁱ The Dornoch Frith is here made to include the whole arm of the sea between Tarbat Ness and the Ord of Caithness, and consequently the whole eastern coast of the county.—P.

^k Snow.—Smo or Smoah. (Gaz. Scot.)—P.

harbour at the mouth of the river. The other minerals are limestone, marble and sandstone. The first abounds on the coast,^a and is common in some parts of the interior. Two sorts of marble have been observed in the district of Assynt; the first, white, pure as alabaster, and of an excellent quality, has been wrought during several years at Lead-more and Lead-begg; the second sort, which is black with yellow veins, is found in Edderachylis.^b

Many boats are employed in the fisheries on the west and north coast for cod, ling, haddock and herring; and many of the small tenants, who were removed from their habitations in consequence of the introduction of sheep farming, have become fishermen on the eastern coast.^c

Dornoch, a royal burgh, situated on the south-eastern extremity of the Dornoch Frith,^d is the only town in the county, and it does not contain 700 inhabitants. Golspie, Helmsdale and Brora are the principal villages.

Caithness is the most northern county on the mainland of Great Britain. If the island of Stroma in the Pentland Frith, which is politically attached to it, be included, the surface is not less than 620 square miles,^e and the population relatively to the surface is at present more than fifty-five persons to the square mile. A fourth part of the surface is mountainous, more than a half consists of moss or heath, and not more than the eighth part is cultivated.^f It may be added that it formed part of Sutherland until the year 1807, when it was made a separate county under the jurisdiction of a sheriff.^g The boundaries are the Pentland Frith on the north, the Moray Frith and the German Ocean on the east, and the Ord of Caithness on the south.^h The last promontory or its southern limit separates it from Sutherland,ⁱ to which Caithness is contiguous on the south-west and west. On account of the northern situation of the county, the phenomenon of constant twilight may be observed about the summer solstice; but the climate is by no means insalubrious. Westerly winds prevail nearly three quarters of the year, and the annual quantity of rain is very considerable. According to the celebrated Pennant, the whole county was formerly a morass,^k but it is certain that even in the present day many trunks of trees are dug from the mosses. The surface, it has been already seen, is uneven, and the highest summits or the Paps of Caithness are more than 1900 feet above the level of the sea. The coasts are broken by numerous bays and promontories, and penetrated in several places by extensive caverns, which are frequented by seals. It is supposed that about 10,000 acres are covered by lakes or water, but none of the lakes occupy so great a surface as two miles in length by one in breadth. The principal river, or the Thurso, which rises from the confines of Sutherland, has a course of about thirty miles, and is navigable a short distance for small vessels. The

others, or the waters of Wick, Forss and Wester, are not navigable.

Although copper and lead have been discovered, the minerals on the whole are of little value. The same may be said of the manufactures, for although repeated attempts have been made to introduce them, none appear to have succeeded. Fishing and agriculture are the chief occupations of the inhabitants. The annual revenue derived from the herring, cod, lobster and salmon fisheries amounts to L.45,000, and of that sum, more than L.40,000 are obtained from the herring fishery alone. Many boats are likewise employed in the creeks and bays in fishing for haddock, ling and other fish that are consumed in the county, and several smacks sail every year from Gravesend to the cod fisheries on the northern coast.

Different agricultural improvements have been introduced within a comparatively recent period, and perhaps the most important is the successful introduction of the Cheviot sheep by Sir John Sinclair. But other improvements may yet be effected; the implements of husbandry are still extremely rude; the harrows consist entirely of wood, and there is only a thin plate of iron on the plough to prevent it from wearing by the friction of the soil. There are no granaries or barns, and the thrashing mill is almost unknown. The crops are barley and oats alternately on the old tillage lands, and four or five successive crops of grey oats on the outfield or inferior land. Wheat has been tried in a few places, but it appears to be ill adapted to the climate. An act of parliament was passed about thirty years ago for commuting the statute labour, under which L.550 have been annually expended on the repair of roads, and within a still later period, the proprietors have availed themselves of the aid granted to the northern counties, by which one half of the estimated expense of the great lines of road is defrayed by government. Thus, a communication has been formed from the Ord of Caithness to Wick, and from Wick to Thurso.

Wick and Thurso are the only towns. The former is situated at the mouth of the river of the same name, on the German Ocean. It contains about 1200 inhabitants. The harbour, which was formerly very inconvenient, has been much improved; piers, quays and dry docks have been constructed at an expense of L.12,000, and in consequence of these works, Wick has become an important fishing station. Thurso, a place of nearly 2000 inhabitants, is situated on the north-west coast of Caithness, at the head of a spacious bay, the estuary of the Thurso. The town consists of two parts; the houses and streets on the east of the river are old and irregularly built, but several modern buildings have been erected on the western bank.^l The same place is a port of the custom house, and it reckons about

^a The west coast is in a great measure formed of limestone. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b Assynt (Assint) and Edderachylis are two districts on the west coast of Sutherland; the former on the south, the latter on the north of *Kiliscuig*. Leadmore (Great Plain) and Leadbeg (Little Plain) are in Assynt.—P.

^c At Helmsdale, under the patronage of the Marquis of Stafford. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d On the north side of Dornoch Frith, nearly opposite Tain.—P.

^e 697 square miles. (Sinclair's Gen. Rep.)—P.

^f About one fifth cultivated and in green pasture. (Sinclair.)—P.

^g Is there not a mistake in the date? Let the reader compare the following statements. "Caithness was formerly part of Sutherland, but is now a separate shire." (Britannia Fortior, 1709.) "The Earl of Breadalbane is hereditary sheriff of Caithness. Wick is the residence of the sheriff, or his officer (substitute.) The Earls of Sutherland are hereditary sheriffs of Sutherland. By the act of Union (1707)

Bute and Caithness were joined in sending representatives to Parliament." (Chamberlayne's Mag. Brit. Notit. 1737.) "James IV. (1489—1514) appointed the sheriffs of Caithness to reside at Dornoch, or else at Wick, as occasion should require." (Camden's Britannia, Gibson's Edit.)—P.

^h The North Sea and the Pentland Frith on the north; the German Ocean on the east and south-east; Sutherland on the west and south-west; and on the south, terminating in a point at the Ord of Caithness.—P.

ⁱ The Ord is merely a point of land, on which the line between Sutherland and Caithness meets the German Ocean.—P.

^k "Caithness may be termed an immense morass, interspersed with some fruitful spots, but poorly cultivated." (Pennant's First Tour.)—P.

^l The town of Thurso is irregularly built, but very elegant houses have been erected to the south of the old town. (Ed. Enc.)—The town of Thurso stood on the west bank of the river in 1798, and was

thirty-six decked vessels, of which more than twelve belong to the town.^a

Two groups, the Orkney and Shetland or Zetland Islands, form the most northern county of Great Britain. The former are separated from Caithness by the Pentland Frith, a strait which varies in breadth from six to twelve miles.

Fair Isle and Foula are situated between Orkney and Shetland; the former is about twenty-four miles to the south, and the latter, which has been supposed to be the Thule of Tacitus, about twenty miles to the west of the Shetland group. Both of them are included in the same group, from which they may be distinctly seen in clear weather, and from which Fair Isle is more than thirty miles distant.^b

The Orkneys, it has been computed, contain 384,000 acres, a calculation which is probably above the truth, and it is also said that 300,000 acres are waste lands or covered with water. The Shetland Islands are perhaps twice as large, but in the whole of them not more than 22,000 acres are cultivated. As no correct survey has been taken of these islands, as their forms are very irregular, and as they are indented almost in every direction by arms of the sea, it is impossible to estimate their superficies with any thing like accuracy.

The Orcades or Orkneys, exclusively of insulated rocks, which bear little or no herbage, make up a group of sixty-seven islands, but of these not more than thirty are inhabited; the others, or holms^c as they are called, afford only scanty pastures for cattle. South Ronaldshay, the most southern of the inhabited islands, is about twenty-four square miles in extent, and contains nearly 1700 inhabitants, most of whom are employed in agriculture or in the manufacture of kelp. Hoy, on the north-west of it, is probably twice as large, but it does not contain a third part of the inhabitants; the ground indeed is not nearly so fruitful, the greater part of it being lofty,^d or covered with heath. Burray, on the north of South Ronaldshay, from which it is separated by a channel about a mile in breadth, produces grain, green crops and good pastures, but it is only three square miles in extent.^e Mainland or Pomona, the largest of the Orkneys, is situated on the north of the last; it contains more than two hundred square miles; it extends 30 miles from east to west, and in the same island are situated the towns of Kirkwall and Stromness. Shapinsay and Rousay, each about ten or twelve square miles, consist partly of arable, and partly of pasture lands. Still further north are Stronsay and Eday, the former about sixteen square miles in extent, the latter about twelve, and both of them containing a considerable proportion of productive

very irregularly built, but Sir J. Sinclair then proposed to feu a tract for building, on the south side of the town. Thurso Castle stood on the east bank of the river, nearly opposite the town. (Sir J. Sinclair. Stat. Acc.)—P.

^a Twenty decked vessels belong to the town. (Ed. Enc. 1831.)—P.

^b If, as the construction seems to require, the writer means to say that both these islands are included in the Shetland group, he has contradicted himself; for in the first sentence, he says, Fair Isle is 24 miles south of that group, and in the second, 30 miles distant from it. The following statements will explain the matter. "Fair-Isle is situated about 24 miles to the south of the Mainland in Shetland, and Foula about 20 miles to the west." (Ed. Enc.)—"The Fair Isle (*Fara*) is 30 miles distant from the most northerly of the Orkney Islands." (Stat. Acc. xiv.)—*Fara* or the Fair Isle, and Foula (Fowla.) *Fula* (Fule) or the Foul Isle, are isolated islands, not included in the Shetland group, but politically dependent on it; *Fara* being included in Dunrossness parish, and Foula, in Walls and Sandness parish, both on the Mainland of Shetland. The terminations *a, e, ay, ey*, in the Scottish

land. The former possesses two good harbours, and the manufacture of kelp in the latter affords employment to many of the inhabitants. Sanday lies on the north-east, and Westray on the north-west of the two last.^f The first, although only nineteen square miles in extent, has a population of nearly 1900 persons, being naturally productive, and yielding about a fifth part of all the kelp made in Orkney. North Ronaldshay, the most northern of the Orkneys, lies about three miles to the north of Sanday, and on a surface of nearly six square miles, contains about 550 inhabitants. As the superficial extent of the Orkneys must still be considered unknown, the relation between the population and the surface cannot be determined, but it is not probably less than fifty persons to the square mile.

The ancients were not wholly ignorant of these islands, which appear to have been the subject of many errors and fables. Pliny makes their number amount to forty, and Solinus affirms them to be uninhabitable, and covered with reeds. According to Ossian, they formed a powerful kingdom, and those who believe not only in his poems, but can determine the period in which the bard flourished, may from that fact form some notion of the other *powerful kingdoms* then established in Scotland. It is probable that the Picts possessed them until the subversion of their kingdom in the year 838.^g From that period until the end of the eleventh century, when they were made over to Norway, they were under the dominion of the kings of Scotland. They were exposed to frequent aggressions from the Scots, the Norwegians and the Danes, until the marriage of James the Third with Margaret of Norway, who obtained them as her dowry. The Orcadians speak English with a Scottish accent; the upper classes are polished and hospitable; the lower orders, although much addicted to superstition, are bold and adventurous, patient of fatigue and inured to hardships. The exports are oxen, sheep and kelp; the imports are different articles of consumption, and of these, the most important are coal and iron.

Kirkwall in the island of Pomona, the capital of the county, is small, dirty and ill built. It is said to have been founded in 1138 by Ronwald, count of Norway,^h and among its antiquities are the ruins of an ancient fortress and palace.ⁱ The cathedral, which is still entire, and used as a parish church, is a fine Gothic edifice. The harbour lies opposite a spacious and safe roadstead, and is defended by a fort that was built by Cromwell. An excellent port is all that is worthy of notice in the small town of Stromness on the southern side of the same island.

The inhabitants of the Shetland Islands are robust, well made, and of a sun-burnt or swarthy complexion. Not less

Islands, are the Danish, *ae*, island. *Fara* (Dan. *Faaræe*) is Sheep Island, and *Fula* (Dan. *Fuglæe*), Bird Island.—P.

^c *Holm* is a Danish word, signifying islet.—P.

^d Hoy (Dan. *høi-øe*, high-island) contains a mountain group of three summits; the highest, 1600 feet high. These mountains consist of sandstone, a formation which includes the whole of the Orkneys, except a small tract of granite, of little elevation, at Stromness, in the south-west corner of the Mainland.—P.

^e It is four miles long, and from one to two broad. (Gen. Rep.)—P.

^f Rather of Eday.—P.

^g The Pictish kingdom was subverted by Kenneth II. in 843.—P.

^h The cathedral was founded by Rognvald (Ronald,) Count (Earl—Dan. *Jarl*) of Orkney, in 1138. (Stat. Acc. vii. Ed. Enc.)—Rognvald was a Norwegian, the father of Rolf (Rollo), conqueror of Normandy, and the first Earl (jarl) of Orkney.—P.

ⁱ The Castle of Kirkwall (founded by Henry St. Clair, the first Earl of the Sinclair family, near the close of the 14th century,) the Earl's Palace and the Bishop's Palace.—P.

hospitable than their neighbours the Orcadians, they are equally bold and regardless of danger. It is customary for them to marry early, and nothing is more rare than celibacy. A small hut, one or two blankets, a single cow, a pot to boil provisions, and a spade to labour the ground, make up the most valuable property of many who enter into the married state. The language,^a laws, dress, manners and customs of the inhabitants, are the same as in the north of Scotland. The number of islands is 86, but more than a half of them are not inhabited. The most important are the Mainland, Yell, Unst, Whalsay, Bressay, Bur-

ray, House,^b Fetlar, Mickle and Little Roe, Skerries^c and Noss.

Lerwick and Scalloway, the only towns, are both of them situated in Mainland. The first is a place of rendezvous for the vessels engaged in the whale-fishery, and the second is provided with a commodious harbour. The origin of these islanders has given rise to different conjectures; it appears, however, that they are sprung from a Norwegian colony. Their small archipelago and the Orkneys were annexed at the same period to the Scottish crown.

^a The language of the Shetland and Orkney Islands and of Caithness was originally Norse. It is now English, with provincial peculiarities, which in Shetland particularly, are said to have little resemblance to the Scotch dialect. The names of places are mostly of Norse origin.—P.

^b Burray and House are parallel to each other, and are connected by a bridge.—P.

^c The Out Skerries—a cluster of islets and rocks, at some distance to the east of the Mainland. They are the easternmost of the group, as Unst is the most northern (and the most northern part of the British Home Dominions—60° 52' N.)—P

BOOK CLVII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Description of Ireland.—Boundaries.—Nature of the Country.—Harbours.—Rivers.—Islands, &c.

THE undeviating progress of civilization towards the west has gradually brought Ireland into historical notoriety. Scarcely known but by name to the writers of classic antiquity, seldom noticed in the earliest ages of Christianity except as a place of refuge from persecution, and, even at a later period, cited chiefly in the annals of ecclesiastical literature, its central position in one of the main circuits of commercial activity, and its connexion with the greatest maritime power in the world, have latterly invested it with a character of importance sufficient to entitle it to an enlarged share of attention. The many peculiarities of its physical and political constitution will amply repay the inquirer for the time and labour of investigation.

The island of Ireland, the second in magnitude of those considered as belonging to Europe, is situated to the north-west of that continent, and due west of the larger island of Great Britain, between the latitudes of $51^{\circ} 26'$ and $55^{\circ} 20'$ north, and the longitudes of $5^{\circ} 28'$ and $10^{\circ} 27'$ west. The Atlantic Ocean surrounds it on all sides but the eastern, on which it is separated from the island just mentioned by a confined arm of the sea, of which the southern extremity is known by the name of St. George's Channel, the centre expands into the Irish Sea, and the northern part is again contracted into the narrow strait of the Northern passage.^a Its geographical position gives it great commercial advantages. An uninterrupted expanse of sea admits an easy communication with the northern regions of Europe,^b the north-west of Africa, and the entire line of the eastern shore of the transatlantic continent as far south as the empire of Brazil, including the whole of the West Indian archipelago; the numerous and spacious gulfs and harbours by which its western and southern coasts are indented, afford a safe refuge from all those quarters to the vessels which the prevalence of westerly winds, and the influence of the great gulf stream, necessarily impel upon its coasts in their progress to any of the northern parts of Europe, while its proximity to all the great continental emporiums of commerce, presents an equally commodious vent for its natural productions, or its imported commodities. These great advantages will be

still more clearly perceptible from an enlarged description of the principal features of the country; and, as from its insulated situation, those connected with its maritime position must be considered as the most important, the investigation will best be commenced by an examination of the local peculiarities of its several bays, harbours, and other naval stations, as they would present themselves to an inquirer in a circumnavigation of the island made for this special object.

Commencing with Dublin, as well because this city is the metropolis of the island, as because, in consequence of the progress of steam navigation, it has become a great focus of communication with the manufacturing districts of Great Britain—Dublin Bay is formed by the mouth of the Liffey, a river of little importance beyond what it derives from the city seated upon its banks: the bay, open to the east, is confined on its northern side by the hilly peninsula of Howth, while to the south it is bounded by a low and undulating shore extending to the Killiney hills that form its southern extremity. Its extent across the mouth is eight miles, and its inland depth about nine. The passage of large vessels to the quays of Dublin is prevented by a bar at the river's mouth, over which the depth of water at high spring tides is but sixteen feet. To remedy this defect of nature, recourse has been unavailingly had to art. A wall has been built on each side of the river so as to confine its waters, by preventing them from spreading over the adjacent low lands, in the hope of thus diminishing the bar by the increased impulse of an accumulated body of water. The wall on the northern side is of small extent; that to the south projects in the form of a broad carriage road upwards of a mile into the sea, where its termination is marked by a fort used as a depot for heavy guns and other military stores. A massive pier of solid masonry is carried out from this spot nearly two miles further, where it is terminated by a light-house.^c

Experience having at length led to a conviction of the impossibility of removing the natural impediments in the mouth of the river that preclude the hope of rendering it a place of resort for vessels of heavy burden, the formation of a safety harbour in the vicinity suggested itself. A position on the north of the promontory of Howth was selected;^d but, after the expenditure of nearly a million sterling, the harbour has been found to be ill

^a North Channel.—P.

^b Rather the western, particularly France, Spain and Portugal, on the south.—P.

^c It extends 7938 feet (more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile,) 40 feet wide, to the

VOL. III.—NO. 61 77

Block-house; thence 9816 feet (nearly two miles), 28 feet wide at the top, to the Light-house. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d Howth harbour.

adapted for its intended object, and is now used solely as a station for the packets which ply between Dublin and Holyhead, and as an occasional shelter for the neighbouring fishing craft. Another situation was then chosen. A safety harbour has been nearly completed on the southern shore, to the west of the Killiney hills, at Dunleary, now called Kingstown, as being the place whence the late king embarked on leaving Ireland. The harbour is formed by two piers extending into the sea and gradually approaching at their outer extremities: it has depth of water sufficient for vessels of large size, and is already the place to which ships of this description steer, when either their commercial engagements or stress of weather direct them to Dublin.

Upon quitting Kingstown harbour and proceeding southwards from Dublin Bay along the eastern coast of Leinster, the small and uninhabited island of Dalkey^a presents itself, remarkable for little more than the recollections of times long past, when it formed the outer side of a port at which the chief governors of the country frequently landed and embarked, and where merchants deposited their cargoes intended for the Dublin market. The traces of its former importance are still discernible on the adjoining mainland in the ruins of several castles, which served as places of storage for securing the property deposited in them from the incursions of the neighbouring tribes of native Irish who inhabited the Wicklow mountains. The only harbours between those of Dublin and Wexford are at Wicklow and Arklow, suited merely for small craft. That of Wexford, though spacious and deep, is obstructed by a bar at its entrance, on which there is at times not more than seven feet water: it is also rendered unsafe by several shifting sand-banks. The navigation through the whole of this part of the channel is peculiarly hazardous to strangers on account of the shoals which lie along the coast, although due precaution has been taken to warn them of the danger by floating lights placed at each extremity; the northern is called the Kish,^b the southern the Star light. The port of Wicklow is also marked by two light-houses.

On turning southward by Carnsore Point, which also is marked by a light-house far out at sea on the Tuscar rock, the Saltees become visible, two uninhabited islands, near which some concealed rocks and shoals are also indicated by a floating light. Beyond these a few small islets present themselves, fit only for fishing stations. Among them the estuary of the river Bannow may be noticed as being the spot where the little band of Cambrian English,^c by their successful invasion, laid the foundation of a total change of the political destinies of the country.

The first harbour of importance on the southern coast is that of Waterford, being in fact an estuary formed by the three great rivers, Suir, Nore and Barrow; it is of

sufficient depth to admit large vessels to discharge their cargoes at the quay of Waterford city.^d Within this estuary is also the harbour of Dunmore, formed artificially at considerable expense for the purpose of facilitating the commercial intercourse between this part of Ireland and Bristol, which is regularly maintained by means of steam-vessels: it is likewise the station for the post-office packets that ply to Milford-Haven. The pier extends 700 yards from the cliff in four fathoms at low water, enclosing an area of six acres. Vessels of fifteen feet draft may lie afloat here at all times.

Tramore Bay, further west, though sufficiently capacious for a large fleet, is cautiously avoided by sailors. The similarity of its entrance to that of Waterford often deludes the inexperienced mariner, who, when too late, finds himself locked up in a situation whence egress is nearly impossible, and safety as nearly hopeless from the total want of places of shelter for large ships.

Dungarvan Bay,^e though extensive, is too shallow for large vessels; it is therefore little more than a fishing station. The same may be said of Youghal,^f the next in succession, the entrance of which is likewise impeded by a bar, having on it only five feet water at low, and but thirteen at high water neaps. Ballycotton Bay is wholly unsheltered, and is distinguished by two small uninhabited islands at its entrance.

Next in succession westward, and among the most important in size and value, is Cork harbour, whose narrow entrance, guarded on each side by heavy batteries, expands into a magnificent and deep basin in which a numerous fleet may set at defiance the fury of the elements in their most tempestuous mood. The entrance is further marked by a brilliant light on Roche's tower at the eastern side.^g Within the harbour are three islands. On Great Island, the largest of them, constituting a parish in itself, and containing a population of 9400 souls, is built the town of Cove,^h the great mercantile emporium of Cork; for, while ships of every size can discharge here, none drawing more than ten or eleven feet water can proceed as far as the city of Cork, which lies several miles inland on the river Lee.ⁱ Spike Island and Hawlbowlng,^k the two others, are used as naval depositories, for which purpose they have been fortified at a very great expense.^l

The next harbour of note is that of Kinsale.^m Vessels of every size may lie in safety within it, although there is a bar at the entrance with but twelve feet water at low spring-tides. This harbour is marked by a large light at the entrance, while a smaller in the interior indicates the place of anchorage for large vessels within.ⁿ Cloghnakilty^o and Castlehaven harbours are fit for small vessels only; the former contains Inchidony island, having a population of 2090 souls. The harbour of Baltimore affords protection for ships of every size, and is

^a Dalkey Island lies off Dalkey Point, the southern limit of Dublin Bay, and is separated from the mainland by a narrow channel, called Dalkey Sound, in which there is good anchorage. (Malham's Nav. Gaz.)—P.

^b Kishbank floating light, moored off Dublin Bay—a vessel carrying three lanterns. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c Robert Fitzstephen, with 390 followers, from S. Wales. He was constable of Aberteivi (Cardigan,) then occupied by Henry II.—P.

^d Waterford is on the south side of the Suir, which joins the Barrow and the Nore below the town.—P.

^e Dungarvon Bay.

^f Youghal Bay is at the mouth of the Blackwater.—P.

^g Cork Harbour, or Roche's Point light-house—one stationary light, with red coloured shades to seaward. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^h Usually called the Cove of Cork.—P.

ⁱ The bay or harbour is 7 or 8 miles below the city. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k Haul Bowlng Island. (Malham.)—P.

^l The fortifications on Spike Island are said to have cost a million sterling. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^m Kinsale Harbour is at the mouth of the Bandon.—P.

ⁿ There is a light-house at Charles' Fort, which defends the entrance of the harbour, and another on the Old Head of Kinsale, about five miles south. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^o Clonakilty Harbour. (Bell.)—Clonekilly Bay, (Malham.)—P.

easy of access to vessels bound either eastward or westward, as there are from twelve to nineteen fathoms water at the entrance. The island of Cape Clear or Clare Island contributes much to ensure the safety of vessels which take advantage of this port. The island was once considered to be a cape on the mainland, and as such was marked as being the most southern point of Ireland;^a but incorrectly, for it is separated from the mainland by the sound or channel of Gaskenane, which is about seven miles across. Cape Clear Island measures five miles from north-east to south-west: it is a parish within itself, maintaining a population of 886 souls. Several singular peculiarities connected with it are worthy of notice. It rises high above the surrounding ocean, encompassed with inaccessible cliffs, excepting only where two small inlets serving for harbours, nearly intersect it from north to south. Nature has been peculiarly bountiful to its inhabitants, by providing them with a small but perennial fresh-water lake, endowed with the peculiar quality of purifying in a few days any thing thrown into it: casks which had contained train oil, after lying in it a short time, have been rendered fit to hold milk. The natives were remarkable for size and strength. The thigh-bone of one of the O'Driscoll family, which long claimed the superiority here, is still preserved, and has been pronounced to belong to a man at least seven feet high. Fishing is the sole occupation of the people. The men go out to sea in open boats on Tuesdays to the distance of from twenty to thirty leagues, guiding their venturous course by the stars; returning on Friday or Saturday, they transfer the whole of their cargoes to the women, on whom devolve not only the subsequent labours of curing and disposing of the fish, but all the processes of agricultural industry. Formerly, and even within the last half century, the islanders elected a king from among themselves, to whose decisions, regulated by a code of laws handed down by tradition, unqualified obedience was conceded. But the late era of political revolutions, amongst other changes, has swept away the dynasty of the monarchs of Clear Island. The regal title is no longer known; the regal authority no longer recognised; and of the whole code of laws concocted by the collected wisdom of the islanders, nothing now remains but a few isolated customs. By one of these, strangers are prohibited from settling in the island; by another, offences of a deep dye are punished by exportation from it. Between Clear Island and the mainland is Sherkin Island,^b close to the shore.

The coast between Baltimore and Dunmanus Bay is marked by a number of islands, most of which, though small, are inhabited, but, from their vicinity to the mainland, and the consequent frequency of intercourse with strangers, their residents are not noted for those peculiarities of character or manners that mark the hardy islanders of Cape Clear. Within this space is Crookhaven, a fine harbour, though narrow, with water sufficiently deep for large ships, and always tranquil except during eastern gales.

^a Cape Clear is on an island of the same name, and forms the most southern point of Ireland. (Ed. Enc.)—Geographers, in calling it the most southern point of Ireland, do not consider it a part of the mainland, but the most southern point of land dependent on Ireland. Fastnet Rock is, however, about two leagues W. by S. of it.—P.

^b Inisherkin (Malham)—on the north-east, near Baltimore Point.—*Inis* (Welsh, *Ynys*) is a Gaelic word signifying island. Prefixed to names in Scotland and Ireland, it is spelt variously, viz. Inis, Innis, Inish, Inch, Enis, Ennis. *Ynys* is still used in the Welsh; but in present use, the Gaelic dialects have adopted the English word *island* (Ir. *oilean*, Sc. *eilean*, M. *ellan*).—P.

^c Mizzen Head is the south-west point of the mainland of Ireland.—P.

Passing by Brow Head, the most southern point of Ireland, and Mizzen Head,^c supposed to be the *Notium promontorium* of Ptolemy,^d Dunmanus Bay presents itself, having deep water and good anchorage, yet but little frequented, except by small vessels, as being exposed to the western gales, which here are very prevalent. To the north of this is Bantry Bay, large, safe and commodious for every kind of shipping; the stream of tide is scarcely felt in it; the water is deep almost close to the shore on both sides, nor are there any rocks from which danger can be apprehended. At its north-eastern extremity is Whiddy Island; in its western part are Glengariff, a small port, and Berehaven, a fine and safe harbour, well sheltered by Bere Island, which lies contiguous to it.^e Both these islands^f are inhabited; the former containing a population of 590, the latter of 2110 souls. This bay is celebrated in the most ancient period of Irish history, as the place where the Milesian colony landed, and in modern times not less so, as the point to which the French fleet directed its course, for the purpose of invasion, in the winter of 1796.^g

At Dursley Island the coast assumes a more decidedly northern direction. On passing it, are the bays of Ballydonaghan and Quolagh, both with deep water, yet little frequented on account of their numerous rocks. In Kenmare River, a large estuary, with abundance of water and sure anchorage, are the harbours of Ardgrome and Kilmickalogue, each suited to the reception of large ships.

Ballinskellig Bay^h has the Skelig Islands at its northern extremity.ⁱ These are merely barren uninhabited rocks, the largest marked by a light-house; yet they are of historic, or rather of romantic notoriety. The ancient traditions of the country record the death of one of the sons of Milesius, by drowning, near them. They are much frequented by gannets. It is even said that they are the only places on the Irish coast on which these birds light to lay their eggs. The fact, if true, may serve to explain an old tradition recorded by Keating, the Irish historian, concerning them, which states that a certain attractive quality in the soil draws down the birds that attempt to fly over them.

The sound between Valentia Island and the mainland of Kerry forms a deep and safe harbour, which has plenty of water, and is well sheltered. The island itself is about nine miles long, and has a population of 2130 souls, the greatest proportion of whom exist in a state of extreme poverty.

In Dingle Bay, which includes the harbours of Castlemain, Ventry and Dingle, a vessel may anchor in any part within a mile of the shore, which is steep on every side. To the north of this bay are the Blasquet or Ferriter Islands, twelve in number; most of them are merely barren rocks. A vessel of the Spanish armada of 1000 tons burden foundered here, and but two of the crew were saved.^k

^d Some have supposed Cape Clear to be the *Notium* of Ptolemy.—P.
^e Beerhaven and Beer Island. (Malham.) Bearhaven and Bear Island. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f Whiddy Island and Bere Island.—P.

^g The French fleet anchored in Bantry Bay, Dec. 24th, 1796.—P.

^h Ballynaskellig Bay. (Bell.)—P.

ⁱ The Skelligs, Skelligs or Shellocks are three large rocks, west of the entrance of Ballynaskellig Bay, and S. W. of Valentia Island, about twelve miles from the mainland. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k Dunmore Head is the west point of the peninsula of Dingle, as well as of Europe; off it lie the Blasquet Islands. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

Smerwick Bay,^a although open to the north and north-west, affords good shelter for large vessels. The Spaniards built a fort here during the wars in Elizabeth's reign; it was ultimately taken by the English, and all the Spaniards in the garrison, except the officers, were slaughtered in cold blood. Tralee Bay also admits vessels of large tonnage.

The estuary of the Shannon, eight miles wide at its mouth, and extending many miles inland, lies between Kerry Head and Loop Head, on the latter of which there is a light-house. Vessels of large tonnage can proceed up it as far as Limerick. Besides this principal port there are numerous inlets on each side, affording shelter for smaller vessels, and commercial advantages to the adjoining districts. Among the many islets with which this estuary abounds, that of Inniscattery is peculiarly celebrated in monastic records, on account of being the chosen residence of St. Senanus, and for the exclusion of women from its hallowed precincts.

The shores between Loop Head and Galway Bay are chiefly comprehended within Malbay, justly so named, for a vessel driven into it by stress of weather, has but little chance of escaping shipwreck.

The entrance of the magnificent bay of Galway is sheltered by the islands of Arran,^b on both sides of which ample scope is afforded for the admission of vessels of every description, but the prevalence of western winds rendered egress at times extremely difficult, until this check to its nautical utility was removed by the application of steam power. Like the estuary of the Shannon, it has many havens or inlets in its interior adequate to the accommodation of smaller vessels. The islands of Arran are three: Arranmore, Inismain and Inishere. The ruins of ancient structures still existing on them, particularly on the largest, afford reasonable confirmation of the traditional opinion that these islands were the chosen seats of superstitious ceremonies before the introduction of Christianity. During the invasions of the Danes, they suffered much from the piratical assaults of these marauders, and even so lately as the period of the civil wars that desolated Ireland in 1641,^c they were deemed of sufficient importance to be the subject of a special capitulation by which they were surrendered to the parliamentary forces. The population of the islands is as follows: Arranmore 2276, Inismain 386, and Inishere 417. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in fishing, but there are in them several landholders in easy circumstances.

Cashin Bay, Kilkeeran Bay,^d Birterbuy Bay,^e and Roundstone Bay, which succeed each other closely on the west of Galway Bay, are each capable of sheltering the largest ships, and are the only good harbours for such vessels along the north-western coast from the Shannon to Lough Swilly. Roundstone Bay would contain and shelter the whole navy of England.

The line of coast hence to Clew Bay consists of indentations suited to accommodate ships of moderate burden. The principal are named Ardbean, Clifden, Kingstown, Cleggan, Ballynakill, and Killery. Along the coast are the islands of Inishark, Innisbofin and Innisturk, containing respectively 130, 1050, and 456 souls.

Clew Bay is from fifteen to seventeen miles long and about seven broad; its entrance is protected for about one third of its breadth by Clare Island; its interior is occupied by a collection of small islets more than 100 in number, among which, and in the adjoining creeks and islets of the mainland, is a variety of safe roadsteads and harbours. Verbal description, without the aid of a chart, would be wholly inadequate to convey a satisfactory idea of those valuable harbours. The average depth of water throughout the bay is fifteen fathoms. The chief ports in the interior are Newport and Westport, both places of late formation and of rapidly increasing wealth. The islands and channels near the latter are screened from the violence of the sea by a very singular natural breakwater of shingle and boulder-stones, which, with little interruption, extends nearly to Newport. In this line of beach are six openings, the most important of which, as forming the main channel, is marked by a light-house built and maintained wholly at the expense of the proprietor of the surrounding lands.

The island of Achil, or Eagle Island, so named from the great resort of eagles to it, divides Clew Bay from Blacksod Bay, and is the largest on the Irish coast. It contains an area of 22,000 acres, and is inhabited by a population of 3880 souls, who procure a wretched and precarious subsistence from the herring fishery. The land is hilly, with little arable ground, but peculiarly adapted for the fattening of sheep. It is separated from the mainland by a narrow gut so shallow at one part as to be easily crossed on foot at low water.

Blacksod Bay has water sufficient, and tolerable shelter for any ship. North of it are the small islands of Enniskea,^f and still further, that of Eagle Island, whence the coast, taking a new direction, trends due east by Broadhaven and Killala Bay to Sligo harbour. Broadhaven has depth of water but not scope sufficient for any number of large vessels; Killala Bay is barred by a bank covered by not more than four feet water at low spring tides. A small body of French landed here without opposition in the autumn of 1798.^g Sligo Bay is about five miles across at its mouth, and as much inland; it branches into three inlets, of which the only one of importance is that leading to Sligo, where a vessel will float in ten feet at high water.

Donegal Bay is of great extent, containing within it several harbours, the principal of which are Ballyshannon on the south, the entrance to which is dangerous, and Donegal, Inver and Killibegs on the northern side; of these the last named only is fit for large vessels. Although the coast of Donegal, hence to Lough Swilly, forms a succession of creeks, none of them are of sufficient importance to invite particular notice. Off the coast are many islands, the most remarkable of which are North Arranmore,^h on which is a light-house, Inismadun or Rutland, Croit Island and Tory Island. This last named island is ten miles off the coast. It is not more than three miles long by one broad, and maintains 300 inhabitants, who live in the most simple state. They choose their own chief judge, and yield implicit obedience to his mandate, issued from a seat of turf. So little intercourse have the natives with the mainland, that of a boat's crew of seven or eight men, who were driven on the

^a Corrupted from St. Mary Wick Bay. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b South Arran Islands, or South Isles of Arran.—P.

^c The civil war, or rather rebellion, which commenced in Oct. 1641, and was repressed by Cromwell in 1651-2.—P.

^d Kilkerran Bay. (Bell.)—P.

^e Batterby Bay. (Malham.) Butterby Bay. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f North and South Inishkea. (Bell.)—P.

^g A body of 900 men, under the command of General Humbert—Aug. 22, 1798.—P.

^h North Arranmore (Great Arran) is the largest of a group, called the North Isles of Arran.—P.

shore by stress of weather, not one had been in Ireland before. The appearance of the trees astonished them, and they collected small branches and leaves to exhibit to their friends on their return.

After passing Horn Head, which takes its name from two sharp projections on the summit of the cliff, Sheep Bay^a presents itself. It is much exposed to the north and north-western blasts, but the largest ships may ride in Dunfanaghy Bay in it. Mulroy Bay, the next in succession, also admits vessels of every description, but the difficulty of entrance deters many from trying the experiment.

Lough Swilly and Lough Foyle, which succeed one another on the Donegal coast, are the finest harbours on the northern shores of Ireland. It may here be mentioned, that in Ireland the name of *lough*, as in Scotland that of *loch*,^b is not confined to inland sheets of water wholly detached from the main ocean, but is applied, as in the present instance, to such indentations of the sea as have narrow mouths, and trench deeply into the land. Such is peculiarly the case with Lough Swilly. It penetrates twenty-five miles into the interior, branching out into several lesser bays. In its centre is the large island of Inch, containing 1094 inhabitants.

The form of Lough Foyle, which lies between the counties of Donegal and Derry,^c is somewhat similar to that of Lough Swilly. The city of Londonderry is situated at its southern extremity, at the mouth of the river Foyle. Off Malin Head is the island of Ennistrahul,^d distinguished by a light-house.

Passing by some smaller bays, and a group of islands near the coast, called the Skerries, and also the precipitous shores in the vicinity of the Giant's Causeway, the next port of consequence is that of Ballycastle, between Bengore Head and Fair Head, at the mouth of the Glensesk river. Its importance is derived, not so much from the magnitude or convenience of the harbour, as from the efforts made to render it a place of export for the coal raised in the neighbourhood. A pier quay was erected for this purpose. But the efforts of ingenuity against the gigantic powers of nature were unavailing. The pier has been washed away by the influx of the great Deucealedonian Ocean,^e and the colliery is now nearly abandoned. The port, however, is in some degree protected from the fury of the ocean by the island of Rathlin or Ragherly, the *Ricnea* of Pliny, and the *Ricina* of Ptolemy, extending in the form of a crescent, with its tips towards the mainland, from which it is separated by a strait six miles wide. It is five miles in length, and half as many broad, affording subsistence to a hardy and industrious population of 1100 inhabitants. Such is their attachment to the place of their nativity, that one of their worst wishes to a neighbour who has injured them is, that he may end his days in Ireland. Kelp is made here in considerable quan-

ties, and the soil, where cultivated, produces good barley. In it are several curious arrangements of basaltic pillars, like those of the Giant's Causeway. This island formerly belonged to the Danes or Norwegians. It afforded shelter for some time to Robert Bruce during the period of his adversity. The ruins of the castle in which he defended himself so gallantly against his rival Baliol,^f are still in existence.

From Fair Head and Tor Point the coast turns southwards, and the northern channel^g commences, the breadth of which, measured from the latter of those promontories to the Mull of Cantyre, is but twelve miles.^h

The subsequent ports or havens along the Antrim shore, conspicuous as they may be in the tablets of the tourist, are but of little note in the consideration of the navigator. Larne presents an excellent harbour, known also by the name of Olderfleet,ⁱ but only for smaller vessels; the next which admits those of the higher classes, is Belfast Lough, called also Carrickfergus Bay. This bay, as valuable for its nautical advantages, as admirable for the scenic beauties of its shores, separates the counties of Antrim and Down, and is terminated by the neat and busy town of Belfast, at the mouth of the Lagan. Large ships can lie no nearer to that town than in mid-channel off Carrickfergus.^k At the southern entrance of the bay lie the Copeland Islands,^l three in number, with a light-house on the largest.

Donaghadee is the station for the post-office packets between Ireland and Scotland: the distance across the channel to Port-Patrick is twenty-two miles. The harbour has been lately considerably improved by the formation of two large piers built on ledges of rock, and enclosing a space of about 200 yards each way outside the former harbour. The piers extend into sixteen feet water at low tide, and a great part of the interior has been excavated to the same depth.

Strangford Lough or Lough Cone affords a safe harbour of depth sufficient for ships of the greatest draught, and of much more easy access than is generally supposed; but, owing to the rapidity of the current of tide which will carry vessels against the wind, and to the risk occasioned by several rocks near its entrance, against which the sea beats violently, strangers enter it with great reluctance. Its interior expands into a noble basin, lying north and south, studded with numerous islands, some richly wooded, others browsed on by sheep. It terminates at Newtown Ardes, nine miles inland.^m

Carlingford Loughⁿ is a spacious inlet about eight miles long, and one and a half broad at Warren Point, with deep water and sure anchorage; but from its situation among lofty mountains subject to sudden flaws and gusts of wind. It forms the passage to the town of Newry. A light-house at Hawlbowl Island^o marks the entrance.

^a Sheep-Haven. (Bell).—P.

^b The Gaelic orthography is the same in Ireland and Scotland, viz. *loch* (the Scotch and Irish Gaelic dialects not differing in this word.) The Manks word is *logh*. All are pronounced alike, *loh*.—P.

^c Londonderry county—Derry bishopric.—P.

^d Ennistrahull is four leagues W. N. W. of Lough Foyle. (Malham.)—Malin Head is the northernmost point of Ireland.—P.

^e The Deucealedonian Sea is that part of the Atlantic, north of Ireland, and west of Scotland.—P.

^f—Where Robert Bruce is said to have defended himself for some time, when obliged to fly from his country. (Rees' Cyc.)—Robert Bruce (king of Scotland) was grandson of Robert Bruce, the competitor of John Baliol.—P.

^g The North Channel.—P.

^h The breadth of the channel between the Mull of Kintyre and Tor Head, is about 16 miles. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁱ Old Fleet or Learn. (Malham.) Oldfield (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k Large vessels lie at Carmoil Pool, three miles from Belfast. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^l Nouthead forms the south point of the entrance, off which lie the Copeland Islands. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^m Strangford Lough is a basin, fifteen miles long and five broad, and is the largest salt water lough in Ireland. It runs directly north to Newton, and sends a small branch to the west, on which stands Downpatrick. Strangford Bay is an inlet, five miles and a half long, and a mile broad, opening into the Lough of Strangford. (Ed. Enc.)—Thus the whole length from the sea to Newtown Ardes, will be 20½ miles. The writer probably means that from Newtown Ardes it is nine miles in a direct line overland to the coast on the east.—P.

ⁿ Lough Carlingford, or Carlingford Bay. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^o Haul Bowling Island—the passage is on the east side. (Malham.)—P.

Dundalk Bay is about seven miles across, and the same distance inland. A ledge of rocks across the mouth forms a bar over which there is seven fathom water: the general depth within is from four to six fathoms. Large vessels require spring-tides to float them to Dundalk quay. The tide rises on the bar nearly twenty feet at high springs.

The mouth of the Boyne forms the port of Drogheda. At the town, vessels of ten feet draught may lie afloat in the channel. A considerable export trade, chiefly in grain, is carried on here, but the harbour is not suited to large vessels. Proceeding thence southwards by Balbriggan, Skerries and Rush, the two latter of which are merely fishing stations, passing the small and uninhabited islands of Skerries, Lambay and Ireland's Eye, and doubling the promontory of Howth, the bay of Dublin again presents itself.

In a few words, Ireland is in possession of upwards of seventy harbours well suited for the purposes of commerce; of these fourteen are capable of accommodating fleets of war, besides which the number of fishing stations is too great to be specified in detail. Near the shores are 138 islands inhabited by a hardy, active, and industrious population of 43,000 souls. Several of the larger bays extend far into the country, proportionally enlarging the range of commercial utility; some of these are formed by the mouths of navigable rivers, thus facilitating the export of native produce, and the introduction of foreign merchandize. Another illustration of the great capabilities for traffic enjoyed by the island may be deduced from the fact, that the distance across the island from Galway Bay to Dublin, whence there is an immediate and expeditious transportation of goods to all the western ports of Great Britain, is but 110 miles, and that no point in the whole island is more than sixty-four miles from the sea.

The general appearance of the coast is bold, often precipitous, particularly in the northern districts. It presents either a succession of headlands projecting into the sea, comprehending in their intervals sweeping lines of depressed shore often of singular beauty, or a range of beetling cliffs, lowering over the subject ocean, and forbidding all access to the land, impressing upon it the character styled, in the energetic language of seaman-ship, an iron-bound coast. The peninsula of Island Magee, lying between Larne harbour and the northern channel, is a striking example of this latter characteristic feature, where the land terminates at once in a perpendicular precipice called the Gobbins, upwards of 200 feet high, at the foot of which the largest vessel in the British navy may float.

To proceed to the interior, the island, of which the outline has thus been sketched, is of a rhomboidal form, measuring 306 miles in its longer diameter from Mizen Head to Fair Head, and 216 in its shorter, from Carnsore Point to Urris Head in Mayo. Its breadth in a line drawn due west from Howth Head to Sline Head in Mayo^a is 170 miles. The superficial contents have been variously stated; but, from the calculations of writers most estimated for accuracy and intelligence, they may be laid down as being 20,400,000 acres, or 31,875

square miles.^b Of this number it is supposed that 1,000,000 acres are lakes, rivers, roads, and land utterly irreclaimable; 3,500,000 waste, but reclaimable; 1,500,000 unproductive, from injudicious or negligent treatment; leaving a remainder of 14,400,000, available towards supplying the wants of the population.

Ireland is in general a hilly country, though not without extensive plains in several parts; yet even these exhibit occasional undulations of surface which prevent the monotony of a continuous level so wearisome to the traveller in alluvial districts. The land seldom rises to an elevation that precludes culture; even on the loftiest eminences the snow does not remain for any length of time. The mountains are distributed rather in groups or masses than in chains. The west and north is generally mountainous. Wicklow county is an immense collection of mountain land, with no intervention of plains. The Mourne mountains occupy a large portion of the south of Down county. Kerry, in the south-west, presents a number of ridges, between which deep and productive valleys are the basins that conduct rivers of various dimensions to the sea. In Cork the mountain ridges lie nearly east and west. The Slieve Bloom^c and Devils Bit mountains form a central range between the King's and Queen's counties; Kilkenny also contains a considerable extent of rugged hilly land. The south of Carlow county rises into the lofty ridges of Mount Leinster and the Blackstairs.

The highest mountains are situated near the coast; their respective heights above the level of the sea are as follows:—

	Feet
Gurran Tual, the highest part of Macgillicuddy's Reeks,	
Kerry county,	3430
Lugnaquilla, Wicklow county,	3070
Slieve Donard, Down county,	2809
Muilrea, Mayo county,	2737
Mangerton, Kerry county,	2693
Nepin, Mayo county,	2540
Croagh Patrick, Mayo county,	2532
Benbana, the highest of the Twelve Pins, Galway county,	2406
Keeper, in Slieve Bloom, King's county,	2200

A catalogue of all the rivers that discharge themselves directly into the sea, exclusively of their numerous branches, contains the names of ninety-four. Many of these, however, are little more than rivulets, serving for the irrigation of very limited districts. The following are among the most important rivers.

Indisputably, first in rank is the Shannon. Issuing from an insignificant source in the mountainous district that separates Fermanagh from Leitrim, it takes a southern course between the provinces of Leinster and Connaught; then changing to a south-western direction, it flows between the counties of Clare and Limerick, until it discharges itself into the Atlantic through the estuary already described among the western bays. Its course is more than 230 miles in length,^d during which it expands into several lakes, the chief of which are Lough Allen in Leitrim county, Lough Reagh^e between Ros common and Longford, and Lough Deargh^f between

^a Sline Head is in the county of Galway.—P.
^b Mr. Wakefield estimates the superficial contents at 32,201 Eng. sq. miles, and 20,437,974 Eng. acres. (Ed. Enc.)—P.
^c *Slieve*, prefixed to the names of so many mountains in Ireland, as *Ben* is in Scotland, is a Gaelic word (*sliabh*, pron. *sleece*) signifying mountain. *Ben* (Gaelic, *beinn*) also signifies mountain, or rather peak.

These words are both found in Scotland and Ireland; but *slieve* is almost peculiar to the latter, as *ben* is to the former.—P.
^d The whole course of the Shannon is about 170 miles. (Ed. Enc.)—P.
^e Lough Ree.
^f Lough Derg.

Galway and Tipperary. It is navigable for shipping as far as Limerick, above which the river, though obstructed by a ledge of rocks, has been rendered navigable for small craft by a short line of canal.^a

The three rivers, Barrow, Nore and Suir, proceed from different parts of the Slieve Bloom mountains. The Barrow rises in their northern extremity, and takes a course at first east, but afterwards due south. Meeting the Nore near New Ross, the united stream assumes the name of the Ross river, and after forming an island called Great Island,^b it meets the Suir east of Waterford, where the three conjointly form the fine estuary of Waterford.^c The Suir rises from the southern extremity of the same range; flows first south and then east, affording the means of water conveyance for goods to several populous towns, and at Waterford expands into a deep and spacious channel. The Nore takes a direction between both. Each is navigable for large boats to a considerable distance up the country.

The Southern Blackwater^d rises on the confines of the counties of Cork and Kerry. Its direction is eastward during the greatest part of its course, but it ultimately turns southwards, forming the line of division between Cork and Waterford counties, and falling into the sea at Youghal.

The streams that feed Lake Allua in the west of the county of Cork, are the origin of the Lee, whence it takes a direction parallel to the Blackwater, from whose basin it is separated by the long and barren ridge of the Derrynasagart and Bogra mountains. On approaching the sea, it passes through the city of Cork, and falls into the harbour of the same name. The Bandon, still more southerly, and of comparatively inconsiderable length, takes a similar direction to the sea at Kinsale harbour.

The Slaney rises on the borders of Wicklow and Carlow counties.^e Its course is nearly due south to Wexford. The Liffey obtains admission into the catalogue of principal rivers, chiefly from the metropolis being seated on its banks; perhaps also its scenic beauties add something to its claim. Its source is in the mountainous district in the western part of Wicklow county, whence, after forming the fine waterfall of Poulaphuca, it pursues a tranquil course through the level county of Kildare, until on quitting it for that of Dublin, it precipitates itself over a ledge of rocks at the romantic falls of the Salmon-leap, near Leixlip, when again resuming its tranquil character, it glides silently into Dublin Bay. Its navigation extends no farther than the western extremity of Dublin city, and even thus far is available for boats only.

The central elevation over which the Bog of Allen is spread gives rise to the Boyne. This river taking a north-eastern direction, and having its stream increased by the Blackwater, proceeds to the Irish Sea at Drogh-

^a The Limerick navigation, from Limerick twelve miles to Killaloe.—P.

^b Does not the writer here confound the Barrow with the Lee, which forms an island called Great Island, below Cork?—P.

^c Waterford Haven.

^d There are two considerable rivers, called Blackwater, in the north of Ireland; one of which is a branch of the Boyne, and the other flows into the south-west corner of Lough Neagh.—P.

^e The Slaney rises in the south-western corner of Wicklow county. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f To its junction with the Blackwater.—P.

^g The principal source of the Foyle is the Mourne, which rises in the south of Tyrone; after receiving the Poe and the Derg from the west,

eda. With the aid of some artificial channels, it has been made navigable for boats to its junction near Navan.^f Old Bridge, a village on its banks, about three miles west of Drogheda, is a place of much historical notoriety, as being the spot where the armies of William and James decided the claims of these kings to the sovereignty of the British dominions.

The Mourne mountains give rise to the Bann, which flows northward, passes through Lough Neagh, and still preserving the same direction, forms the boundary between the counties of Antrim and Londonderry, till it gives vent to its waters in the Atlantic Ocean, a few miles north of Coleraine. A ledge of rocks across its channel to the north of Lough Neagh, presents a barrier hitherto insuperable to the free navigation of this fine river.

The junction of the Poe, the Finn, the Derg, and other smaller streams, forms the Foyle;^g it flows northwards, and discharges itself into the lough of the same name at Londonderry. Ballyshannon, or Belleek river,^h though containing a large body of water, is of very short extent, merely passing through the isthmus that separates Lough Erne from Ballyshannon Bay.

The lakes in Ireland are numerous. Lough Neagh, in Ulster, is by much the largest, being spread, according to the calculations of Beaufort, over a surface of 94,274 acres, or 147 square miles.ⁱ In shape it is oblong, somewhat approximating to a square; it is further distinguished from the other lakes by the tameness of its surrounding scenery and its want of islands; Ram Island in its southern part is the only one of importance.^k A brisk trade between the five counties that form the boundary of the lake, is carried on by means of it. The level of its surface is considerably raised in winter, and plans have been suggested, though never yet attempted to be carried into execution, by clearing the obstructions at the egress of the Bann from it, so far to lower the level of its waters, as to add considerably to the quantity of arable land in the surrounding districts. This lake has long been celebrated for its petrifying qualities. Numerous fragments of trees, in part, or wholly converted into a silicious substance, have been found near its shores, but the process by which this extraordinary change was effected, has never been observed in actual operation. A peculiar species of trout, called by the people Dolochan, is found in its waters.

Two lakes in the south-west of Ulster, connected by a narrow channel, on the banks of which the town of Enniskillen is built, assume the common name of Lough Erne. Both are long and narrow; the more inland measures about twelve miles in length; that nearer the sea, twenty-five. Many islands are interspersed through each, several of them well wooded, which, with the varied outline of the surrounding shores, gives the whole much scenic beauty.

and the Moyle from the east, it unites with the Finn, and assumes the name of the Foyle.—P.

^h Also called the river Erne. It is simply the outlet of Lough Erne.—P.

ⁱ Lough Erne is the most extensive fresh-water lake in Ireland. Lough Neagh was formerly believed to cover 100,000 acres of land, but by a recent accurate survey, its area is reduced to 58,200 acres. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^k The tameness of its surface is broken only in two parts, by Blackwater Island, in the south-western angle of the lough, at the mouth of the river of the same name, and by Ram Island, on its eastern borders, near the coast of Antrim. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

In the west of Connaught, is Lough Corrib, thirty miles long,^a and nine or ten broad in some places. At its southern extremity it approaches the bay of Galway, into which it discharges its waters by a short river. Though the level of this lake is but thirteen and a half feet above that of the sea, no attempt has yet been made to connect them by a navigable canal carried across the insignificant isthmus by which they are now separated. On the north it is separated from Lough Mask, a lake of somewhat smaller dimensions, by a neck of land not more than three miles across. The still smaller lake of Lough Garra communicates with the latter of those by a short strait or river. Still further north, but wholly unconnected with those now mentioned, is Lough Conn, fourteen miles long.

To recapitulate the names or local peculiarities of all the smaller lakes in Ireland would be tedious and unprofitable. They are most numerous in the central tract, occupied by the counties of Cavan, Longford and West Meath. Two however, Lough Lane and Lough Derg, are not to be passed over in silence. The former, situated in the west of Munster, and better known by the name of the Lakes of Killarney, as consisting, in strictness of fact, of three sheets of water connected by narrow channels,^b is annually visited by strangers from every part, on account of its singularly romantic scenery. The latter, situated in the north-west of Ulster,^c is equally, if not still more famous, as a place of resort for pilgrims who collect thither for the performance of certain religious rites; and, though the observance of these has been frequently forbidden by the heads of the Roman catholic church in Ireland, the practices are still continued, and the island in it, called St. Patrick's Purgatory,^d which is the main object of attraction, is still annually visited by multitudes confiding in the efficacy of the pilgrimage.

Ireland was once so thickly covered with trees, as to have acquired, among its other numerous appellations, that of the Isle of Woods. It is now lamentably the reverse; insomuch, that an Anglo-American, when coasting along its north-western shores, on perceiving the total want of standing timber, which presents such a contrast to the general appearance of his native soil, where agricultural improvements are chiefly impeded by the exuberance of the forests, has been heard to exclaim in a tone of admiration, "what a well-cleared country!" Many tracts of land, where not a vestige of plantations can now be discovered, still retain the name of woods. The number and density of the forests was one great check to the military progress of the English invaders: the noble hall of Westminster is roofed with oak from the woods of Shillelagh in Wicklow. The disturbed state of the country during many centuries, together with the uncertain tenure of the new proprietors to whom the greater part of the land was transferred on the close of the civil wars of 1641, are amply sufficient to account for the change. Attempts have since been made to supply a want now so severely felt. Spirited landholders have planted, and the Irish legislature, in aid of their exertions, has secured to the occupying tenant, on the

close of his tenure, a right to the benefits of the trees which he had raised. The effects of this salutary law are but partial; much still remains to be done. The country continues to labour under a defect equally detrimental to its agricultural prosperity and to its scenic beauty. This is the more to be lamented, because all kinds of valuable timber trees grow freely in a soil, whose variety accommodates itself to the healthy sustenance of every species. The oak attains its most majestic expansion on the rich plains; the more elevated hills, too chilly for tillage, and in many parts affording but a scanty pasturage for sheep, would give the intelligent planter an ample return for the outlay of capital in hardy timber trees congenial to the situation. Besides the oak, already noticed, the larch, which though of comparatively modern introduction thrives rapidly, the various species of fir, the ash, beech, lime and other large trees, together with several of the more elegant and delicate species, grow freely. The arbutus is found in abundance in the vales of Kerry;^e the myrtle thrives in the open air on the sandy soils of Cork, Waterford, and even so far north as Wicklow, seldom checked by the occasional frosts of a short and generally mild winter.

But among the most singular natural features of the country, and most retarding the progress of agricultural improvement, are the bogs. These are not to be considered as low and marshy tracts incapable of drainage; on the contrary, they are found universally in elevated situations, and in every case admit of water communication by some river to the sea. The entire extent of bog-land exceeds 2,830,000 acres, or nearly one-seventh of the whole superficies. The bogs are principally situated in the elevated district in the midland counties. If two diverging lines be drawn across the island from east to west, the one from Howth Head to Sligo, the other from Wicklow to Galway, the included space, resembling in form a broad belt drawn across the centre of the island, with its narrowest end nearest the capital, and gradually enlarging as it approaches the Atlantic, will comprise by much the greater portion of the bogs in the island,^f exclusive of mere mountain bogs and those of less extent than 500 acres each.

This great division of the island is traversed by the Shannon from north to south, and is thus divided into two parts; the quantity of bog contained in the more western of these divisions is double of that in the eastern; so that if the whole of the bogs of Ireland, exclusively of those in mountains and in small detached portions, were to be divided into twenty parts, seventeen of these would be comprised within the great central band, twelve parts lying westward and five eastward of the Shannon; and of the three remaining parts, two are to the south and one to the north of the same band. Although the mountainous and detached bogs do not enter into the preceding calculation, their importance as an aggregate may be inferred from the fact that in the county of Cavan alone, there are more than ninety tracts of bog, no one of which exceeds 800 acres,^g but

^a Twenty miles long. (Ed. Enc. Myers. Bell.)—P.

^b The lower lake (3000 acres) to the north; the middle or Mucross Lake (640 acres); and the upper lake (720 acres) to the south. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^c In the south-western part of Donegal.—P.

^d In the centre of the lake, and about a mile from the shore, is an island containing not more than an Irish acre. There is a cavern there called the Cave of St. Patrick, or St. Patrick's Purgatory. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e The romantic scenery of Killarney, in the county of Kerry, is the most northern habitat of the *Arbutus Unedo*. (Ed. Enc.) In 1776, there was a very large arbutus tree at Mount Kennedy, near Wicklow, one branch of which, parting from the body near the ground, was six feet two inches in circumference. (Young's Tour in Ireland.)—P.

^f Six sevenths. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g 500 acres (Ed. Enc.)—P.

which collectively contain about 17,600 acres, besides many smaller plots, varying from five to twenty acres. It may be deemed almost superfluous to remark, that as the only use to which bog is applied is for fuel, its value, as a marketable commodity, is generally in the inverse proportion to its extent of surface, particularly in those districts where mineral coal is of difficult attainment. A shrewd landed proprietor remarked that he considered the bog to be the most profitable part of his estate.

The total amount of the bogs is thus estimated by the parliamentary commissioners appointed to investigate the subject in 1810.^a

	Acres.
Flat red bog, convertible to the general purposes of agriculture	1,576,000
Mountain bog, a large proportion of which might be converted into pasture or plantation	1,255,000
Total	2,831,000

There are two species of bog, the red or fibrous, and the black or compact. The former predominates; the chief part of the most extensive bog districts being composed of it. It is formed chiefly of the fibres of the *Sphagnum palustre* or bog moss, but the following species of plants also aid in its formation, namely, *Hypnum* or feather moss, *Polytrichum* or hair moss, *Bryum*, *Lichen rangiferinus*^b or rein-deer moss, *Scirpus cæspitosus* or dwarf club rush, *Anthericum ossifragum*, *Juncus bufonius* or toad rush^c—the three last named plants are found in large quantities in soft wet bogs; the first of them, called by the peasants keeve-grass, flourishes most in the wettest parts, where its long and slender roots may be traced to the depth of two feet:—*Erica vulgaris* or common heath, *Equisetum limosum* and *arvense*,^d *Lemna* or duck-weed, *Conferva*,^e *Schænus Mariscus* or bog-rush, *Mentha sylvestris*,^f *Hypericum pulchrum*,^g *Vaccinium Oxycoccus* or cranberry, *Empetrum nigrum* or crowberry, *Myrica Gale*,^h *Arundo Phragmites* or common reed grass, *Eriophorum angustifolium* or narrow-leaved cotton grass, *Holcus lanatus* or meadow soft grass, *Melica cærulea* or purple melic grass, and *Agrostis stolonifera* or florin grass: the two last named plants are very general, and found growing together. The external appearance of this kind of bog is usually reddish brown; when dry it is darker, approaching to an olive; in this state its surface is usually covered with the *Erica vulgaris* or common heath, which gives it at a distance an olive, or, if in blossom, a pinkish hue.

Those parts of the red bogs that are so wet and soft as to render their interior nearly inaccessible are distinguished by the name of fluid peat or quagmire. They frequently occupy the most elevated situations, and diverge by winding courses to the edges; the bog is usually shallow where they occur, seldom exceeding fourteen feet in depth. The red peat, from its tough and fibrous texture, is cut with difficulty by the spade;

whence, and from its porous nature, it is not used as fuel except in cases of necessity.

The compact or black bog varies in colour from deep reddish brown to jet black, in which latter case, the mass is perfectly close-grained, strongly resembling pitch or pitch-coal, the fracture being conchoidal in every direction and the lustre glistening. This kind of bog very rarely contains any vegetable remains; when any such occur, they consist of some of the varieties of rushes common in stagnant waters.

Compact or black bog is frequently met with, unaccompanied with fibrous bog, but in such cases it seldom forms large tracts; while in all bogs where the upper part is fibrous, the lower consists of the black. Where turf cuttings have been made, black bog is universally found, but as the turf-cutters are frequently prevented, by the want of sufficient drainage, from cutting to a sufficient depth, they necessarily leave untouched the larger and by far the more valuable part, as it is invariably found, that the compactness of the bog increases with its depth, and the more dense and solid the turf, the hotter and more durable the fire.

An accurate perpendicular section of a portion of red bog gave the following results: 1, To the depth of two feet, being the surface of the bog decomposed by the atmosphere, was a dark reddish brown mass, rarely exhibiting any vegetable remains. 2, Three feet further down, a light reddish brown mass, in which the moss was still so perfect as to be distinguishable into its various species. 3, Five feet thickness, deep reddish brown, fibres visible, but the component parts less distinguishable; this portion may be used for fuel, but it burns badly from the openness of its texture, and its containing no empyreumatic oil. 4, Eight feet and a half thick, deep reddish brown, the fibres discernible, though compact; it burns tolerably well as fuel. 5, Three feet thick, of a blackish brown, the fibrous texture scarcely discernible, numerous twigs and small branches of birch, alder and fir interspersed through the mass; these are always found to be hollow, the woody part having wholly disappeared, leaving the bark in a tubular form: this is the commencement of the compact or black-bog formation. 6, Three feet thick; a blackish brown mass, compact, without any trace of fibrous texture; as fuel it burns swiftly with a bright flame, and is vulgarly named greasy turf from its inflaming quickly like grease. 7, Ten feet thick; a blackish brown mass, very compact, without any vegetable remains, containing much empyreumatic oil, and burning slowly with an unpleasant smell. 8, Four feet thick; a black mass, very compact, bearing a strong resemblance to pitch or coal, fracture conchoidal in every direction, lustre shining, susceptible of a high polish, but, from its offensive smell when ignited, it is seldom used as fuel. Here the bog formation terminates at a depth of 38½ feet. 9, Three feet thick, yellowish white marl not adhering to the tongue, and containing 64 per cent. of carbonate of lime. 10, Four

^a In Sept. 1809, a warrant was issued, by which commissioners were appointed to inquire into the nature and extent of the bogs in Ireland, and the practicability of draining and cultivating them. Four reports were presented by them, the last of which, laid before Parliament, in the session of 1813—14, contains the numerical statements in the text. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b *Cenomyce rangiferina*.—P.

VOL. III.—NO. 61 78

^c The *Scirpus* is a sedge (*Cyperoidea*); the *Anthericum*, a flag; and the *Juncus*, a rush.—P.

^d Species of horsetail or scouring rush.—P.

^e The *Conferva* are a family of aquatic *Alga*, usually appearing as a floating mass of green fibres.—P.

^f Wild mint.

^g St. John's wort.

^h Dutch myrtle, or Bog myrtle.

feet thick, blue clay, adhering strongly to the tongue, and containing 72 per cent. of alumine, 22 of silex coloured by oxide of iron, and the remainder of carbonate of lime. 11, Depth unknown, clay mixed with limestone gravel. However much the internal structure of the different bogs may vary from that now described, it appears certain that all without exception rest on a basis of marl or of limestone gravel either pure or combined with clay.

Viewing the bogs externally, they present surfaces by no means level, but with planes of inclination amply sufficient for their drainage. The highest level of the Bog of Allen, in the eastern division of the central band, is 298 feet above the level of the sea, while the lowest is but 84 feet less, being 214 feet above the same level. There is no part of them, therefore, from which the water may not be discharged into rivers in their immediate vicinity, and with a fall adequate to their complete drainage. It has been clearly ascertained, that, though in their present state they exhibit little more than an unproductive waste, a judicious system of reclamation would render them highly productive, without diminishing in any degree their capability of being converted into fuel at any future period, should the wants of the country require it.

One very remarkable feature in the landscape of Ireland cannot fail to strike the observer. In traversing most parts of the island, isolated ranges or groups of bold mountainous or hilly tracts are to be seen, the intervals between them being occupied by a surface which, when viewed on the great scale, appears level, but on a nearer approach, presents a gently undulating plain. A considerable expansion of this level occupies the central counties between Dublin and Galway Bays. Such a surface, it may be affirmed, almost without exception, covers a sub-soil of flötz limestone,^a to the abundance of which mineral, next to the mild temperature and general moisture of the atmosphere, the soil is chiefly indebted for its superior fertility. This great sheet of limestone comes in contact with, and sweeps round every mountain tract, filling up all the intervals and hollows between them. There is, in fact, no county except Wicklow in which limestone rock either of secondary or primary origin is not to be found. The latter of these,^b however, is chiefly confined to the counties of Sligo and Galway, in the west, and to Donegal, Derry, Tyrone and Antrim, in the north.

The north-eastern region of Ireland is peculiarly remarkable by being chiefly composed of three mountainous groups marked by singular diversities of geological character. The Mourne mountains, a well defined group in the south of the county of Down, of which the towering Slieve Donard is the summit, may be considered as the first of these. Granite is the constituent not only of the main group, but also of the subordinate ranges that branch from it in several directions under the names of the Fathom Hills, Slieve Gullion or the Newry mountains, and the Ravensdale and Carlingford mountains, northward of the Mourne mountains. Slieve Croob, composed of sienite, and Slieve Anisky, of

hornblende rock, form an elevated tract dependant upon, though at some distance from, the main group. Hornblende rock and primitive greenstone are abundant on the skirts of this granitic district. Mica slate has been noticed only in one instance. Exterior chains of transition rock advance far to the west and north of this primitive tract, extending in the former direction into Cavan, and in the latter to the southern cape of Belfast Lough and the peninsula of the Ardes.^c The primitive nucleus bears but a very small proportion in superficial extent to these exterior chains, which are principally formed of grauwacke and grauwacke slate.

The coast of Scotland opposite to the Ardes, where the grauwacke terminates abruptly on the western side of the northern channel, presents a resumption of the same formation in the neighbourhood of Portpatrick, proceeding thence through the Mull of Galloway^d and the mountain chain which, under the name of Leadhills and other local appellations, traverses Scotland towards the south. The composition of this chain agrees with that of the corresponding mountainous tract in Ireland; the transition rocks forming its predominating constituent, enveloped by which several small districts of granite occur, while mica slate is either totally absent, or of very rare occurrence.

The second of the north-eastern groups is formed by the mountainous tract, partly in Derry and partly in Tyrone, between the rivers Roe and Mourne. The whole of this tract is primitive. Mica slate predominates, comprehending nine-tenths of the country; it is accompanied by primitive limestone in the lower parts. On the eastern side of the Roe, this system is succeeded by a range of secondary heights, covered by an enormous platform of basalt. Those secondary masses repose upon and conceal the mica slate in the eastern part of Derry, but it again emerges from beneath this covering in the north-eastern part of Antrim, and swells into mountains which break down suddenly between Tor Point and Cushenden Bay.

The correspondence of structure between Ireland and Scotland here again becomes visible. The Mull of Cantyre, which faces Tor Point, resumes the chain of mica slate which was broken off on the Irish coast. The Cantyre hills are connected with the Grampians, a chain strikingly similar, in all the circumstances of its composition, to that now described. Further, the mica slate in Ireland is succeeded on the south, where the Antrim coast exhibits it in section, by a conglomerate, perfectly resembling that which skirts the Grampian hills on their southern border.

The third group is divided into two chains by the valley of the Bann from Lough Neagh to the Atlantic. The eastern of these, lying between that river and the northern channel, presents an abrupt declivity towards the east, with a gentle slope in the contrary direction, in which the beds composing its mass dip. The western chain, between the Roe and the Bann, is the exact counterpart of the preceding; but the strata dip towards the north-east, the fall of the hills being gradual in this direction, while they front the west and south with abrupt and precipitous escarpments. The eastern system is wholly secondary, and uniformly covered with enormous stratified masses of basalt. The average depth of this superstratum, which acquires its greatest

^a Secondary Limestone.—P.

^b Primitive Limestone?—P.

^c The peninsula included between Strangford Lough and the Irish Sea, known by the name of Ardes. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d The Rhinns of Galloway, of which the Mull of Galloway is the southern extremity.—P.

thickness in the north, where it measures more than 900 feet, may be estimated at 545 feet, and its superficial extent at 800 square miles, a solid mass of extraordinary and imposing dimensions.

In the strata underlying the basalt are to be found many of the most important of those formations which, reposing on the coal measures, occupy such an extensive tract in the southern and eastern counties of England, but which in Ireland never extend beyond the circumference of the great basaltic mass. They occur in the following order: 1. Chalk. No two formations can be more identical in external characters and fossil organic remains than those Irish beds, frequently called white limestone, and the English chalk in the Isles of Wight and Purbeck. In both, the lower beds are destitute of flints, which the upper contain in abundance. 2. Mulattoe, an arenaceous stone, with a calcareous cement of a mottled appearance, whence it derives its name.^a The numerous beds of oolites which in England, almost without exception, succeed the green sandstone, are entirely wanting in Ireland, where the mulattoe reposes immediately on the lias limestone. 3. Lias limestone, disposed in thin beds alternating with slate clay, and distinguished by ammonites and gryphites, and the remains of the pentacrinus^b with which it abounds: its thickness has not been ascertained. 4. The lias reposes, as in England, on beds of red and variegated marle, containing gypsum, and further distinguished by numerous salt springs. The marle is underlaid by a thick deposit of red and variegated sandstone,^c containing clay-galls.

The four formations here specified vary considerably in thickness in different places. The mulattoe and lias are often wanting, but the chalk and the sandstone are remarkably constant. The whole series appears to the greatest advantage in the neighbourhood of Belfast.

The dykes, or whyn-dykes, form a feature peculiar to the northern part of Ireland, as none have yet been discovered in the southern or midland counties. Of those noticed, nearly one half are situated on the shore, and the remotest of the others is within fifteen miles of it. The highest observed is near the summit of Arragh, the loftiest mountain in Donegal; being 2220 feet above the sea.

Dykes seldom occur singly; they are generally found in groups, several within a short distance of each other. Their parallelism or uniformity of direction is another striking circumstance. Of 31, whose direction has been accurately noted, the greatest variety of range is from 17° to 53° north of west. The bearing of all the dykes is from south-east to north-west, and all cut the planes of the strata through which they pass at a very considerable angle.

In their relative width they vary considerably, some being but a few inches, others several hundred feet broad, but those of the latter description are very rare. Their height above the intersected strata is often very considerable; that on Arragh rises perpendicularly forty feet like a partition wall. At Scrabo hill, near Newtown Ardes, a dyke appears like a standing pillar at the entrance of one of the freestone quarries.^d Their depth is unknown; nor does it appear,

^a Qu. Green-sand—a sandstone with a calcareous cement, coloured green by hydrated silicate of iron. The green grains are often so few in number, that the rock has a grey or buff colour, in particular portions. Sometimes it is deeply coloured by brown oxide (hydrate) of iron. The chalk in Ireland reposes on green sand. (Conybeare and Phillips.)—The only other sandstone deposit between the chalk and lias, is the iron-sand—entirely silicious.—P.

^b Pentacrinites.—P.

^c New red sandstone.—P.

from observations on those lying along the coast in cliffs from 50 to 500 feet in height, that their sides converge, or that they branch off, like the metallic veins, into slender strings, or, except in very rare cases, swell into what the miners call bellies.

Their position is in all cases nearly vertical, the mean angle of deviation from the perpendicular, deduced from ten cases, being 13°, and from seven others, 7°; but no general conclusion has yet been formed as to the direction of this deviation. Neither is there that variety in their substance which might be inferred from their number, their relative distance, or the variety of their substrata. They are formed either of a number of diminutive pillars aggregated together, or of rhomboidal pieces, piled one on another like blocks of masonry, and formed of the following rocks, named in the order of their most frequent occurrence, namely trap and greenstone, with their associates, Lydian stone, flinty slate, graustone^e and wacke. One dyke of clay porphyry^f has been discovered at Farland Point in Donegal.

No general connexion has been discovered between the substance of the dyke and the rock through which it passes. Neither, in general, does any foreign matter intervene, except a slight rusty appearance on the surface of the divided stratum. The contact between the dyke and rock is close, but they may be always disjoined by the blow of a hammer. The mean specific gravity of the substances of the dykes is 2.86. The minerals found imbedded in them are augite in angular fragments, olivine in disseminated grains, crystallized glassy felspar, compact felspar, radiated zeolite, green soft steatite, iron pyrites, calcareous spar, carbonate of lime mixed with the trap, glassy quartz, sulphate of barytes, and plates of mica.

To the south of Dublin a great granite region extends in a continuous mass, without interruption, to the Blackstairs mountain, occupying generally the highest portion of the range throughout, though it is found also in the lowest position, as in the northern part of the Dublin mountains.^g It also forms an extensive flat on the western side of the range, to Castledermot and the Shillelagh hills. This constitutes the broadest part of the granite soil, being about fifteen miles across from east to west, whence it gradually narrows to a point; its breadth, in its northern extremity, is about seven miles.

Such is the extent of the continuous tract of fundamental granite on which all the succeeding rocks repose. Granite, however, reappears in other quarters, not only protruding and breaking forth in isolated denuded portions of the great base, but occurring as a later production, interstratified with rocks which unequivocally rest on the fundamental granite.

The mica slate, wherever it occurs in this district, is in direct contact with the granite on both sides of the great granitic range; but, in its widest part, it nowhere exceeds three or four miles, as it soon graduates into clay slate, by which it is bounded for the greatest part of its course. In it have been incidentally found hornblende, andalusite, hollow spar,^h garnet and sphene.ⁱ

^d There are quarries of excellent freestone at Scrabo, near Newtown. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e Greystone (*graustein*), a variety of trap, in which felspar predominates.—P.

^f Claystone Porphyry.—P.

^g Granite occurs along the south shore of Dublin Bay. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^h Macle.—P.

ⁱ Silico-calcareous oxide of Titanium.—P.

The clay-slate formation is spread over considerable tracts of the granitic chain, extending on the western side in a narrow border, to Castledermot, and on the eastern, from Bray southwards along the coast, where, gradually expanding, it spreads itself over nearly the whole of the county of Wexford. The total absence of metallic veins on the western side of the granitic region, while they exist in abundance on the eastern, presents a singular feature of this district.

The flötz sandstone^a is found resting upon granite, clay-slate, grauwacke, grauwacke slate, and transition rocks;^b it occurs sometimes in isolated portions, sometimes in extensive mountain ranges. The Slieve Bloom mountains consist of a nucleus of clay-slate surrounded by sandstone. The Bilboa and Keeper mountains are surrounded by a mantle of sandstone, except in a small portion on the north side, where the clay-slate nucleus comes immediately in contact with and supports the flötz limestone. This nucleus has yielded lead, silver and copper. The Slievenamara group consists of a nucleus of clay-slate surrounded and surmounted by sandstone, which is connected with the sand-hills that extend towards Thomastown on the north, and have the clay-slate for their foundation.

The tract adjacent to the lower part of Lough Dearg on the Shannon consists partly of mica slate,^c and partly of sandstone: the slate raised from the quarries of Killaloe is equal in quality to that of Wales.

The noble range of the Galtees and its subordinate ridge of Slievenamuck, consists of sandstone. The north-western face of the Galtees is in many parts extremely precipitous, and even inaccessible; while that on the south-east is of a more subdued character. The mountainous tract between the Suir and Blackwater may be considered as table land of clay-slate, partly bordered by sandstone, and sustaining isolated caps, or more widely extended ridges of the same rock. This tract is surrounded by flötz limestone on all sides, except the eastern, which consists almost entirely of clay-slate.

The component rock of the mountains lying still more westerly in Kerry is a clay-slate, the argillite of Werner, penetrated, especially towards the north, and in the central mountains, by veins of quartz. The clay-slate is frequently raised for roofing, but the inconvenience of export has admitted quarries to be opened only at Cahir Begnish and Valentia. The northern part of this district is chiefly formed of secondary limestone, with marine remains and calcareous spar, usually of a light blue, or smoke-grey colour. From the mouth of the Cashin river to the Kerry Head, stretches a bank of upland, composed of beds of argillaceous sandstone, in the partings of which the well-known quartz crystals, called Kerry-stones, are found; steel-grained lead^d is also found traversing this formation.

In the interior of the great limestone plain, already noticed, as spreading itself over the whole of the level region of Ireland, three isolated protuberant masses of sandstone arise from beneath the limestone at Moatgrenogue, Ballymahon and Slievegoldry. To the west of the clay-slate country in Longford, this rock occupies a considerable space, crossing the Shannon, and extending into the counties of Roscommon and Leitrim.

The extensive region still further westward, as far as

Galway, is chiefly calcareous. A line drawn from that town to Oughterard, marks the limit of the formation. All to the north, over Lough Corrib into Mayo and Roscommon, except the neighbourhood of Dumnore, is limestone; that to the south and west, as far as Sline Head, with the exception of two masses of primitive limestone, which occur between Oughterard and Clifden, is granite, or rather sienite.

The mountains in the northern part of this region are composed of quartz; round the bases they are gneiss and mica slate, with bands of hornblende and primitive limestone. Along the northern side of Lough Corrib, and to Ballynakill, the mica slate and hornblende rise into mountains, and the limestone disappears. From Lough Mask to Killery Bay, is a transition country of greenstone and grauwacke slate, covered with red sandstone, which also forms the hill of Muilrea, the highest point of Mayo. The upper beds of this and of the greenstone are frequently porphyritic. Greenstone and clay-slate prevail to the north of Mayo, and to the mountain of Croagh Patrick, the summit and western side of which are quartz, the eastern side slate and serpentine, but without any limestone, none of which is found in this direction beyond the great secondary limestone field. The component part of the mountain of Benebola or Twelve Pins, the highest in Connamara, is quartz, in general distinctly stratified, or at least schistose.

The great limestone field, though affording indications of several metals, more particularly lead and copper, is singularly ill adapted for mining operations, as it occupies the lowest and richest parts of the country, and frequently supports a considerable depth of alluvial matter and soil. Hence mines cannot be freed from water without machinery; the value of fuel and the drainage of lands become likewise important elements in the estimate of expenses. The marly tracts covering the limestone are distinguished in several places by the relics occasionally preserved in them of that extraordinary animal, the Irish elk or moose deer. A head and branches of one measuring ten feet ten inches between the tips of the horns, is described by Molyneux. But the valuable remains of this stately animal preserved in the museum of Trinity College, Dublin, contain a greater variety and number of bones than are to be seen in any other collection. A complete skeleton has not yet been discovered.

Though indications of metallic ores are to be met with in most parts of Ireland, few mines have as yet been found capable of being worked to advantage. The principal of those now wrought are in the granitic region of the county of Wicklow. A vein of gold, which has been discovered at Croghan-Kinselagh, by the particles of that metal observed in the bed of a neighbouring rivulet, was worked for some time for the benefit of the crown as a special royalty; but the profits were not found sufficient to justify the continuance of the expenditure, and the workings have been relinquished.

Rich veins of copper have been wrought at Cronebane and Ballymurtagh in the same county. Copper of excellent quality, and in large quantities, is also raised at Knockmahon and Bonmahon, in the county of Waterford. A mine at Allihies, in the county of Cork, is accounted one of the richest in Ireland; another at Cappagh, though yield-

^a Secondary sandstone.—P.

^b Grauwacke and grauwacke slate are transition rocks.—P.

^c Qu. clay slate. The slate from these quarries must be clay slate Killaloe is at the foot of Lough Derg.—P.

^d Granular sulphuret of lead.—P.

ing metal of fine quality, has been lately relinquished as not being sufficiently productive, as have also others at Kenmare and Ross Island, in the county of Kerry, and at Bouldar in Galway.

Lead is raised at the Ballycorus, Luganure, Hero and Carrigeenduff mines in Wicklow, and at Came in the neighbouring county of Wexford; mines of the same metal are also wrought at Clea in Armagh, and at Kildrum in Donegal. Those of Castlemaine and Kenmare in Kerry, and that of Sheffry in Mayo, have been relinquished after the loss of a considerable outlay in ascertaining their probable produce.

At Arigna, near the western shore of Lough Allen, is a rich and copious vein of iron, which, after having been formerly wrought to much advantage as long as the surrounding country supplied timber for fuel, remained for many years neglected. The workings have been resumed by one of the lately formed companies, with every prospect of a favourable result, as coal is now raised in the neighbourhood in sufficient quantity to justify the expectation of an adequate supply for many years. Antimony is found at Castleshane.

Coal has been discovered in greater or smaller quantities in seventeen counties, which may be classed in four districts, one in each of the provinces. Those of Leinster and Munster contain carbonaceous or stone coal, the slaty glantz coal of Werner;^a the two other provinces, bituminous or blazing coal.

The Leinster coal district is situated in the counties of Kilkenny, Queen's county and Carlow, extending also a short distance into Tipperary. It is divided into three detached parts, separated from each other by a secondary limestone country which not only envelopes, but in continuation passes under the whole of the coal district:^b the neighbouring country is abundantly supplied from this source.

The Munster coal district occupies a considerable portion of the counties of Limerick, Kerry, and Cork. Though by much the most extensive of the four, it is only now attracting to it that degree of scientific and manufacturing attention which, from its importance as an object of peculiar national interest, has long been called for. Coal and culm have been raised, for nearly a century, in the neighbourhood of Kanturk in Cork. At Dromagh, particularly, the works have been carried on with much effect, and the annual supply from them would have materially contributed to the agricultural improvement of a great extent of the maritime and commercial counties of Cork and Limerick, had the improvements on the surface for facilitating the land carriage, by means of judiciously planned and well formed roads, kept pace with the exertions of the individuals engaged in the production of the coal.

Next in order of value and importance is the Connaught coal district in the county of Leitrim, where workings are now carrying on with much energy at Aughabehy and other collieries in the vicinity of the Arigna iron-works. That the great natural facilities for distributing the produce of these collieries, arising from the neighbouring lake^c and

its communication through the Shannon, or by means of roads, have not been adequately seconded by the hand of art, will appear from the following quotation, which forms the first sentence of a late report of the directors of the Arigna mining company. "The roads in the Connaught coal district remain nearly in as bad a state as they were in prior to the interference of government in 1823, consequently the company is deprived of land sale at the colliery, while the sale in the lower Shannon district, upon which the board relied, has been interrupted for some months by the progress of certain repairs at the lock of the Lanesborough canal."^d

The coal district of Ulster is of trifling importance, when compared with any of the foregoing. The principal collieries are at Coal Island and Dungannon in Tyrone. Indications of coal have been observed at Drumquin in the same county, and at Pettigoe to the north of Lough Erne. Possibly the formation may extend westward from the first mentioned coal field to that part of the lake. Coal has also been found at Belturbet in Cavan, and at Ballycastle in Antrim. This latter vein, though long wrought, is by no means extensive. It had been worked at a very early period, for, in the year 1770, the miners, when pushing forward an adit level at a newly explored part of the cliff, unexpectedly discovered a passage cut through the rock. This passage was very narrow owing to incrustations on its sides. On examination it was found to be a regular gallery leading to thirty-six chambers; in short, the explorers found themselves at once in the heart of an extensive mine which had been wrought by workmen at least as expert as those of the present generation. Some remains of the tools, baskets, &c., were found, but in such a decayed state as to crumble into dust when touched; several of the tools appeared to have been made of wood thinly shod with iron.

Numerous mineral springs have been discovered in various counties in Ireland; few, however, have rendered their vicinity a place of general resort for invalids. The most remarkable are that at Mallow in Cork, which strongly resembles the hot wells of Bristol; those of Lucan and Golden-bridge near Dublin, the former sulphureous, the latter sulphureous and chalybeate; and that of Ballynahinch,^e also sulphureous and chalybeate, which attracts many visitors from the neighbouring counties. Swanlingbar in Cavan is sulphureous, and Castleconnel near Limerick, chalybeate. The first mentioned of these is the most noted.

To proceed from the physical to the political circumstances of the country. It is now generally admitted that Ireland owes its first colonization to a tribe of the Celtæ. The language is a Celtic dialect, and the names of many of its mountains, districts, lakes, rivers and towns are deducible from the same source. Still, however, the derivation of its best known appellation, Erin, has been much disputed. "Iri," says Ledwich, an antiquarian more distinguished for learning than sagacity, "or as now written Eri, is, in Irish, the great isle.^f In Teutonic, Er-aii, contracted into Eri, is the farther isle."^g Camden derives it from *Hiere*, an Irish word signifying west, or the westward.^h

^a The slaty glance coal of Jameson—*schiefrige glanzkohle* of Werner—foliated or slaty anthracite.—P.

^b This must be the carboniferous or mountain limestone, on which the coal formation rests in a basin the borders of which are of course surrounded by the limestone.—P.

^c Lough Allen.

^d The Upper Shannon navigation, commencing above Lough Ree, at Lanesborough, and extending 33 miles along the river, to near Leitrim. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e In Down county.—P.

^f *Er*, great; *I*, island. A more frequent Gaelic word for island is *Inis*; whence Innis, Ennis and Inch, in names of islands in Scotland and Ireland. The modern Gaelic word is *Oilean* (*Uilean, Eilean*).—P.

^g *Qu. fer* (*verre*.) far, or *eer*, ante, and *æ* or *ey*, insula—or *ur-ey*, primitive or parent island.—P.

^h *Siar* is the Gaelic for west; *Leath-shiar* (pron. *Léah-hiár*.) westward, literally, half of west. So also, *soir*, east; *taobh-shoir* (pron. *tav-hör*.) eastward, literally, side of east.—P.

The name of Scotia first occurs in writers of the fourth century; yet, however prevalent among various authors of different countries, it never entirely superseded its former designation. Usher says that the promiscuous application of this name, both to Ireland and Scotland, arose from the coalition between the Scots and Picts in the eleventh century;^a and even then all accurate writers distinguished the former by the name of *vetus, major* or *ulterior* Scotia, the latter being styled in contradistinction *nova, minor* or *citerior*. The word "Scotland" is by some authors derived from Scythia, supposed to have been the mother country. Whitaker and Chalmers, with more probability, attribute the name to their love of roving; the term *Scéite*, in Irish, signifying dispersed or scattered.

The Celtic descent of the aborigines may also be traced by the existing remains, though few, of their antiquities. Several of the rocking stones, similar to those found in various parts of England, are still to be seen. One in the neighbourhood of Dublin was but lately displaced from its equilibrium by the wantonness of a party of soldiery. Another in full perfection, is in Island Magee. The swords, axes and arrow-heads of a mixed copper metal are also adduced as proofs of their origin. But among the most singular traces of antiquity, should be reckoned the round towers of Ireland, of which upwards of fifty are still to be seen, dispersed in various parts of the country. Their origin and use, though made the subjects of many elaborate treatises, are still involved in obscurity. Their juxtaposition to monastic ruins has led to the conjecture that they were erected in the earlier ages of Christianity; but arguments equally probable have been adduced to prove their existence prior to the erection of these structures. Attempts have been made to trace the descent of the Irish colony to other countries by the existence of similar buildings in the latter, but as yet the evidence of such existence has not been conclusive. Erected generally in situations not peculiarly elevated, their uses as signal-towers would be very limited; the confined extent of their tubular cavity would not afford scope for the ringing of a bell; they therefore still remain, and to all appearance will long continue, an enigma for the exercise of antiquarian ingenuity.

Few traces of the history of the tribe thus settled are to be found in ancient authors. The island is, indeed, supposed to be noticed by the writer of the Argonautic Expedition,^b under the name of *Iernis*: Aristotle notices it by that of *Ierne*;^c by Cæsar and other Roman writers, it is called *Hibernia*; Marcianus Heracleotes names it *Jouernia*,^d as also does Ptolemy, a writer particularly exact in the appellation of places according to their native names. The last named writer proceeds further, laying down the position of several remarkable points, and the names and situation of the principal tribes and towns.

For an account of the acts of the inhabitants from their first settlement to the period of the English invasion, recourse must be had to the native chronicles. In the Psalter of Cashel and other Irish annals, it is recorded, that

soon after the flood, a number of Fowmarries, or pirates from Africa, attempted a settlement, from which they were soon dispossessed by an Asiatic colony headed by a chief named Partholan, a descendant in the eighth generation from Noah. These were in turn dispossessed, after a lapse of more than two centuries, by another colony from the same region named Firbolgs, whom some antiquarians suppose to have been a tribe of the Belgæ. Their dominion was terminated by the invasion of a fourth colony which came from Spain, under the command of the eight sons of Milesius; five of these perished through the casualties incident on landing, leaving the honour of the conquest, and the establishment of the family to the three survivors, Heber, Heremon, and Ir. The last named died shortly after the subjugation of the country, Heber was killed by his brother, and Heremon thus became sole monarch. The history of his successors for many generations presents little to arrest attention. One of them, surnamed Ollamb-Fodlah, or the learned doctor, is celebrated as the founder of several sage institutions; he is said to have ordained a triennial meeting of the elders or legislators at Tarah, and to have founded a college for the investigation and preservation of the national records. Two other princes of the same line are said to have fixed the first territorial division of the island, by a line from Dublin through Clonmacnois to Galway, marked by a deep trench strengthened by a rampart and a series of forts. The portion of the island to the north of this line was named Leah Quin or Conn's share, that to the south, Leah Mowa or Mowa's share, from the names of the princes by whom it was partitioned.^e But a still more remarkable division, yet partially existing, was subsequently made into the five provinces of Ullah or Ulster, Layean or Leinster, Mumha or Munster, Connaught, and Ciuge-na-Mee,^f or Meath,^g which last, comprehending the central counties of Meath, West Meath, and some surrounding districts, was afterwards absorbed into the neighbouring provinces of Leinster and Ulster, especially the former.

The reigns of the Milesian monarchs were almost incessantly disturbed by intestine commotions, suspended only by the temporary combinations of the rival chieftains for the purpose of repelling the predatory incursions made from the neighbouring shores of Great Britain, or by expeditions fitted out by themselves in retaliation. In one of these, it is said that St. Patrick was brought captive to the north of Ireland, where, during a servitude of several years, he acquired a knowledge of the native language and manners which considerably forwarded his subsequent apostolic labours.

Much as the country may have been indebted to this celebrated missionary, it is generally thought that Christianity had been introduced into it some time before by Declan, St. Kieran and others, who had succeeded in converting many of the lower classes, while St. Patrick, who returned to Ireland in 432, armed with credentials from Pope Celestine, gave it stability and influence by persuading the

^a The union of the Scots and Picts, under Kenneth, took place A. D. 843.—P.

^b The Argonautics, attributed to Orpheus.—P.

^c *Ἰερνῆ*—*Ierna* (Vers. Lat.)—P.

^d *Ἰουερνία*.—P.

^e Gaelic *Leath Chuinn* (pron. *Leah Hhuin*.) Half of Conn, and *Leath Mhoda* (pron. *Leah Voha*.) Half of Modha. The Conn here mentioned was Conn of the hundred fights (Gaelic *Conn Cett-cathaigh*—Lat. *Constantinus Centimachus*.) king of Connaught. Modha

(*Eugenius Maximus*, Eugene the Great) was founder of the dynasty of Munster.—P.

^f Qu. *Coige-na-Meadh* (Coige-na-Meah.) province of the middle; Meath occupying the centre of the island.—P.

^g The Irish (Gaelic) names of these five provinces are *Uladh* (Ulath,) *Laighion* (Layean,) *Mumha* (Muha,) *Connachda* (Connahda,) and *Midhe* (Meeya.)—Connachda is Conn's field (*Conn*, and *achadh*, field;) Connaught being included in Conn's half, and Cruachan, in the same province, his capital.—P.

princes and nobility to embrace its doctrines, by building churches and religious houses, and by appointing regular orders of priests and instructors. In noticing this celebrated character, it should not perhaps be wholly omitted that Ledwich denies his existence, and that a later writer, whose opinion is entitled to still less weight, endeavours to prove him a Roman of patrician origin.

The introduction of the new faith does not appear to have had much influence on the conduct of the native princes. The succeeding part of the history contains accounts of war, turbulence and assassination, similar to those with which the era of paganism had been stained. The calamities of the country were further augmented by the invasions of the northern freebooters, known in the Irish annals by the name of the Black and White Scandinavian pirates,^a and in English history by that of Ostmen or Danes. Seizing first on the principal seaports, and afterwards availing themselves of the still continued broils of the native chieftains, they at length obtained the sovereignty of the whole island about the year 860. But they did not maintain tranquil possession of this rich prize. Turgesius, their sovereign, was killed by treachery, and the Danes were driven from the interior; but they still retained possession of the ports through which they were enabled again to strengthen themselves by fresh supplies from their native regions.

In the year 1014, Brian Boru,^b who stands recorded in the annals of Ireland as a model of royal virtues, a valiant hero, and a consummate statesman, after raising himself to the sovereignty of the whole island—for at this period each province had its petty king, one of whom, on acquiring a superiority over his fellows, was recognised as supreme ruler—defeated the Danes at Clontarf, near Dublin, so completely, as to afford his countrymen a breathing time to recover from the exhausting desolation of civil war and foreign invasion.

This period of tranquillity was marked by an important ecclesiastical event. A national synod was held at Kells in Meath, in the year 1152, at which Cardinal Paparon, the pope's legate, presided. At this meeting tithes were introduced, the Irish clergy having previously maintained themselves wholly from the produce of their mensal lands. Four pallis were also given as badges of archiepiscopal jurisdiction under the papal see; one to the archbishop of Armagh as primate, the other three to those of Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam.

The ecclesiastical revolution thus tranquilly and speedily effected, was followed by another of a political nature, which wholly changed the destinies of the nation, and laid the foundation of the arrangements that continue to the present time. Henry II. of England had early in his reign conceived the idea of adding Ireland to his dominions. To effect this, he prevailed on Pope Adrian to issue a bull, which was published in the year 1154, granting him the sovereignty of the island, on the condition of reducing it completely under the spiritual authority of the Roman see, and of paying him a tribute of a penny for each hearth, better known by the name of Peter's pence. The title, such as it was, lay dormant for several years. Too much

engaged by domestic troubles, Henry had little time to devote to a foreign expedition of such magnitude. An unexpected circumstance at length induced him to turn his attention westwards.

Dermod M'Morrough, king of Leinster, having been driven from his dominions by Roderick, king of Ireland, in consequence of an atrocious breach of hospitality committed by him against O'Ruark, chieftain of Brefney, whose wife he had seduced and carried off, applied to Henry to replace him on his throne, offering to hold his kingdom under the English monarch as the price of his restoration. Too much occupied to pay personal attention to this tempting offer, yet unwilling to reject it altogether, Henry dismissed the Irish prince with a general assurance of protection, and a vague permission to any of his subjects to volunteer their services in the cause of his new tributary. Strengthened with this permission, Dermod, while on his journey homewards through Wales, prevailed upon Richard de Clare, Earl of Chepstow, better known by the soubriquet of Strongbow, to assist him, under an engagement of giving him his daughter Eva in marriage, and of securing to him the succession to the crown of Leinster. Dermod then returned to Ferns, his capital city, to prepare for the reception of his expected ally, who shortly after sent over, as a kind of advanced guard, a small detachment, consisting of 150 knights, 70 men-at-arms, and 600 archers, under the command of Robert Fitz-Stephen. This little band, after having made good a landing at the creek of Bag and Bun in Bannow Bay, and being joined by Dermod and his Irish forces, took the town of Wexford, and made a permanent settlement in the neighbouring districts of Bargie and Forth, where their descendants continue to the present day; Strongbow shortly followed with a larger force, and after taking Waterford by storm, followed up his success by the capture of Dublin. Roderick, king of Ireland, now seriously alarmed at the progress of the invaders, endeavoured to expel them from their new conquest, but after laying siege to the last named city, he was defeated, and his army totally dispersed.

The rapid progress of Strongbow drew upon him the jealousy of the king of England, by whom he was compelled to surrender the whole of his conquests, on condition of receiving the greater part back as a fief from the crown, resigning Dublin and the other large towns wholly to the king. Henry himself soon after crossed over into Ireland with a numerous and splendid train of noblemen and troops. No opposition was attempted. Roderick remained inactive in Connaught. The petty chieftains of Leinster did homage to Henry in Dublin, where they were received by him with all the pomp of a sovereign. A council at Cashel, held under a papal bull, acknowledged his authority; large tracts of land were portioned out among the principal English adventurers; the system of English laws and English tenures was introduced, and a commencement thus formed for establishing British dominion throughout the country.

Having terminated his pacific expedition by the appointment of Hugh de Lacy as governor of Dublin, and justiciary of Ireland, Henry returned to England. Soon

^a Called by the Irish, Duff-galls and Fin-galls, black and white for-eigners. (Ed. Enc.)—Gaelic, *Dubb-Ghail* and *Fionn-Ghail* (pron. *Duv-hwáil* and *Fín-hwáil*.)—The Danes were called by the Irish, *Dubb-Lochlonnaich* (Black Lochlinians—the Duff-galls;) the Norwegians, *Fionn-Lochlonnaich* (White Lochlinians—the Fin-galls.)—

Lochlin was the Gaelic name for Scandinavia in general. (Macpherson.)—*Lochlonnach*, plu. *Lochlonnaich*, signifies a sea-faring man; literally, one strong at sea, from *loch*, a lake, the sea, and *lonn*, strong (Lhuyd.)—P.

^b Brian Boroimhe or Boromha (pron. *Boroha*.)—P.

after his arrival there, a formal treaty was concluded between him and Roderick, whereby the latter acknowledged Henry as his liege lord, paying him an annual tribute of every tenth hide, and a specific number of hawks and hounds.

The new settlers, in the mean time, were actively employed in securing and extending their possessions, partly by the sword, and partly by treaties and family alliances with the more powerful chieftains. Placed at a distance from the centre of English rule, the bands of union hung very loosely upon them. Not content with mixing as partizan auxiliaries in the domestic feuds of the native princes, they quarrelled among themselves as to the partition of their newly acquired booty, and the country, instead of finding relief from the uniform control of a more powerful superintendance, felt its former evils of intestine division aggravated by the interference of those greedy and arrogant intruders. John Earl of Morton, Henry's favourite son, was at length sent over as lord lieutenant. But he was young and ill advised. He offended the natives by his undisguised contempt of their manners; he insulted them in the persons of their leaders. Some of the native princes, on presenting themselves, were made objects of mockery; their beards were plucked in derision by the young English courtiers. They consequently quitted the court in disgust, and spread the flame of discontent through every part of the country. John was recalled, but some years after returned as king of England, and endeavoured to restore order and tranquillity upon the basis of a fixed and uniform government. The forms of the English laws were observed in the courts of judicature; all the parts of the country in any manner recognising the control of British authority were divided into the twelve counties of Dublin, Meath, Kildare, Uriel (now Louth,) Catherlough,^a Kilkenny, Wexford, Waterford, Cork, Kerry, Limerick, and Tipperary. The remainder of Ireland, consisting of Ulster, Connaught, and some of the central districts in Leinster, still remained, with a few slight exceptions, under the dominion of the native chieftains.

John remained but six months in Ireland. After his departure, the country soon lapsed into its former state of confusion. During the subsequent reigns of the first three Edwards, the Irish earnestly and frequently applied for the extension of the benefits of the English laws throughout all parts of the island. Their petitions were favourably received, and royal mandates were issued to ascertain the propriety of granting them; but the influence of the great English settlers, who profited by the public disorders, always prevented the practical application of the remedy.

During this period the part of the island subject to English law was called the Pale; it extended in reality over little more than the province of Leinster, the remainder of the country being still subject to the native princes, who ruled according to the principles of the Brehon or old Irish law. The English themselves were split into two factions, English by blood, and English by birth; the former comprising the descendants of the original adventurers and other old settlers, who, by constant residence among the natives, and frequent inter-

marriages with them, had acquired many of their customs, habits, and prejudices; the latter consisting of the fresh supplies of settlers whom the hope of large grants of lands, or of lucrative situations under the government, had allured thither. The former of those classes gave greater annoyance to the ruling powers than even the natives, insomuch that, in the writs issued for repressing the tumults arising from this state of disorganization, while the Irish in arms against the king are called enemies, the refractory English are designated by the harsher name of rebels. Not that the epithet thus imposed upon the Irish indicated any intention of visiting their trespasses with a mitigated portion of legal vengeance. On the contrary, the mere Irish, as they were called, were so utterly excluded from the protection of the newly introduced laws, that while the murder of an Englishman was punished, as now, by death, that of an Irishman was passed over with impunity, unless the sufferer had the good fortune to belong to one of the five tribes which were admitted, by special favour, to a participation of the rights of British subjects.^b Records of pleas of murder still exist in which the defendant acknowledges the fact, but alleges that the person killed was not English, but a mere Irish, and not of the five bloods, and is accordingly dismissed with impunity.

The horrors of this state of internal anarchy were increased by a foreign invasion. Edward I. had directed all the energies of his kingdom to the subjugation of Scotland. Not content with the supplies of men, arms and provisions to be procured at home, the scanty resources of Ireland were drained to swell their magnitude. On the commencement of the feeble reign of his son, Edward II., Robert Bruce, as well for the purpose of creating a diversion, as to rid himself from the encumbrance of a turbulent auxiliary, sent his brother Edward into Ireland to assert his claim to the sovereignty of the country, and to enforce it by the sword. For some time he was singularly successful. Having been joined, after his landing at Carrickfergus, by most of the discontented chieftains of Ulster, he proceeded to Dundalk, where he was crowned. Thence moving southwards, he devastated the country with fire and sword as far as Munster. But at length the whole force of the English was collected against him, and Bruce, whose army was exhausted by the rapidity of its progress and the magnitude of its exertions, too impatient also to wait the arrival of an expected supply from home, joined battle with it near Dundalk. The contest was decisive; the Scotch were totally routed, and the body of their commander found among the heaps of slain.

The fascinating though delusive prospect of the crown of France distracted the thoughts of Edward III. from the settlement of Ireland, an achievement of less splendour, though of more solid utility. Still, however, it was not wholly overlooked. His son Lionel was sent thither as chief governor. He succeeded in some degree in repressing the spirit of insubordination among the feudal barons, and in checking the predatory incursions of the Irish. But, on the other hand, the bond of separation between the two nations was sealed during his government, by the celebrated statutes of the parliament

^a Carlow—Gaelic, *Cathair-loch* (pron. *Caer-loh*.) city or fortress of the lake.—P.

^b The five tribes or families were, the O'Neils of Ulster, the O'Me-

laghlins of Meath, the O'Conoghers of Connaught, the O'Briens of Thomond, and the M'Murroughs of Leinster.

at Kilkenny, which enacted, that none but Englishmen should be admitted to holy orders, or allowed to become members of a religious house, without a licence from the king, and that a native was not to enjoy the benefits of English law, without paying a fine for a special writ for the indulgence.

The affairs of Ireland were considered by his immediate successor, Richard II., of sufficient importance to call for his personal interference. Having landed at Waterford with a force, consisting, according to the chronicles of the time, of 30,000 infantry and 4000 men-at-arms, he proceeded without interruption or molestation to Dublin. Here he received the submission of upwards of seventy chieftains, and conferred the order of knighthood on O'Neal, O'Connor, O'Brian, M'Murchad and some others, yet not without reluctance on their part, the ceremony being considered rather as a badge of inferiority than a token of elevation. On the monarch's departure, after a pompous yet inefficient residence of nine months, the feuds of the settlers and the marauding warfare of the natives revived with aggravated violence.

In 1399, Richard again visited the country, but his expedition was now neither so tranquil nor so fortunate as before. During his march from Waterford to Dublin he found his progress impeded at Kilkenny by the assaults of Art. M'Murcha, who with a band of 3000 resolute followers, rushed suddenly from the impenetrable fastnesses of his woods and morasses, and so harassed the royal army by his rapid and reiterated assaults, that the king experienced no small difficulty in arriving at the end of his journey. The insurrection in England which terminated in setting his rival Henry of Lancaster^a on the throne, hurried him from Ireland, and the country was again left a prey to the devastating animosities of the contending factions.

So powerful were the Irish princes during this and the subsequent period of the wars of York and Lancaster, that their cumrick or protection was anxiously sought for by the English borderers of the pale, and secured by the payment of an annual tribute called Black-rent. The pale itself was contracted within the narrow limits of the counties of Dublin, Meath, Kildare, and part of Louth, and the boundary line to the south of Dublin city, beyond which the king's writ was a dead letter, was fixed as far as Tallaght by the stream of the Dodder, a rivulet within three miles of Dublin, and thence by a trench with redoubts to Newcastle on the borders of Kildare; all the district to the south of this line, except a narrow band along the sea coast to Bray, being in the undisputed possession of the Irish, two families of whom, the O'Birnes and the O'Tooles, asserted and maintained the rank of independent princes throughout the southern part of Dublin county, and the mountainous district since designated as the county of Wicklow.

Ireland was not tranquillized by the termination of the civil wars in England. Even after Edward IV. obtained the undisputed possession of the throne, his government in Ireland was reduced to such a state of imbecility, that the only means devised for protecting the pale against its surrounding enemies was the formation, by act of

parliament, of a military fraternity under the name of the Armed Brotherhood of St. George, consisting of a captain and 160 horse-archers, with an equal number of attendants on foot. The private feuds of the great leaders of the degenerate English and the Irish, of the Butlers and Fitzgeralds in the south, and of O'Neil and Tyrconnel in Ulster, alone prevented the total overthrow of the king's government.^b The authority of his lieutenant was set at defiance in the very capital. Keating, prior of Kilmainham, then a preceptory of the order of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, though deposed for his turbulence and misconduct by his superior, not only refused to submit, but seized upon Lumley, an Englishman, who had been sent over to succeed him, and kept him prisoner till his death.

The general alienation of the public sentiment in Ireland from the English dominion was so great at the commencement of the reign of Henry VII., as to induce his enemies to select this country as the theatre for their first public exhibition of the mimic kings, through whose agency they hoped to drive him from his throne. Lambert Simnel was therefore sent thither; and so numerous and zealous were his adherents, that he was enabled to carry over a large body of Irish to support his claims by the sword in England, who were cut to pieces in the bloody battle of Stoke in Nottinghamshire. Perkin Warbeck also met with a similar reception, though on a more limited scale. To such a pitch were the minds of the native chieftains excited by the imbecile government of the English about this time, that on an agreement made by Richard Duke of York with M'Geoghegan to prevent the repetition of his incursions from the north-western counties into Meath, the latter boasted among his friends, that he had granted peace to the king's lieutenant. M'Gillypatrick also, a chieftain in Ossory, despatched an ambassador with a formal complaint to the king in England, who, stopping him on coming out of his private chapel, delivered his commission in a set Latin speech, of which the following is a literal translation;—"Stand on thy feet, my lord king: my master M'Gillypatrick has sent me to you, and ordered me to declare, that if you do not punish Red Peter, he will make war against you."

But Henry was not of a temper to be insulted or resisted with impunity. When firmly fixed on his throne, he sent over Sir Edward Poyning, an English knight, much in his confidence, as chief governor. The most remarkable act of his administration was the passing of statutes, afterwards the subject of much discussion, under the name of Poyning's laws, by one of which the lord lieutenant was prohibited from holding parliaments at his pleasure, and by another, a parliament was forbidden to be held there until all the bills proposed to be introduced into it should have been previously laid before the English privy council for the king's approval. This continued to be the law of the land till the year 1782.

The intestine wars between the great English nobles and the native Irish still raged with almost unremitting violence. During their continuance, the then Earl of Kildare was called over to England to answer in person

^a Henry IV.

^b The interchange of messages between these rival potentates is worthy of being recorded for its singularity. O'Neil claimed a tribute from Tyrconnel as his feudatory; to obtain it he sent him a message

couched in the following laconic terms; "Send me my tribute, or else ——" Tyrconnel answered him in terms equally laconic and significant—"I owe you no tribute, and if ——".

some charges of a treasonable nature ; but, contrary to the expectation of his enemies, the king was so much pleased by his manly and candid explanations, that he sent him back as chief governor. On his return, he, with the aid of the O'Neils, O'Reillys, O'Connors, M'Geoghegans, and others of the Irish, defeated the united forces of Ulick M'William Burke, chieftain of Connaught, Tirlough O'Brien, Maelrony O'Carrol, and others, four thousand of whom, according to some accounts, or nine thousand, according to others, were left dead upon the field.

The virulence of civil discord was augmented during the succeeding reign by religious controversy. Henry VIII. having succeeded in extinguishing the papal power in England, attempted to accomplish the same object in Ireland, but with different success. Though supported by the bishops of English birth, his scheme was obstinately resisted by the Irish. The native chieftains, also, from a conviction that in opposing these innovations they were maintaining the cause not only of their independence but of their religion, were stimulated to the greatest efforts. The Irish of Ulster confederated under O'Neil as the champion of the cause ; but a victory gained over them at Ballyhae by Lord Grey, the lord deputy, dissolved their union. O'Neil, De Burgo and others submitted and exchanged their ancient dignities for those of English nobility. About this time, also, Henry, from a wish to confirm his authority by the assumption of a more imposing title, had himself styled king instead of lord of Ireland, under which name the sovereign authority had been hitherto exercised.

The short reign of Philip and Mary was marked by an attempt to restore the Roman Catholic form of worship, and by the formation of the districts of Leix and Offaley into shire-ground, under the names of the King's and Queen's counties, the assize towns of which were named Philipstown and Maryborough, in honour of the sovereigns who had effected the measure.

The contest between the conflicting interests was carried to its greatest height in the reign of Elizabeth. The Irish were headed by John or Shane O'Neil, son of the first earl of Tyrone. Early in this reign he had not only tendered his submission to the lord deputy, but even proceeded to London, attended by a numerous train, to offer it in person to the queen. The appearance of his retinue there struck the beholders with astonishment. His guard of gallowglasses, or heavy armed soldiers, were arrayed in the full costume of their native country. Each carried a large battle-axe, his head was bare, his hair flowed loosely over his shoulders ; he was clad in a linen shirt of extravagant dimensions, dyed yellow, over which he wore his armour and a loose cloak. The queen received him with great favour, and dismissed him with several valuable presents, a large loan of money, and an assurance of her protection.

But these proofs of a pacific disposition were not of long continuance. Shortly after his return he broke out into open rebellion, from what cause is not clearly ascertained. After a protracted struggle against the lord deputy Sir Henry Sidney, in the course of which he took the city of Derry, he was reduced to such extremity as to have recourse to his bitter enemies the Scotch, rather than throw himself on the mercy of those he still more abhorred. His choice proved fatal to him. On his arrival at the Scotch quarters he was hospitably received by their commander, but on the same evening was assassinated in his tent at an entertainment, during a quarrel supposed to have

been intentionally excited as a pretence for this violation of the rights of hospitality. His head was afterwards transmitted to Dublin, where it was exposed on the castle gate.

During this and other similar insurrections in various parts, the English government made some progress in extending and consolidating its authority. The Annaly, a district subject to the M'Mahons, was formed into a county under the name of Longford. Connaught was partitioned into the five counties of which it consists at present, in addition to which, Clare, now part of Munster, was considered to be a sixth ; in all these districts Irish chieftainries were abolished, and the supremacy of English law acknowledged. But the south of Ireland still continued to exhibit scenes of turbulence, insurrection and desolation. The Earl of Desmond, a scion of the Geraldine or Fitzgerald family, had long exerted an almost regal authority throughout the counties of Kerry, Cork and Waterford, and now, relying on the assurances of support from foreign powers and chiefly from Spain, he at length openly set up the standard of revolt. The fate of a small body of Spaniards, who landed at Smerwick to cause a division in his favour, has been already mentioned. Desmond himself, after maintaining a desperate struggle against the queen's forces, was compelled to shelter himself among the woods and morasses, where, after undergoing extreme hardships, he was at length put to death in his place of concealment. His immense property escheated to the crown, and was parcelled out principally among the heads of the great families that had preserved their allegiance.

The spirit of insurrection was scarcely quelled in Munster, when it broke out again in the north. Hugh O'Neil, grandson of the first earl of Tyrone, taking advantage of an attempt, made with more vigour than prudence, to force the English law upon the natives in Ulster, raised the standard of revolt, and maintained a position of independence during all the latter part of Elizabeth's reign. This princess sent her favourite Essex into Ireland, at the head of a numerous and well-appointed army, to subdue him ; but the royal forces wasted away without effecting any thing of consequence, and Essex himself, returning precipitately into England, met with the fate which forms so romantic a feature in the annals of her last years. Ultimately, however, Tyrone, notwithstanding a diversion caused in his favour by the arrival of an armament from Spain, which kept possession of Kinsale for some time, was reduced to such extremities as compelled him to compound for his personal safety by a most humble submission.

Sir John Davies, who, in the commencement of the reign of James the First, published his elaborate treatise on the causes why Ireland had never been completely subdued, lays it down as a principle, that a barbarous country must first be broken by a war, before it can be made capable of benefiting by good government. Without entering into the discussion of a principle the soundness of which is upon a par with its humanity, it may be safely asserted that its practical efficacy was put fully to the test in Ireland. The country at Elizabeth's death was nearly a desert. Moryson, in his account of the war against Tyrone in Ulster, estimates the surviving population at not more than seven hundred thousand souls, and both he and Spenser describe the sufferings of the wretched peasantry in language that makes humanity shudder.

James I. during the greater part of his reign, applied him

self sedulously to what was called, in the quaint phraseology of the time, the plantation of Ulster. The six counties forfeited by Tyrone and other northern chieftains were parcelled out into estates of various dimensions; flattering inducements were held out to English and Scotch agriculturists to settle on them. Much of the land was purchased by some of the London trading companies, who still, under the name of the Irish Society, retain the proprietorship of extensive tracts in those counties. Large portions of land were also appropriated to the clergy and to the public schools.

The country during his reign was peaceable and prosperous. But the progress of improvement experienced a fatal check in that of his son and successor Charles the First, whose lieutenant, the Earl of Strafford, by his harsh and unjustifiable measures, utterly destroyed the spirit of confidence between prince and people. By calling in question the titles of the landed proprietors in Connaught, he excited a suspicion of further aggressions, and this, joined with the unsettled state of England, led to the catastrophe which nearly annihilated the British dominion in Ireland.

The conspiracy by which this object was to have been effected, and which was detected on the very day fixed on for its execution, was to have commenced its operations by the seizure of the castle of Dublin.^a Lord Maguire, one of its most active agents, was seized and executed in London. Yet its failure in the capital did not prevent its explosion elsewhere. It broke out with dreadful violence in the north, where Sir Phelim O'Neil soon found himself master of all Ulster, with the exception of a few of the larger towns. The accounts of the atrocities committed at the commencement of the insurrection have been much exaggerated by the virulence of party; some of the details of the murders said to have been committed by the insurgents are of a character to excite incredulity rather than to secure belief. But this much is certain, that the contest, which raged with various success and in many varieties of form throughout the country from 1641 to 1652, was carried on with all the bitterness that characterizes civil war aggravated by religious animosity.

Cromwell, who landed in 1649, brought the contest to a speedy termination. His first military act was the investment of Drogheda, which he took by storm and put the whole garrison to the sword, by this terrible example of military execution opening to himself an easy entrance into most of the other fortified places in Ireland. The embers of resistance which his recall to England obliged him to leave unextinguished, were finally quenched by Ireton and his other generals, and the country remained in a state of passive subjection to the Parliament of England until the Restoration.

The commencement of the reign of Charles the Second forms one of the great epochs of Irish history. During the republican government, the landed property of the country had been transferred, with a few exceptions, from the ancient owners to the soldiers of the conquering army, or to speculating adventurers who had advanced money to the Commonwealth, on the assurance of repayment with liberal interest from the confiscations that had been anticipated as the necessary consequence of unsuccessful resistance to the constituted authorities of the day. The extent of these confiscations was enormous. Of upwards of 20,000,000

acres which Ireland contains, 12,634,711 were thus transferred. A transfer of persons as well as of property took place. The Roman Catholics, who were so fortunate as to prove by satisfactory evidence that they had taken no part in the war, and who, on the establishment of such proof, were distinguished by the name of innocent papists, were compelled to remove into Connaught, where they were allowed to hold lands of inferior quality, but subject to a chief rent to the crown, which, however trifling its amount may appear at the present day, was then a heavy drawback upon the tenant's industry. They were also restricted from settling within a mile of the sea-coast, and still further, were excluded from residing within any walled town. The links of amicable communion being thus effectually rent asunder, between the two great classes of society, the proprietors and the peasantry, and the line of demarcation being still more strongly marked by the invidious distinction between Protestant and Catholic, every avenue to a mutual amalgamation of sentiment and interest was closed, and the two parties were doomed by the acts of Charles the Second, confirming the confiscations of the republican government, to exist as two distinct nations in the same country, known to each other only by a reciprocity of infliction and of sufferance.

The reign of James the Second excited a hope in the depressed party that this system was to have an end. The pusillanimity of this monarch and the vigor of his rival quickly dissipated any such expectation. The former, when driven from Great Britain, made an effort to regain his elevated position through the energies of his Irish subjects. But he was wholly unqualified to direct or to sustain those energies. After a struggle of four years, in which he was baffled personally at the Boyne, and afterwards, through his generals, at Athlone and Aghrim, the surrender of Limerick, his last hold in the country, extinguished every gleam of hope. The whole population submitted to the English government with the exception of those ardent spirits who preferred the vicissitudes of a life of exile to the monotony of domestic subjugation. These were formed into a corps in the service of France under the name of the Irish brigade, where during the succeeding wars on the continent they performed good service against the government by which they had been expatriated. The number of Irish thus driven into the ranks of the enemy may be estimated from the fact, that, according to the official statements of the French army accounts, there died in that service between the taking of Limerick in 1691 and the battle of Fontenoy in 1745, a period of little more than fifty years, no fewer than 450,000 Irish soldiers. These regiments were always led on against the English with the emphatic words, before used under similar circumstances at the battle of the Boyne by Schomberg, when encouraging his Huguenot soldiers against King James's French auxiliaries, "Gentlemen, behold your persecutors."

The attention of the victorious party in Ireland was now wholly directed to the securing of its conquest. To effect this, a new confiscation of property took place, to the amount of 1,718,320 acres, which was succeeded by the enactment of a series of laws of extreme rigour, since known by the name of the Penal Code, framed for the express purpose of utterly extirpating the Roman Catholic religion. The effect of this system, so far as it affected the security of the new proprietors, and the prostration of the proscribed mode of faith, was com

^a The day fixed for the seizure of Dublin Castle was Oct. 22, 1641. The principal leader in this rebellion was Roger Moore.—P.

plete. During the first subsequent rebellion in Great Britain in favour of the son of James II.,^a Ireland was perfectly tranquil; nor could the slightest trace of any communication between the native Irish and the adherents of the Pretender in France or Scotland be detected. But, at the same time, the country was reduced to such an extreme of internal wretchedness, that Swift gave vent to his feelings of exasperated patriotism, in the bitterest strain of sarcastic irony, published under the title of "a modest proposal for preventing the children of poor people in Ireland from being a burden to their parents and country," by making use of their flesh as an article of food. On the rumour of a second attempt in favour of the dethroned family, which was carried into effect in Scotland in 1745, the Earl of Chesterfield was sent over as lord lieutenant, and this nobleman, with equal good feeling and good policy, relaxed the rigour of the penal code so far as to overlook the breach of law committed by Roman Catholics in assembling together for the celebration of divine worship.

In the year 1759, the landing of the French under Thurot in the north of Ireland, afforded another test of the spirit of the country. Though this petty invasion was merely a feint to veil the movements of a larger armament, and proceeded no farther than the momentary possession of the almost dismantled castle of Carrickfergus, the sensation excited by it pervaded the whole island; an expression of determined resistance was universally and unequivocally displayed.

Not long after, an important change took place in the constitution of the Irish parliament. The members of the House of Commons had hitherto held their seats during the life of the reigning king. The bond between the constituent and his representatives was, therefore, little more than nominal; there was no sympathy on the one side, no control on the other. The lord lieutenants, also, instead of making the country the place of their constant residence, visited it but once in two years for the purpose of holding a parliament, leaving the details of government during the intervals in the hands of two or three of the chief residents, who, under the title of lords justices, actually possessed all the influence, and consequently all the powers of the state. In the year 1768, an act was passed, in consequence of the reiterated remonstrances of the Irish House of Commons, limiting the duration of parliament to eight years, and at the same time, the lord lieutenant was required to reside in Ireland. The secondary influence of the lords justices being thus annihilated, the lord lieutenant became the actual as well as the nominal governor, and the House of Commons felt the necessity of being, in some degree at least, the real protectors of those popular rights which they were chosen to maintain.

The breaking out of the American war in 1775, afforded ample scope for the exertion of the newly acquired powers of the popular branch of the legislature. Enlarged views of the reciprocal interests of the two great portions of the empire called for new enactments. The Irish parliament, which had hitherto acquiesced in all the arrangements transmitted from England, began to exert the right of judging and of legislating for itself. The agitation of the American question, and the unex-

pected incidents consequent on the commencement of hostilities with that country, afforded new cause of excitement to the public mind. Most of the troops had been called out of Ireland, for transatlantic service; so that, when, on the apprehension of an invasion from France, an application was made to the government for an adequate supply of troops to meet the impending emergency, the answer given by the lord lieutenant was, that Great Britain had no troops to spare, and that the nation must look to itself for the means of self-defence. The hint was taken; the people armed themselves; at first in detached and unconnected bodies, but gradually convinced of the necessity for combined exertion, they ultimately formed themselves into an organized and disciplined army, amounting to 42,000 men, at the head of which was placed, by unanimous consent, the Earl of Charlemont, a nobleman who, after having spent the bloom of his youth in the elegant enjoyments of the most polished courts in Europe, had the courage to break their fascinating bonds, and to devote himself to a constant residence at home, at that time a country of few intellectual attractions, in order to aid, by his example and influence, the introduction of the spirit of refinement which his observations, when abroad, had taught him to be necessary to elevate his native land to its proper position in the scale of civilized society.

The people having, by this determined and simultaneous act, effectually dissipated all apprehensions of danger from a foreign enemy, began to turn their thoughts towards the internal improvement of the country. They called upon their representatives for a repeal of those laws, which, framed with the expressed intention of consolidating the strength of the empire by confining each division of it within the limits of its own resources and capabilities, had, in reality, weakened it by ill-judged restrictions on the dependent portion. The volunteer association changed its character; it became a deliberative as well as a military body. A meeting of delegates from all the corps in Ulster, convened at Dungannon, adopted resolutions declaratory of the right of the Irish legislature to make laws, uncontrolled by any external interference. The spirit thus excited rapidly transferred itself into the parliament. Henry Grattan, whom Lord Charlemont, from a conviction of his great latent powers, had introduced into the House of Commons, took the lead within that house, in asserting the independence of the Irish legislature. Supported by the combined exertions of the advocates of the measure, both within and without its walls, he eventually succeeded in obtaining an explicit renunciation of the claim of legislative control on the part of Great Britain.

Another great question still remained unsettled. The independence of the parliament could avail but little if its members continued liable to the influence of ministerial corruption. The volunteers, therefore, called for a reform in the House of Commons. A second delegated meeting assembled in Dublin for the express purpose of taking the opinion of the armed population of Ireland on the subject. The parliament and the volunteers were now at issue. The metropolis presented the anomalous exhibition of two rival delegated bodies, each professing to emanate from the people, each claiming to be the exclusive organ of its sentiments, and each determined to control the other. The parliament prevailed: it passed

^a In 1715.

a vote declaratory of its own omnipotence; the volunteer assembly adjourned *sine die*, and the question of reform was lost.

From this moment the spirit of volunteering began to evaporate. The peace with America rendered their services, in a military point of view, unnecessary; the late triumph of the ministerial party in parliament proved their inefficacy towards vindicating the right of the people to an effective control over the conduct of their representatives. They gradually declined in numbers and in spirit, until they were finally put down, without the slightest semblance of resistance, by a proclamation from the government prohibiting their assemblage.

In the year 1789, a great international question arose, which served to show the practical effect of the lately acquired independence of the Irish parliament. George III. was attacked by a mental derangement that wholly precluded him from holding the reins of government. A regency became necessary. The parliaments of the two countries were at issue on the point. Both agreed that the sovereign authority should be intrusted to the heir-apparent, then in the full maturity of age. But, while the parliament of Great Britain determined to impose restraints on his exercise of the functions of royalty, that of Ireland resolved to present the regency to him unshackled by any limitations beyond those imposed by the constitution on the sovereign himself. Matters had proceeded so far that a delegation from both houses of the Irish parliament was despatched to the Prince of Wales, to offer him the unrestricted regency of Ireland. On its arrival in London, the king was declared to be so far restored to the due use of his mental faculties, as to be enabled to resume the government. The delegates returned; but from that moment the British minister determined, by an amalgamation of both parliaments, to prevent the risk of such collisions in future.

During the progress of those political movements, the Roman Catholics were gradually extricating themselves from the yoke of servitude imposed on them by the penal code. In the year 1745, as has been already noticed, the first alleviation of their degraded state was afforded them by the Earl of Chesterfield's allowing their assemblage for devotional purposes to be held without molestation from the constituted authorities, an act of toleration in its most limited sense. In 1774, parliament passed a statute allowing them to testify their allegiance. Even this was a boon, for hitherto the existence of a Roman Catholic was not recognised in the eye of the law. In 1779, they were permitted to hold lands on leases for 999 years, having previously taken the oath of allegiance.

In the year 1793, the progress of the French revolution had excited a spirit of restless innovation, which, instead of endeavouring to obtain the redress of real grievances by constitutional means, displayed itself in acts of violence against the constituted authorities. The ministry, partly with a view to conciliate the great body of the people, partly in accordance with the growing spirit of liberality that every day more strongly marked the advance of knowledge, granted to the Roman Catholics, besides several minor privileges, the right of voting for the election of members of the House of Commons, thus extending to them the enjoyment of

every privilege exercised by Protestants, except that of sitting in parliament. But the concession, made under unfavourable circumstances, was accepted as a right rather than as a favour. The spirit of discontent still prevalent was sedulously fostered by a society formed in Belfast under the name of United Irishmen, and afterwards extended to Dublin. Its professed object was the obtaining of parliamentary reform; but soon, enlarging its views with its increase of strength, it determined on obtaining a separation from England by force of arms. Such was the activity of its members, that in a few years they had organized a secret confederacy of 500,000 men. Their measures at home were ably seconded abroad by Theobald Wolfe Tone, originally the secretary of the society, who, having been forced to fly in order to avoid a criminal prosecution for high treason, succeeded in prevailing on the republican government of France to send a large armament, under their favourite general Hoche, to invade Ireland. The fleet, by a most daring manœuvre, arrived in safety on the south coast of Ireland; but the vessel of their commander-in-chief having been separated from the rest by a storm, Grouchy, the next in command, by his indecision, lost the opportunity of effecting a landing, and the fleet, after lying a few days unmolested in Bantry Bay, retraced its course, and arrived again at Brest in safety.

The possibility of the recurrence of such a visitation urged the government to use the most violent and unwarrantable means for its prevention. The Protestants were all armed under the name of yeomanry; the military were encouraged to the committal of such excesses, that General Abercrombie, then first in command in Ireland, in expressing his abhorrence of their licentious behaviour, declared in public that the soldiery were formidable to every one but their enemies. He was forthwith removed, and General Lake appointed in his stead. The country was put under military law; suspected persons were seized, tried by court-martial at the drum-head, and scourged or executed by its summary sentence. Torture was applied to force confession. At length, in the spring of 1798, the rebellion, which had been fomented by the United Irishmen, and urged forward by the barbarities of the government, burst forth in the counties of Wexford and Antrim. After a short but sanguinary struggle, it was quelled. A small force of about 1000 French landed in the autumn of the same year at Killala, and after routing the troops collected to oppose them, penetrated as far as the county of Longford, where they surrendered to the overwhelming numbers brought against them by Lord Cornwallis, then lord lieutenant.

The next two years were employed in effecting the union, a measure which, as has been already said, was never lost sight of by the government since the period of the regency question. The system of unrelenting severity which had characterised the proceedings of the ministry before and during the rebellion, was now seconded by one of unlimited, undisguised corruption. Every place, every office, spiritual as well as temporal, was for sale; parliamentary influence was the price. The question of the Union, after having been rejected in the House of Commons by a small majority in 1799, was brought forward again in the succeeding year, and carried. The first day of the year

1801 saw the union standard floating over the gate of Dublin Castle.

The history of Ireland, after this period, becomes in a great measure identified with that of Great Britain. A partial insurrection which broke out unexpectedly in 1803, disturbed for a moment the torpid tranquillity of the country. It was the act but of a single night; its leaders suffered the penalties of the law, and the aspect of public affairs immediately resumed its former appearance. The remainder of the period to the present time presents little but the repetition of efforts on the part of the Roman Catholics who composed the bulk of the population, to obtain the great privilege from which they were still debarred, the right of sitting in parliament. Their perseverance has at length been crowned with success;^a but the detail of the proceedings that led to this result is too complicated to be compressed, and too recent to require a detailed narration.

According to the civil division of the country, Ireland contains thirty-two counties, of which twelve are in Leinster, nine in Ulster, six in Munster, and five in Connaught; besides which, five cities, Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Waterford, and Kilkenny, and three towns, Galway, Drogheda, and Carrickfergus, are considered to be detached counties, having a municipal jurisdiction, extending to a certain tract round each, wholly independent of that of the county in which they are situated. It is represented in the imperial parliament by twenty-eight peers, and one hundred commoners, of which latter, two are returned from each of the thirty-two counties, two from Dublin city, two from Cork city, one from Trinity College, Dublin, and one from each of thirty-one borough towns.^b

Until the year 1829, the right of election in counties was vested in all the freeholders of forty shillings and upwards, consisting of by much the greater part of the landholders; and in cities and corporate towns, of those and of the freemen admitted according to the peculiar regulations of the corporation. But, on the passing of the relief bill, which restored to the Roman Catholics their right of sitting in parliament, the privilege of voting for members of counties was limited to landholders possessing freeholds of L.10 value or upwards; the qualifications of electors in cities and boroughs remaining unaltered. The number of electors in counties, has, in consequence, been reduced from 216,891 to 39,772, while that of the electors in cities and towns is estimated at 20,520; the whole of the constituency of Ireland, therefore, consists at present of 60,292 voters for eight millions of souls,^c being in the ratio nearly of one to every one hundred and thirty-three individuals, or to every twenty-two families.

The administration of the government is vested nominally in the lord lieutenant, removable at pleasure, though usually retaining his situation for five years, but

really in this functionary's chief secretary, who is considered as responsible to parliament for the management of the country. The lord lieutenant is assisted by a privy council invested with large powers, and consisting of the great law officers, and a few others, chiefly public servants of the crown.

The judicial power is lodged in the hands of the lord chancellor, and the four judges of each of the courts of King's Bench, Exchequer, and Common Pleas. The chancellor is assisted by the master of the rolls, who presides in a subordinate court of equity. For the general dispensation of justice, the country is divided into six circuits, each of which is visited by two of the law judges twice every year. Minor causes are tried at the quarter sessions, at which such of the county justices as choose preside. A salaried lawyer, called assistant barrister, has a place on the bench, to afford the magistrates the aid of his legal knowledge.

By a late arrangement, the superintendance of the counties is committed, as in England, to a lord lieutenant appointed by the government, who is considered as in some degree responsible for the preservation of the public peace, and, therefore, has the recommendation of nominating and removing the magistrates.

The local arrangements of the counties are regulated by the grand juries, consisting of twenty-three of the principal landed proprietors, if resident, or of their agents, if absentees. They are nominated by the high sheriff, and are seldom changed; thus forming a local aristocracy. Their power is very extensive; they have the levying and expenditure of all the money laid out on roads, bridges, and public buildings of every description; a weighty trust, checked only by an appeal to the judges of assize. This department of the local government has long been the subject of much complaint, on account of the magnitude of the sums levied, the partiality exercised in its expenditure, and the unequal pressure of the mode of taxation by which it is collected. Besides these county taxes, each parish is required to defray from its own resources the repairs and maintenance of the parish church, and the cost of rebuilding it when fallen to decay.

The protection of life and property is intrusted, by a late enactment, to a constabulary force consisting of 215 chief constables, 1328 petty constables, and 4394 subconstables, in all 5937 men, besides stipendiary or salaried magistrates in particular districts. These are maintained at an annual expenditure of somewhat more than L.250,000, being at an average of about L.41 per man.

The ecclesiastical jurisdiction is vested in four archbishops, one for each province, who take their titles from the cities of their residence, viz. Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam; under them are thirty bishopricks consolidated by unions and incorporations under eighteen bishops.^d The following table exhibits at one view the

^a A. D. 1829.

^b By the articles of union, Ireland was represented by four lords spiritual, by rotation of sessions, by twenty-eight lords temporal, elected for life by the Peers of Ireland, and by one hundred commoners, distributed as in the text. (Ed. Enc.)—The representation of lords spiritual and temporal continues the same. By the Reform Bill (June 7, 1832) Ireland is represented in the House of Commons by 105 members, of which 64 are representatives of the 32 counties, and 41 of boroughs, cities and the University, viz. for Dublin city, Cork city, Limerick, Waterford, Galway, Belfast, and the University, two each (14,) and one each for 27 boroughs, five new members being added.—P.

^c 7,734,365. (See Stat. Tab.)—P.

^d Thirty-three dioceses, under four archbishops and eighteen bishops. (Ed. Enc.)—According to the writer's own statement in his table, there are thirty-four bishoprics and twenty-two dioceses; the four archbishops each presiding over a separate diocese, exclusive of his provincial jurisdiction. The bishopric of Glendalough is not mentioned in Ed. Enc. art. Ireland. (In the account of Dublin (Ed. Enc.) it is stated that the diocese of Glendeloch was united to that of Dublin, in 1214.) The ecclesiastical provinces do not correspond with the civil. The province of Armagh includes the dioceses of Armagh, Dromore, Down, Derry, Raphoe, Clogher, Kilmore and Meath; that of Dublin

civil and ecclesiastical divisions of the country, according to provinces, counties, and dioceses.

LEINSTER.

County.	County Town.	Diocese.
Dublin	Dublin	DUBLIN, arch-diocese.
Meath ^a	Trim ^b and Navan	Meath.
Louth	Dundalk	<i>included in Armagh diocese.</i>
West Meath	Mullingar	<i>included in Meath diocese.</i>
Longford	Longford	Ardagh, united to TUAM.
King's County	Philipstown	<i>included in Kildare diocese.</i>
Queen's County	Maryborough	<i>included in Ossory and Kildare dioceses.</i>
Kildare	Naas ^c and Athy	Kildare.
Wicklow	Wicklow	<i>Glendalough, incorporated with DUBLIN.</i>
Carlow	Carlow	Leighlin.
Kilkenny	Kilkenny	Ossory.
Wexford	Wexford	Ferns, united to Leighlin.

ULSTER.

Donegal	Lifford	Raphoe.
Londonderry	Londonderry	Derry.
Antrim	Carrickfergus ^d	CONNOR, united to Down.
Tyrone	Omagh	Clogher.
Down	Downpatrick	Down.
Armagh	Armagh	Dromore.
Monaghan	Monaghan	ARMAGH, arch-diocese.
Cavan	Cavan	<i>included in Clogher diocese.</i>
Fermanagh	Enniskillen	Kilmore.
		<i>included in Clogher diocese.</i>

MUNSTER.

Clare	Eunis	Killaloe.
Tipperary	Cashel ^e	Kilfinora, united to Killaloe.
Limerick	Limerick	CASHEL, arch-diocese.
Kerry	Tralee	Emly, united to CASHEL.
		Limerick.
		Ardfert, united to Limerick.
		Aghadoe, incorporated with Ardfert.
Cork	Cork	Cork.
		Ross, united to Cork.
		Cloyne.
Waterford	Waterford	Waterford.
		Lismore, united to Waterford.

CONNAUGHT.

Mayo	Castlebar ^f and Ballinrobe	Killala.
Sligo	Sligo	Achonry, united to Killala.
Leitrim	<i>Carrick on Shan-non</i>	<i>included in Kilmore and Ardagh dioceses.</i>
Roscommon	Roscommon	Elphin.
Galway	Galway	TUAM, arch-diocese.
		Clonfert.
		Kilmaduaigh, ^g united to Clonfert.

those of Dublin, Kildare, Ossory and Ferns; that of Cashel, those of Cashel, Waterford, Cork, Cloyne, Limerick and Killaloe; that of Tuam, those of Tuam, Clonfert, Elphin and Killala.—By the Irish Church Reform Bill, passed July 30, 1833, the archbishoprics of Cashel and Tuam are reduced to bishoprics, and ten bishoprics united with other sees, viz. Dromore with Down, Raphoe with Derry, Clogher with Armagh, Elphin with Kilmore, Killala with Tuam, Clonfert with Killaloe, Cork with Cloyne, Waterford with Cashel, Ossory with Ferns, and Kildare with Dublin.—P.

^a East Meath.

^b Trim is the county town. (Bell.)—P.

^c Naas is the assize town. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

The number of parishes in the country is 2450, which are consolidated into 1396 benefices. The archbishops and bishops derive their incomes chiefly from the rents of land, which are farmed out by them, on leases during their own lives, or for twenty-one years; the parochial clergy are supported, in a small degree, by their glebelands, but chiefly by the tithes. Until lately, tithe was payable only from arable land, pasture grounds being relieved from it by a vote of the House of Commons, which was afterwards legalized by an act of parliament as part of the compact between the British ministry and the landed proprietors for carrying the Union. But this system has since undergone a great modification, which, though an unjustifiable infringement on the property of those who held lands under the provisions of the last mentioned act, has been a considerable relief to the poor occupying tenant. The tithe can now be converted, through a voluntary arrangement, between the incumbent and the parishioners, into an acreable imposition on the whole of the cultivated land, whether under tillage or pasture; thus equalizing the pressure on the individuals, and diminishing the expense of its collection, though in most instances increasing the amount of the incumbent's salary, by an augmentation of the total sum levied on the parish. The act has already been carried into effect in more than one-half of the parishes, 1497 having compounded, and 963^h remaining still subject to the former usage. The amount of tithe paid by the parishes which have compounded, is L.427,594, 2s. 5d.; if the value of those which have not yet come under the operation of the act be estimated at the same rate, the total of the tithe of Ireland would amount to L.704,987, 0s. 2d. Taking, in addition to this, the value of the glebe and glebe-house, at a general average of L.50 per annum for each benefice, both together would afford a net income of L.560 per annum for each incumbent,—an income, if equally apportioned, fully adequate to the wants and services of a body of men designed to be the instructors and models of conduct to the great mass of the population, which consists of those in the middling and lower walks of life.ⁱ

The incomes of the clergy officiating in town parishes are not included in the foregoing calculation, being collected in a different manner by an assessment on houses, called ministers' money. The number of parishes so circumstanced is about fifty.

^d The assizes and elections are held at Carrickfergus; the quarter-sessions, at Antrim. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e Clonmell is the county town, in which the assizes are held; Cashel, an archiepiscopal city, in which the quarter sessions are held. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f Castlebar is the county town. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g Kilmaduaigh. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^h 953?—P.

ⁱ The following is the summary of the statement made by Mr. Griffith, the boundary surveyor, in his evidence before the Committee of the House of Lords in 1832.

Ireland is divided into Archbishopricks	4
Bishops	23
Parishes	2450
Statute acres	20,400,000

Gross amount of tithe composition now paid	£427,594	2	5
Average of each compounded parish	287	15	0
Average of tithe composition to £1 Sterling of the value of the land	0	1	3½
Gross annual value of the land of Ireland, at a rent of 12s. 5½d. per acre	12,715,578	0	0
Amount of tithe of all the parishes in Ireland	704,987	0	2

The Roman Catholic religion is superintended by four archbishops, as in the established church,^a and twenty-two bishops, who derive their support partly from the profits of a parish, generally the most lucrative in the diocese, partly from the fees of licenses for marriages, and partly from the *cathedraticum*, an annual contribution from every incumbent under his control, proportionate to the value of his benefice.^b In cases of old age, infirmity, or any accidental visitation from heaven, the episcopal functions are discharged by an assistant or coadjutor, nominated by the bishop. The parish priests are appointed solely by the bishop, and derive their support from the voluntary contributions of their parishioners, collected chiefly at Easter and Christmas, at which periods they hold what are called stations, being half-yearly meetings, at some commodious house fixed on by themselves for the convenience of those residing at a distance from the chapel, where they hear their confessions, catechise their children, and deliver spiritual exhortations. Monasteries and convents are frequent in Ireland, many being in the enjoyment of considerable funds arising from charitable donations. The monks of some of them collect contributions through the country for the maintenance of their respective establishments. The funds of nunneries arise in a great degree from the money paid by ladies on their entrance into the order, the amount of which is seldom less than three or four hundred pounds. In some cases their income is increased by fees paid for the education of the daughters of persons of family and wealth.

The Presbyterian religion chiefly flourishes in the north of Ireland.^c The church is governed by a synod, consisting of ministers and lay elders, deputed by the respective congregations. The synod is governed by a moderator, annually chosen by the members. The ministers are supported partly by the voluntary contributions of their congregations, and partly by a grant of public money, called the *Regium Donum*. Other dissenters are similarly governed. The Society of Friends, or Quakers, are chiefly resident in Dublin and in the King's and Queen's counties. Jews are very few in number in Ireland.

The population of Ireland has increased uniformly and rapidly since the commencement of the period at which accurate inquiries began to be made for the solution of this great political question. At the close of Elizabeth's reign it was estimated, certainly not on very positive data, at no more than 700,000 souls. It was conjectured by Sir William Petty to have been 850,000, at

the close of the wars in 1652, and to have increased to 1,100,000, in 1672. Subsequent investigators have arrived at the following conclusions:—

1695, Capt. South,	1,034,102
1712, Thomas Dobbs, Esq.	2,099,094
1718, The same,	2,169,048
1726, The same,	2,309,106
1731, Returns of the established clergy,	2,010,221
1754, Hearth-money collectors, ^d	2,372,634
1767, The same,	2,544,276
1777, The same,	2,690,556
1785, The same,	2,845,932
1788, Gerv. Parker Bushe, Esq.	4,040,000 ^e
1791, Hearth-money collectors, ^f	4,206,612
1792, Rev. Aug. Beaufort,	4,088,226
1805, Tho. Newenham, Esq.	5,395,456
1813, Incomplete parliamentary census,	5,937,856
1821, Parliamentary census, ^g	6,801,827 ^h
1831, The same,	7,734,365

Of the aggregate number, thus ascertained by the census of 1821, it was found that 1,138,069 persons were principally engaged in agriculture, 1,170,044 in trades, manufactures and handicraft, and 528,702 were occupied in avocations not included in either of those classes, making the total of occupied persons 2,836,815.

In external appearance the peasants are well made, robust and active; generally well tempered, yet easily excited to violent emotions; affectionate to their kindred, and singularly attached to the place of their nativity. Their appearance and character are, however, considerably varied by local circumstances, arising from the various sources whence the country was peopled. In the north, particularly in the eastern parts, the dress, manners and language at once point out a Scottish origin. Connaught exhibits features equally strong of the aboriginal habits and language. In the south-west are to be discovered traces of Spanish customs; the eastern region of Leinster is more decidedly Saxon. The Irish language is still spoken in many parts, but in the greatest purity in the mountainous districts of the county of Donegal. In the west, and more particularly in the islands and peninsulas on the coast of Galway, Mayo and Donegal, where the intercourse with other parts is but small, that language is almost exclusively spoken, insomuch that interpreters are frequently made use of in the courts of justice.ⁱ

The general food is the potato, to which milk, and at times salt fish, is added during seasons of plenty. Flesh meat is a luxury seldom enjoyed but on occasions of peculiar festivity, such as weddings, christenings, &c. The clothing is chiefly of home-manufactured coarse

and examined by two neighbouring magistrates, were forwarded to the chief secretary's office in Dublin, where they were abstracted and arranged for publication. The returns made by the enumerators were also subjected to the inspection of the parochial clergy of the district, both Protestant and Catholic. The copies deposited in Dublin castle were afterwards examined by persons of respectability from various parts of the country, who from their local knowledge could vouch for the accuracy of the returns from those parts with which they were personally acquainted. The payments to the enumerators were subsequent to those investigations.

^b The official (amended and corrected) return was made to parliament in 1823. (Bell's Geog.)—P.

ⁱ The Irish language, as has been observed in note ^b p. 1277, is a Gaelic-Celtic dialect, generally considered the purest of the family, and undoubtedly the most cultivated. The Irish call their language Gaelic (*Gaoidheilg*), or Irish Gaelic (*Gaoidheilg Eirinach*). In the etymologies given in the notes, the term Gaelic is referable both to the Irish and Scotch Gaelic.—P.

^a The archbishops derive their titles from the same towns as the protestant archbishops.—P.

^b Easter offerings from the inferior clergy. (Myers' Geog.)—P.

^c They are chiefly descendants of the Scotch Presbyterians and English puritans, who settled in the north of Ireland, under the patronage of James I.—P.

^d This and the three following are derived from the returns of the number of houses, on an average of six to each house. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e In 1778, according to the number of houses, 3,900,000. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f See note ^d.

^g The census of 1821 was the only one taken on the principle of actual enumeration, subjected to effective checks. The process adopted was as follows: The persons employed in the several parishes or districts to take the enumeration were furnished with books, in which they were required to enter on the spot the name, age, occupation and relationship of every individual in every house on every town land in such district, together with a specification of the number of acres held by every householder. Copies of these entries, when verified on oath

cloth or frieze for the men; but the influx of cheap cottons has latterly caused a great change in the costume of the female peasantry from the characteristic dress of their ancestors.

The prevalent religion is the Roman Catholic, although the precise ratio of its prevalence, compared with the Anglican and Presbyterian modes of doctrine, is difficult, indeed almost impossible, to be ascertained. The inquiries lately set on foot, from sectarian or political motives, have served rather to obscure them than to develop the truth.^a Superstitious practices are much observed, particularly in the remoter districts. Some may be traced to the era of paganism: such are the lighting of fires at Baaltine or Beltine,^b and the passing of animals through the fire. Pilgrimages to places of peculiar sanctity are frequent among the Roman Catholics. Lough Derg in Donegal, and Struel wells in Down, are peculiarly celebrated. The belief in witchcraft and second-sight has not yet been eradicated from among the descendants of the Scottish settlers in Ulster. The love of learning, which peculiarly marks the Irish peasantry, is however gradually diminishing the extent of the sway of opinions and practices originating in periods of ignorance.

The means now in operation for rendering the rapidly increasing population of Ireland fitted to fulfil their duties to themselves and their country, through the irresistible influence of a well-ordered system of education, has been minutely analysed and detailed by reports of two parliamentary commissions appointed to investigate the subject. The result of the perusal of these documents leads to an inference far from consolatory, unless in prospect. Much as has been spoken and written on the subject, little has been done.

The university of Trinity College, Dublin, influences and controls the education of the higher classes. The superintendance of study is vested in teachers called junior fellows. The mode of instruction is almost exclusively catechetical. The total number of pupils on the books of the university may be estimated at 1600.^c The *curriculum*, or regular course of under-graduate studies, is completed in four years; the annual average of pupils is therefore 400. Estimating the duration of human life, after arrival at years of maturity, at thirty-three years, it will appear that the total number who enjoy the advantages of a complete liberal education in Ireland is 13,200, out of a male population of 3,500,000, being at an average of 1 for every 270.^d

Maynooth College, founded in 1795,^e exclusively for the education of the Roman Catholic priesthood, admits about 250 students annually, who are under the superintendance and instruction of 14 professors and lecturers.

The education of the lower classes has long been considered as peculiarly a national concern, and as such was made the subject of legislative enactments so early as the reign of Henry VIII. By these statutes every incumbent is bound by oath, on accepting a benefice, to keep a school in his parish for the instruction of the

natives in English, or to cause one to be kept by a competent teacher. This salutary regulation has been in too many instances disregarded or evaded. King James, in his distribution of the forfeited lands in Ulster, set apart large estates for the endowment of free grammar schools. These are now distinguished by the title of schools of royal foundation.^f Some were added to the number by Charles I., but they were too few and perhaps too richly endowed to accomplish the intentions of their royal founders. A grammar school was also required to be maintained in every diocese by the contributions of the beneficed clergy: twenty of these schools^g are in existence.

The number of free grammar schools was increased by a bequest of Erasmus Smith, one of the English adventurers, who obtained a large grant of forfeited lands during the government of the commonwealth. But these^h like the former, instead of being employed for the instruction of the poor, were converted into places of liberal education for the sons of the wealthier classes; a character which they still retain in several instances.

After the revolution in 1688, an attempt was made to promote the conversion of the Roman Catholics through the medium of education. Subscriptions were raised, and lands procured by purchase or donations, which were vested in a society incorporated for the management of the fund thus raised; hence the establishments under its control acquired the name of charter schools. The sanguine anticipations of the originators of this plan have been far from realised. Notwithstanding the additional aid of large annual grants of public money, these schools have utterly failed as an engine of proselytism on an extensive scale; wealth induced thriftless expenditure; mismanagement opened the door for abuses; the grants of public money have been withdrawn, and the trustees are left to their own private resources for the maintenance of the schools.

Within the last twenty years the efforts to disseminate elementary instruction among the great mass of the population have increased rapidly by the exertions of several new societies formed wholly or principally for this purpose. The association for discountenancing vice, consisting chiefly of the clergy of the established church, among other objects, undertook the education of the poor, according to the doctrines of the protestant faith. The society for the education of the poor, now better known by the name of the Kildare Place Society, proposed to disseminate moral instruction without any interference with the religious tenets of the pupils; but the adoption of a regulation immediately after the formation of the society, which excluded from any share in its benefits those schools in which the Bible without note or comment was not admitted as a class-book, was so strongly objected to by the heads of the Roman Catholic church, as to check considerably the extension of the benefits of the institution. The Roman Catholics shrunk from a participation of literary advantages to be purchased by the dereliction of one of the tenets of their church, in the indiscriminate

^a The Protestants have stated the Catholic population at 4,500,000; the Catholics, at 6,500,000. In 1821, the Protestant census gave 4,230,000 Catholics, and 1,963,487 Protestants. (Bell's Geog.)—P.

^b Beltan or Beltane—Gaelic, *Bealteine*, fire of Bel or Baal, on the first of May; supposed to be in honor of the Sun.—P.

^c Number of students in 1814, 900 (Ed. Enc.)—in 1818, 1209 (Morse.)—P.

VOL. III.—NO. 62

^d 1 to 265 nearly.—P.

^e It was opened in 1795. It was established by an act of parliament, by which it was placed entirely under the inspection of the Lord Chancellor and Chief Judges of Ireland. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f Royal Schools.

^g Diocesan Schools.

^h Erasmus Smith's Schools.

use of the Bible unaccompanied by the superintending advice and explanation of their pastors. Both these societies were supported by large parliamentary grants, until very lately, when the legislature was at length convinced of the impolicy, not to say the impracticability, of educating the great mass of the people according to principles in direct opposition to their modes of thinking on religious subjects. The annual grants to the two last named societies have been withdrawn, and the general education of the people placed under the superintendance of a board formed of individuals selected from among the most influential members of the leading Christian sects in Ireland.

The Irish and the London Hibernian Societies were formed with the view to disseminate religious instruction throughout those parts of Ireland in which the native language is prevalent; they are aided by several minor societies under different names: all are supported solely by voluntary contributions, and are wholly under the direction of protestants.

The schools, exclusively catholic, are supported and superintended by the society of the Christian Brotherhood, and other religious orders, by the nunneries, and by the collections and donations of the Roman Catholic inhabitants of various parishes under their respective parochial clergy.

In addition to the schools already mentioned, must be named the Sunday schools, which originated chiefly with the Methodist society, and are still mainly supported by the exertions of its members.

The total number of children receiving instruction amounted in the year 1826, to 568,964. From the return of ages in the census of 1821, it appears that the number of children of both sexes, between five and fifteen, which may be called the age of education, then amounted to 1,748,663, and therefore, making due allowance for the probable increase in five years, it may be estimated in 1826, at 2,000,000. In the latter of these periods the number receiving education in the public schools will be found to be somewhat less than one-fourth of this part of the population,^a or, in other words, between two-thirds and three-fourths of the rising generation are without the benefits of scholastic instruction, notwithstanding the extended endowments in lands, the large grants of public money, and the liberality of individual contributions towards the supplying of this national defect.^b

Agriculture, although the chief source of support for the adult population, is still in a very backward state as compared with that of Great Britain or the Netherlands. The implements of husbandry are of an inferior description, and the process of cultivation executed in a less careful manner. The prevalent mode of letting land is justly considered as one great cause of this inferiority. Farms, when out of lease, are generally let to the highest bidder, regard being seldom paid to the tenant-right. The occupier, therefore, feels but little inducement to expend his capital on his land; he hoards or lays out at a non-indifferent interest what would, under a better system, be more

profitably invested in the improvement of his farm. Absenteeism is also considered to be another cause of this evil. The tenant is neither cheered by the presence nor enriched by the expenditure of his landlord; he toils under the chilling inspection of an agent, anxious chiefly to enhance the value of his own services by the amount of his remittances, and too often a creditor on the estate he has in charge. It must, however, be acknowledged that the estates of some absentees form brilliant exceptions to this remark, and that the pressure of ill-judged avidity is often equally visible on the estates of resident proprietors. The want of internal communications by well-projected and well-executed roads is in many cases an additional cause for the backward state of agriculture.

A judicious rotation of crops is still but imperfectly practised, and the raising of green food for the winter supply of the cattle by no means sufficiently attended to. In the northern districts, oats and barley are the chief produce; the cold and dampness of the atmosphere checks the growth of wheat. In the southern counties, and in the districts around Dublin, wheat is largely raised, but it is deemed of inferior quality to that of England.

Grazing has always been a favourite mode of employing land, the humidity of the atmosphere and the genial mildness of the climate affording an almost perennial supply of pasture; the unsettled state of the country also long proved a bar to tillage. Hence the wealth of the native chieftain consisted chiefly in his numerous herds and flocks; his tribute was mostly paid in kine. During the latter period of the Irish parliament great attention was paid to the encouragement of tillage, and its progress was proportionately rapid. The chief grazing counties for black cattle are those of Limerick, Tipperary, Roscommon and Meath, where the farms are sometimes of extraordinary extent, a single occupier frequently holding more than 1000 acres. The grazing of oxen and sheep is seldom combined; that of the latter is an important object with the Irish husbandman, and more land, though of a poorer quality, is employed for this purpose than in the feeding of bullocks. The chief breeding counties for sheep are Limerick, Tipperary, Clare, Roscommon and Galway; some of the finest flocks in Ireland are to be seen in the last named county. The flocks are usually managed by the herd who attends the cattle; no regular shepherd being employed, as in England. The custom of folding is seldom adopted, and great backwardness is evinced by the neglect of using turnips for winter food.^c The cattle, when fit for market, are sent in immense numbers to the fairs at Ballynasloe,^d held twice every year. The principal fair is in October; it regulates the prices of cattle for the ensuing season, and is the great standard of the prosperity of this branch of the national wealth. Fat cattle are exported in great numbers from Meath to Liverpool, and of late years, the facilities of canal navigation, combined with those afforded across the channel by steam, bring large numbers from the western parts to Dublin for exportation.

^a The proportion of those receiving instruction, in 1826, is more than one fourth.—P.

^b The comparative number of schools and pupils maintained by each of the societies above named, as also of the private schools, whose teachers are wholly remunerated by the fees of their pupils, is given a table in the appendix.

^c Mr. Wakefield says, that in the whole course of his tour he never saw a sheepfold, and only one sheep feeding on turnips. (Ed Enc.)—P.

^d In Galway county.—P.

Hogs are kept in great numbers in every part. This animal is the inmate of the peasant's cabin, and thus acquires a degree of docility unusual in other countries; its food is potatoes. The native breed, long legged, bony, and ill-proportioned, has been of late years considerably improved by a cross of that of Leicestershire. Large and rapidly increasing quantities of pork and of live stock are exported, chiefly to Liverpool.

The dairy farms form a conspicuous feature in the rural economy of the interior, occupying a greater extent of country than those held by the feeding grazier. The farms in the Walsh mountains in Kilkenny exhibit striking peculiarities of manners. The principal of them belong to one family, the members of which constantly intermarry among one another, at such close degrees of consanguinity as frequently to require dispensations from the canonical prohibitions. The land is grazed in common; the people, though wealthy, live with the greatest economy, subsisting chiefly on potatoes and griddle bread, and indulging in no animal food but the relics of the pigs slaughtered for sale. Ireland has long been celebrated for the excellence of its butter. The best is made in Carlow; the most inferior comes from the rich soil of Limerick and Meath. It is remarkable that a country so productive of butter should utterly fail in the cognate article of cheese; yet, with the exception of a small district in Antrim, chiefly in the neighbourhood of Carrickfergus, no good cheese is made in any part; the consumption of this commodity is almost wholly supplied from England.

The culture of apples in Waterford and Cork in the south of Ireland, and in Armagh in the north, is considered as one of those regular branches of rural industry on which the farmer calculates as a sure source of pecuniary remuneration. In the two first named counties the fruit is generally converted into cider, which is the usual beverage of the middling classes of landholders; a superior quality of this liquor, when prepared with care and judgment, is highly valued, and amply repays the attention bestowed on its manufacture.

The culture of tobacco was lately introduced, but to a very limited extent. The results on small detached spots have led to very sanguine anticipations of its profit, when cultivated on a large scale; but the quantity raised in any single year is insignificant. The total number of acres planted in 1829, was but 461, of which 408 were in the county of Wexford alone. When it is considered that it is a crop of a quality peculiarly exhausting to the soil, requiring constant attention and great nicety of management in every period of its growth, that it is liable to frequent and irreparable injuries from the inconstancy of the climate, and that the plant raised is at best of an inferior quality, adequate certainly to the wants of the grower who is content with an herb of less grateful flavour, from the consideration of the greater economy in its use, but for that very reason, ill suited to cope in the general market with the produce of a foreign soil, the ultimate success of an outlay of capital to a large extent on its cultivation must be extremely problematical. The

legislature has, however, set the question at rest for the present, by prohibiting its cultivation, on the ground of its interference with the revenue arising from the importation of the foreign plant.

A recurrence to the sketch of the coasts already given, would lead to the conclusion that the people derived from the surrounding waters an inexhaustible supply of food for their own consumption, and a fund equally inexhaustible of commercial wealth from its export. Experience contradicts such an inference. With an ocean rolling round him stocked with fish of nutritious quality and varied flavour, with rivers abounding also with fish of similar description and conveying the contributions of the ocean almost to his door, the peasant is still compelled to satisfy the cravings of nature by the scanty and unvaried produce of his agricultural labours. Along the southern coast of Ireland from Cork to Wexford, at a small distance from the shore, lies the Nymph Bank, plentifully stocked with cod, hake and ling, which kinds of fish are common also on many other parts of the coast. Turbot, sole, plaice, and every other species of flat fish that frequents the northern seas, are also taken there. The sun-fish is seen at times in large numbers on the western coasts. One part of the great northern shoal of herrings annually passes through the Irish Sea, while another generally pursues its course along the coasts of Connaught.^a Salmon abounds in all the large rivers; the greatest fisheries of it are in the Northern Bann^b at Coleraine, the Boyne above Drogheda, the Southern Blackwater, the Shannon, and the river of Belleek near Ballyshannon. Great part of the fish is packed in ice, and thus conveyed fresh to the tables of the British gastronomes. Shell fish also abounds. Many species^c of the oyster are raised from various parts of the shore; some of a flavour peculiarly delicate, as those of Carlingford; others noted for size; others again, though seldom, combining both these qualities. The scallop, another maritime luxury, is often used merely as bait for larger fish. Lobsters, particularly in Kerry and Galway, are of large size, and well-flavoured; the same may be said of crabs and cray fish. The sprat of Waterford, the sand eel of Newcastle, and the smelt of Strangford, will always maintain a high estimation among the minor delicacies of the table. Pilchards were formerly caught in such abundance at Cloghnakilty, that the traffic in them rendered the town a place of considerable population; but, since the desertion of that station by the fish, the town has declined.

Yet it cannot be truly asserted that the apparent disregard to these bountiful offerings of nature is attributable to want of industry or enterprise for their attainment. Along the deep shores of the western parts, the hardy fisherman is to be seen in his wicker corach,^d coated with green hide, venturing for his precarious subsistence upon seas which even the well-prepared mariner contemplates with apprehension. The young men of the southern baronies of Wexford and Waterford, quit their homes in spring for the Newfoundland fisheries; some return with their little earnings at the close of the fishing season,

^a The herrings caught off the coast near Galway, are particularly large and fine. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^b The Bann.—A small river of the same name forms a branch of the Slaney, in Wexford county.—P.

^c Varieties.—P.

^d The corach (Gaelic, *curach*—Welsh *cwrwg* (cooroog), or *cwrwgyl*, whence coracle) is a boat made of wicker-work, and covered with hides or pitched cloth. It is still used in Wales and the Highlands, as well as in Ireland.—P.

while others remain one, two, or more winters in that inclement region, until they have realized the means of humble independence at home.

The chief cause of the backwardness of the fisheries is to be traced to the same cause as that of agricultural improvement—the want of capital. The fisherman depends on his daily labours for his daily bread; he has not wherewithal to fit out properly a substantial boat with all its tackle, much less to save and store a cargo so as to fit it for a foreign market. In order to remedy this crying evil, a board of fisheries was some years ago formed. It has already been productive of one advantage—a knowledge of the actual state of the fisheries, their capabilities, and their defects; it has excited a spirit of exertion, and produced an increased attention on the part of the ruling powers to this branch of national industry, which, persevered in judiciously, and impartially regulated, must lead to those results that a disinterested observer would say ought long since to have been realized.

The attention of the board of fisheries, during its existence, which terminated in 1830 by the stoppage of the annual grant of public money for its support, was chiefly directed to two objects, the erection and repairs of fishing-piers, and the formation of a loan fund for building and repairing boats. The expenses incurred in the attainment of the former of these objects was defrayed partly by grants of public money, and partly by the contributions of the neighbouring proprietors, and of other individuals interested in the improvement of the country. At the commencement of the year 1830, thirty-five piers were completed, and twenty-two in progress; the results produced by those completed are stated to be, in most instances, even more gratifying than might have been anticipated, exciting a spirit of increased exertion in the fishermen, from an increasing sentiment of the security thus afforded to their frail craft, and consequently inducing them to fit out new vessels, and to render those already built more sea-worthy. The expense thus incurred up to 1830 has been L.10,746.

The results of the loan fund are not so satisfactory. The total amount of the sums lent out is L.25,204, 18s. 4d. Of this sum, L.14,262, 0s. 1d. was to be repaid, according to the conditions of issue, in the year 1830. The repayments actually made at that period, were L.9,923, 9s. 1d. leaving an arrear of L.4,338, 11s. The remainder, amounting to L.10,942, 18s. 3d. was not due at the date of the return whence this statement has been formed.

Under the encouragements thus held out, the numbers of the fishermen have increased considerably, as appears from the following return, which shows that the number under the cognizance of the board, was, in the year

1822	36,159	1827	58,044
1823	44,892	1828	59,321
1824	49,448	1829	63,421
1825	52,482	1830	64,771
1826	57,805		

Thus exhibiting a progressive increase every year, and a total increase of 28,612. These numbers include the fishermen only, and do not comprehend the other persons occupied in the ulterior process of preparing the fish for market, such as curers, coopers, salt-makers, net-makers, &c.

The number of vessels employed in the fishing trade has increased proportionally. The total of the year 1830 was:—decked boats, 345; half-decked, 769; open sail-boats, 2,483; row boats, 9,522: total, 13,119.

The structure, rigging and management of the boats, and the mode of fishing, vary in different parts, to a degree, in some cases, singularly surprising. The eastern and western suburbs of Carrickfergus are inhabited almost solely by fishermen, those in the former being Scotch, in the latter Irish. The Scotch fish with the hook for round fish, in open boats, rigged with a single square sail; the Irish trawl for flat fish, in half-decked smacks. So limited is the communication these two classes maintain with each other, though the intermediate space between their residences is not more than a few hundred yards, that the technical phrases employed for the construction and working of their boats is so different, that neither can avail themselves of the assistance of the other, and thus they live little more connected than if they inhabited the shores of separate islands.

The manufactures of Ireland were at no time so flourishing as to increase much beyond the wants of its own population. The nature of its soil and climate, which tended to encourage pastoral pursuits, the habits of the people, the unsettled state of the government, and the want of coal, have all contributed to this result. The woollen manufacture, however, is to a certain degree an exception. So early as the reign of Edward the Third, a brisk export trade in some descriptions of woollen cloths was carried on with the north of Italy. The Irish caddow, or woollen coverlet, was an article in high repute. The influx of a colony of the Palatines, in the time of James the First, tended to improve the manufacture. Their chief settlement was at Carrick on Suir, on the confines of Tipperary and Waterford, which for a long period was celebrated as a woollen mart, affording employment for a large number of the surrounding inhabitants of both sexes, and finding a ready vent for the wrought article throughout other parts of the country and in foreign markets.

Notwithstanding the desolating effects of the wars of 1641 and 1688, the woollen trade was so flourishing after the revolution as to excite the jealousy of the British manufacturers, who had influence sufficient to procure an address from both houses of parliament to William the Third, “to use his utmost diligence to hinder the exportation of wool for Ireland,^a except to England, and generally to discourage the woollen manufacture in Ireland.” The address was followed up by acts prohibiting the exportation of woollens as therein expressed, and by the imposition of duties on the importation of woollens to England, which operated as a total prohibition.

In the year 1779, the Irish parliament repealed the prohibition against exporting woollen cloths to foreign markets; the trade in consequence revived, and the manufacture again became a means for the profitable investment of capital to a large amount.

By the Act of Union, the duties on woollens imported from either country into the other, were confined to those called old and new draperies; the ratio payable for importation into Ireland was fixed at 8½d. per yard on old,

^a Qu. “of woollens from Ireland.”—P.

and 2½d. per yard on new drapery. By the same act England also relaxed her monopoly of export so far as to permit wool and woollen and worsted yarn to be sent duty free from Ireland.

In 1822, the woollen cloth imported from England amounted in quantity to one-third of the whole consumption of the country, but in value it is calculated to have been considerably more than one-half; because the import duty of 8½d. per yard, being the same on cloth of every description, was little regarded in the price of the more expensive article, while it operated nearly as a prohibitory duty on those of low price, of which the general consumption mainly consisted.

These circumstances show why the manufacture of Ireland has been confined to the coarser kinds, and account for the failure of the few attempts made to introduce that of the finer qualities. Broad cloth and blanket manufactories of any magnitude are to be found nowhere to the north of Dublin; flannels are made in Wicklow, and blankets in Kilkenny.

In 1823, the protecting duties, under which the trade had thriven for many years, and which were to have been gradually diminished, in the view of assimilating the state of the trade in the two parts of the empire, were suddenly and unexpectedly repealed. To this cause in part, but much more to the great influx of cloth of newer fashion sent over from England at very reduced prices, during the subsequent depression of the woollen trade in that country, is to be attributed the almost total ruin of the manufacture and the utter destitution of those depending on it. In 1822, there existed eighty-three woollen factories in full work; they are now reduced to about twenty, which are but partially employed. In the years 1826 and 1829, the workmen were dependent on charitable contributions: numbers have crossed over to Great Britain in quest of work, and many families have been afforded the means of conveying themselves and their implements of industry to the United States of America, where a promising field of exertion is presented to them, in lieu of the gloomy prospect of idleness and destitution at home.

The few manufactories of broad cloths at present at work, and which are mostly in the vicinity of Dublin, employ 1560 hands, giving support to 10,040 persons, and producing goods to the value of L.200,000.

In Wicklow, flannels, although fallen off to about one-fourth of their former quantity, may amount to L.10,000 in value; the manufacture gives occupation to about 100 families. Blankets are still manufactured in Kilkenny, so as to employ 500 or 600 families.

Fine wool is grown principally in Wicklow; the next in quality is reared in Galway and in other parts of Connaught. The wool shorn in Ireland amounts to about 6000 bags, of 50 stone each. Besides the cloth produced in large factories, the manufacture of friezes and cloths of the coarsest quality for domestic use is prevalent throughout many parts of the country, but chiefly in Galway, Meath, Louth, Wicklow, and Kilkenny.

Although it appears from what has been just stated, that the linen manufacture was raised upon the ruins of the woollen, it was not unknown in Ireland previously to the reign of William the Third. In early times, the Irish of the higher ranks were profuse in the quantity

of linen used in their inner garments: the shirt of a man of rank contained from twenty to thirty yards; insomuch that the limitation of this article of dress within reasonable bounds was a prominent feature in the sumptuary laws of those days. The unfortunate Earl of Strafford, when lord lieutenant, made great exertions to improve the linen manufacture, sending to Holland for flax-seed, inviting competent workmen from the Netherlands and France, and embarking funds to the amount of upwards of L.30,000 from his personal fortune in the speculation. His example was followed by the Duke of Ormond, who exerted himself greatly to extend the manufacture; but the legislative measures of the English parliament after the revolution, which were echoed by enactments of a similar character in Ireland, gave it a stimulus that carried it forward for many years to a high degree of perfection.

In order further to excite exertion in this branch of industry, a board, appointed to superintend its progress, under the name of the Trustees for the Linen Manufacture, was charged with the disposal of a large annual grant of public money to be employed in premiums for its extension and encouragement. This board was also invested with powers to check frauds, so as thus to prevent the injury to be apprehended from sending goods of inferior quality to market under a false character. Still further to promote this favourite object, a linen hall was erected in Dublin for facilitating the transactions of the linen factors; similar buildings, on a smaller scale, were also erected in Belfast and Newry. Among other expedients for nursing this adopted bantling in its infancy, the use of linen scarfs and hatbands at funerals was introduced, a custom which maintains its ground to the present day, but with an important alteration as to its primary intention, by the substitution of cotton for linen cloth.

The importation of flax seed was another object of the trustees' superintendance; for the material, forming the basis or rudiment of what the legislature at the Revolution established as the staple to compensate the country for the deprivation of its natural manufacture, cannot be raised in it in sufficient quantity or of superior quality. Notwithstanding all the exertions made from that period to the present time, the seed raised in Ireland, particularly for the finer fabrics, is inadequate to the demand, and the small proportion that is raised is considered to be of inferior quality. The seed is imported from America, Prussia, Holland, and England. The proportions supplied by each of these countries may be estimated from the returns made of the quantities imported in 1821:

	Hhds.
American	36,176
Prussian	8,424
Dutch	7,308
British	5,934
Total	57,842

The quantity of flax seed imported, on an average of four years ending 1821, was 47,000 hogsheads, with which 83,000 acres of land were sown.

The silk trade in Ireland may be said to owe its origin to the revocation of the edict of Nantes, by which cruel and impolitic measure Louis XIV. transferred to the rival kingdom of Great Britain a large portion of the industry and ingenuity of his Protestant subjects. Many of the

refugees settled in Dublin, where they introduced the silk manufacture, which throve for a succession of years to a considerable extent. Besides articles of entire silk, Ireland has been celebrated for a manufacture of mixed silk and worsted, known in the country by the name of tabinet, and in Great Britain by that of Irish poplin. For a long period this fabric was much sought after both at home and in the foreign market; but the fluctuation of female fashion has latterly considerably diminished the demand for it. The silk trade, which had been on the decline since the period of the union, is now almost extinct, the number of looms at work being wholly insignificant, and chiefly employed in completing orders from England. The families who depended on it have emigrated in quest of employment, partly to Great Britain, and partly to the United States of America, carrying with them the knowledge of a manufacture of much ingenuity and singular elegance, which hitherto had been a source of wealth to their native country, and of competence and comfort to themselves. The total quantity of silk imported into Ireland in the six years immediately following the Union, was 445,713 lbs.; in the six years ending in January 1822, the amount was 387,290 lbs.

Dublin has always been the favourite seat of this manufacture. Factories were established in other places, but without success. In 1825 an attempt was made, under the auspices of the Earl of Liverpool, then prime minister, to secure to Ireland the whole of the profits of this manufacture, from the rearing of the worm to the finishing of the cloth. A large number of mulberry trees were imported into the south of Ireland, and planted there; silk-worms were also introduced. The mulberry tree, though not unproductive, declined. The insects, which even in the warm latitude of Italy require protection from the variations of the atmosphere, sunk beneath the chilly moisture of the Irish climate, and all hope has already been relinquished of producing the desired effect upon a scale commensurate with the establishment of a national manufacture.

The cotton manufacture has risen on the ruins of the linen. The first cotton factory in Ireland was erected in 1784, in the neighbourhood of Belfast. The trade was fostered in its infancy by the Irish legislature, not only by a high protecting duty, but by the distribution of public money in the form of bounties. This state of things continued till the Union. A new arrangement was then made. The duties on muslins and calicoes were to remain unaltered for eight years, after which they were successively lowered by eight equal annual reductions, so that, after the year 1816, they remained at 10 per cent. *ad valorem*.

The statements of historians and the inquiries of writers on the resources of the country show that the manufacture of iron was once flourishing; but, in consequence of the diminution of fuel by the destruction of the woods, it declined, so as to be at present almost extinct. It appears in evidence before the House of Commons, that this manufacture had scarcely made any progress from 1801 to 1821. The few founderies which existed at the latter of these periods were principally employed in executing orders for manufactories in the neighbourhood, which necessarily required the article to be made according to pattern and on the spot. The manufacture continues in the same state to the present time. The manufactures of brass, copper, tin, and hardware, are

struggling under circumstances nearly similar to that of iron, being confined to the making articles which cannot be readily procured according to pattern from Great Britain.

The manufacture of ardent spirits from malt has long been carried on to a great extent, forming one of the main sources of revenue; but the pecuniary benefit derived from it has been purchased by a frightful amount of crime and misery, the results of illicit distillation. For the suppression of this practice the legislature enacted various regulations, some exceedingly severe; but the profits accruing from it were too great to be thus counteracted, and the distillers carried on their illegal traffic with such indefatigable ingenuity, and in many instances with such a determined spirit of opposition, as to place the greater part of the population of extensive districts in direct collision, not only with the civil authorities, but with the military force of the government. The following facts prove the utter inefficacy of the system of legislative severity. In the ten years ending with 1818, there were, according to official documents, 16,244 unlicensed distilleries destroyed, in which 36,965 gallons of spirits, and 47,843 barrels of malt, besides singlings and pot ale, were seized or destroyed. In the subsequent ten years the number of distilleries destroyed had increased to 41,645, and the quantities of spirits and malt to 47,843 gallons of the one, and 156,636 barrels of the other. A subsequent change of the law, by which a reduced scale of duties has been, to a certain degree, substituted for the former practice of fine and imprisonment, has tended considerably to diminish the prevalence of this baneful practice.

For many years Ireland was chiefly supplied with beer and ale from Great Britain; latterly, however, by directing attention to the internal resources of the country for the production of a species of manufacture, the principal material of which is to be had in such plenty within itself, a sufficient quantity of both kinds of liquor is produced for domestic consumption, and for export, on a scale as yet limited, to other countries, and even to Great Britain. The averages of the quantities imported from Great Britain, at different periods, will serve to confirm this statement.

From 1721 to 1760	} the annual average of	beer and ale import-	ed from Great Britain	9,307 gallons.
1760 to 1801				56,223
1801 to 1811				37,703
1811 to 1821				5,123

The changes in the circulating medium, through which the products of agricultural and manufacturing industry are made available to the increase of the national wealth, were frequent and considerable, to an extent seriously affecting the political arrangements of the country. The first mint noticed in history was established by the Danes, but the coins issued from it circulated only among themselves, traffic being carried on among the natives, both during that period and for some centuries later, by barter, in which cattle was the standard of value. Instances of this are on record even in the reign of Elizabeth, when the tribute of several chieftains was paid in beeves.

After the arrival of the English, a mint was established by John, who, in 1210, caused pennies, halfpennies and farthings to be coined of the same weight as those in

England. His successors, Henry III. and Edward I. also issued coinages of small money; the latter of these was the first sovereign who added to his title of *REX ANGLIE* on the coins that of *DOMINUS HIBERNIE*. In the reign of Edward III. the ounce of silver, which had hitherto been cut into 20 deniers or pennies sterling, was divided into 26. Henry VI. appointed mints in Dublin, Trim and Drogheda, in which brass as well as silver was coined. In his reign the value of this latter metal was raised from 3s. 4d. to 6s. 8d. per ounce. The consequence was a sudden rise of price in provisions and all other necessaries of life. The remedy applied to this evil by a subsequent parliament, was the issue of a new coinage of five kinds of silver coins, the gross, the demi-gross, the denier, the demi-denier, and the quadrant or farthing; eleven groats were to weigh an ounce troy; the groat, if not clipped, to pass for fourpence.

By another act, in 1479, the price of silver was again raised; the weight of the groat being reduced to 32 grains, so that the difference in value between the English and Irish groat was, at the time, nearly fifty per cent. In the reign of Henry VII. the difference between English and Irish money was one-third, and in the beginning of the succeeding reign of Henry VIII. the current coin was so clipped and defaced, and had become so scarce, that the lord lieutenant petitioned to be recalled in consequence of the want of money to carry on the wars. Elizabeth caused the ounce of silver to be cut into sixty pennies; the value of a shilling, better known by the name of a harp, during her reign and that of her successor, was 9d. English.

Charles I. caused the name of Irish money to be abolished, and directed all payments into the treasury to be made in sterling English money. During the Commonwealth, money was coined for the special service of Ireland; yet, after the revolution, small money was so scarce, that several towns, and even private individuals, were obliged to coin copper tokens. On the arrival of James II. in Ireland after his abdication, the values of gold and silver coins were raised, the English guinea being fixed at L.1, 4s., and the English shilling at 1s. 1d. But he soon after attempted a still greater change in the currency of the country, by the issue of base copper money, which was ordered by proclamation to pass at a rate so extravagant, that copper of the intrinsic value of L.6,495 was made to pass current for L.1,596,799. This base money was cried down by King William immediately after the battle of the Boyne.

No money was coined during the reign of Anne. In 1725, the new gold coins of Portugal were allowed to pass current in Ireland at a stated value. Nor did any further changes in the circulating medium take place, till the assimilation of the currencies of Great Britain and Ireland in 1826, when the British shilling, which, since the time of James II., had passed for thirteen pence, was directed in future to pass for twelve, as in the other portions of the British dominions.

The deficiency of a metallic circulating medium in Ireland, co-extensive with the demands of an increasing trade and commerce, was for many years supplied only by private banking-houses, which issued notes on their own responsibility. But as the quantity of paper thus thrown into general circulation was at times far beyond the amount of the capital it purported to represent, and

even exceeded in a great degree the demands of the country, the return of the notes to their respective issuers caused sudden failures which shook public credit to its basis.

To remedy this evil, the bank of Ireland was formed in 1783, with privileges resembling that of England. Its capital was at first L.600,000; but on various renewals of its charter, it was gradually increased to L.2,850,000. At the last renewal, which took place in 1821 and extends to 1838, the amount of capital was augmented to L.3,000,000. To prevent the evil consequences of an excessive issue of private bankers' notes, every partner in such establishments was made responsible for its engagements to the whole amount of his property, but, by a singular contradiction, the number of partners in each was limited to six, thus limiting also the amount of property that could be made available for the liquidation of its engagements, in cases of insolvency, to the aggregate of the property of six individuals.

This absurd and pernicious limitation has been lately removed. Banks, consisting of an unlimited number of partners, may now be formed, yet still with a restriction in favour of the bank of Ireland, that such joint stock banking houses must be more than fifty miles from Dublin; thus continuing to this city and the surrounding counties the disadvantages under which the whole island had laboured in consequence of the impolitic monopoly caused by the limitation. The provincial bank of Ireland and the northern bank in Belfast have been formed according to this new regulation: the former has branch banks in twenty of the principal towns in Ireland. The bank of Ireland, following the example of this new rival, has established agencies in several places, thus affording increased facilities to trading and commercial transactions.

Roads and canals are the channels of internal traffic. The roads in Ireland have long been justly celebrated for the excellence of their construction. The principle of the method now styled macadamizing, was practised there for many years before it was introduced into general use in England, by the spirited exertions of the engineer from whom it derives its name. Arthur Young, in his tour in 1777, expresses his surprise at the striking superiority of the Irish roads over those of England. "For a country," says he, "so far behind us as Ireland, to have suddenly got so far the start of us in the article of roads, is a spectacle which cannot fail to strike the English traveller exceedingly. I could trace a route upon paper as wild as fancy could dictate, and every where find beautiful roads without break or hindrance, to enable me to realize my design." Since the introduction of mail-coaches in 1784, the roads have been progressively increasing in number, and improving in construction. An inexhaustible supply of limestone, the substratum of the greater part of the country, is easily procured, which, broken into small fragments, affords an even and durable surface, capable of being repaired at a small expense. In some few places, the old-fashioned paved roads are still to be met with. Yet much remains to be done. Notice has already been taken of the want of roads in the mining districts. The western part of Connaught suffers much from a similar want. In many parts goods are carried several miles on horses; in some the peasant himself is the hearer. The mountainous dis-

tricts of Cork and Kerry labour under the same defect ; a circumstance the more to be deplored, because experience has proved that wherever a well planned line of road has been carried through a range of country previously impassable for carriages, the vent of agricultural produce, and the consequent increased consumption of exciseable articles, have repaid the outlay with ample interest.

With respect to inland navigation, Ireland is far behind the sister island. While the latter boasts of 2400 miles of still-water navigation, and 2000 miles of navigable rivers, the former has but 282 miles of canals, and 380 of river navigation ; the total of water communication in the one case being 4400 miles, in the latter 660. The principal lines of inland navigation are the Grand and Royal Canals. Both commence at Dublin, and proceeding westward in lines somewhat diverging, terminate at the Shannon. The former, which is the more southern, was commenced in 1775, and has united the metropolis with the Barrow at Athy, and with the Shannon at Banagher. The canal is now extended beyond the Shannon through Roscommon as far as Ballynasloe, with a view of carrying it on to the town of Galway. The ascent to the summit level is 278 feet above the sea at the mouth of the Liffey : the fall thence to the Barrow is 97 feet, and to the Shannon 162. The cargoes conveyed on it consist chiefly of turf, in large quantities, for the supply of Dublin, corn, bricks and flag-stones. The traffic is far from producing a return adequate to the expenditure incurred ; the affairs of the company are therefore in a state by no means prosperous. The total expenditure to the Shannon, including the branch cuts to Athy, Milltown and elsewhere, amounts to L.1,861,008, being at the rate of L.18,610 per mile on 100 miles of still-water navigation, which, though yielding a net profit of at least L.300 per mile per annum, would amount to no more than 15s. 8d. per cent., per annum, on the capital expended.

The Royal canal company was incorporated in 1789. The canal, proceeding from the north of Dublin, passes through the counties of West Meath and Longford until it meets the Shannon at Tarmonbarry. Its line was most unhappily projected : at 35 miles distance from Dublin it is but eight miles distant from the Grand Canal, and at several intermediate places not more than four, so that these two great navigations, for half the length of each westward from the metropolis, are performing little more than the work of one. The expense incurred was L.1,421,954, or L.19,749 per mile, exclusive of interest for many years upon stock, loan, and grants of public money. The company having become insolvent in 1812, when not more than 53 miles of its line were executed, the undertaking was put into the hands of a public board, and completed in 1817 by parliamentary grants. One of the principal objects contemplated by its projectors was the trade arising from the collieries and iron works near Lough Allen. These sources have not yet been productive, and the only articles conveyed on it are similar to those carried along the other canal.

The Newry Canal is the oldest in the country, being commenced so early as the year 1739. It extends from the sea below Newry to Lough Neagh, a distance of twenty-four miles, nine of which are in the

bed of the river Bann ; a short cut, connecting the collieries at Coal Island with the Lough, may be considered as part of the navigation. The trade on this canal is seriously impeded by the obstacles necessarily consequent upon an attempt at making rivers navigable, arising from the delays caused by want of water in dry seasons, and from damages by floods in wet weather.

The Lagan navigation between Belfast and Lough Neagh, a distance of twenty-two miles, partakes largely of the inconvenience just stated to arise from river navigation. The same may also be said of the Boyne and Limerick navigations. The former of these extends from the tide water at Drogheda to Navan, a distance of fifteen and a half miles, and is carried chiefly through the river ; the produce of the tolls is totally inadequate to its effective maintenance. The Limerick navigation from Limerick city to Killaloe, designed to render the Shannon navigable to Lough Dearg, is twelve miles long, partly in the river. If, in the absence of more satisfactory means of ascertaining its rate of profit, an estimate be formed from the imperfect state of the navigation itself, the uncertainty of the passage through Lough Dearg, navigable only by sail and oar, and the delays from floods and foul weather, no remunerating rate of profit can reasonably be expected.

The geographical position of Ireland has been already pointed out as affording great facilities for commercial interchanges with some of the most wealthy and enterprising nations on the globe. Notwithstanding the checks imposed by England upon this branch of national industry, the commerce of Ireland increased with rapidity after the nation had, in any degree, recovered from the severe shock of the civil war in 1688. But in 1799, its commerce assumed a new character, in consequence of the right of the country to a free trade being recognized by the British parliament. By the act then passed, the laws prohibiting the exportation of woollens and glass were repealed, and the country was allowed to trade with all parts of America, the West India Islands, and Africa, subject only to regulations framed by its own parliament. The articles of the Union confirmed this equality of commercial privileges, by enacting, that the two islands should be on the same footing as to encouragements and bounties on the like articles, the produce of each country respectively, and generally also as to trade and navigation in all parts and places in the United Kingdom.

A considerable foreign trade is now carried on with America, chiefly by the merchants of Dublin, Belfast and Londonderry. The articles principally imported thence, are tobacco, cotton, wool, rice, timber, and flax seed ; linen is chiefly exported in exchange. A trade for wine is carried on with Portugal and Spain, and large quantities of butter are sent to the former of these countries, together with linen, beef, pork, salt fish, and some woollens. In addition to wines, Ireland receives in return fruit, principally oranges and lemons, salt, oil, potash, and cork. Provisions are sent to France in exchange for the wines of that country ; as also to the Netherlands, whence Geneva spirit and linseed oil are brought in exchange. To the Baltic are sent linen and butter ; the returns are made in iron, deals, hemp, potash, and herrings.

But the chief market for the surplus produce of the country is England. Besides grain and flour to a large

amount, black cattle and swine have long been a staple article of export to Great Britain: their numbers have been latterly increased to a considerable degree by steam navigation. Previously to this invention, Portpatrick, in Scotland, had been the chief landing-place for Irish cattle, on account of the shortness of the cross passage; but now Liverpool absorbs nearly the whole trade. To Scotland, also, are sent linen and linen-yarn, beef, pork, tallow, untanned hides, butter, barley, oats, and oatmeal. The returns from Great Britain are made in coal, dried fish, manufactured goods of every description, both for necessity and luxury, tea, coffee, rum, and tobacco.

Though the general population of the country is distributed through the provinces, nearly in proportion to their acreable contents, Connaught excepted, which is by much the most thinly peopled, a considerable diversity exists between them as to the mode of its location in each. That of Munster is mostly congregated into large towns, while in Connaught the population is chiefly rural. Of the cities and towns containing 4000 inhabitants, or upwards, each—nine are in Leinster, ten in Ulster, and but seven in Connaught, while Munster can reckon twenty-four, ten of which are within the single county of Cork. Or, to view the position from another point,—the population of all the towns containing 4000 or more inhabitants, amounts, in Leinster, to 309,338 souls; in Ulster, to 91,026; in Connaught, to no more than 69,173; while in Munster it increases to 332,921.^a If from the population of Leinster be deducted that of Dublin city, which, as being the metropolis of the country, is swelled into a disproportionate extent by supplies from every part of the interior, and even, in some degree, from Great Britain, the excess here pointed out will appear more striking.^b

Dublin, the metropolis of the island, and the chief city in the province of Leinster, is situated on the eastern coast, at the mouth of the Liffey. Its origin is wholly unknown. Ptolemy notices it by the name of *Eblana*; it is also mentioned by Irish writers previously to the invasion of the Danes, but not as a place of first rate importance.^c It appears to have been at first plundered, and afterwards rebuilt and fortified, by these freebooters in the ninth century,^d who retained it, with several other maritime positions, till they were expelled by the English.^e So little claim had the city to the title of metropolis at this latter period, that Henry II., on his arrival there, found it necessary to erect a temporary palace to receive the homage of the Irish chieftains. But its position, as a point of communication with the rest of that monarch's dominions, soon secured to it a preference for the seat of the local government. From that period the city increased considerably in population and importance. King John, who resided in it for some time, improved

and extended it; he erected a castle on a commanding eminence, established courts of justice, and appointed a municipal magistracy.^f Yet the city was still confined within very narrow limits, being built solely on the southern bank of the Liffey. Its walls, a small part of the ruins of which are still visible, included merely the summit of the hill on which the castle was built, and part of its northern and southern declivities. Thenceforward, its increase was uniformly progressive, though not rapid. In Elizabeth's reign, Trinity College, now nearly in its centre, was designated as being "near Dublin."^g During the succeeding civil war, temporary works thrown up to secure the south-eastern suburbs, which lay without the walls, were constructed between the castle and the college.

At present the city extends over an area of about 1300 acres,^h of which 900 lie to the south, and 500 to the north of the Liffey, giving a circumference of nearly seven miles.ⁱ Its extreme bounds are marked with tolerable precision on all sides, except the west, by the two canals. The interior exhibits a striking contrast of magnificence and wretchedness. The progress of architectural improvement has proceeded in an eastern direction towards the mouth of the river, in which portion of the city most of the public buildings, and the residences of the principal inhabitants, erected within the two last centuries, are to be found, while the western part, the site of the ancient city, is falling into decay and ruin.

The most remarkable edifices are the Bank of Ireland, formerly the Parliament House; the royal exchange, a building of peculiar elegance; the custom-house, the courts of justice, the post-office, and the extensive and massive structure of Trinity College. The castle is a pile of mean and unornamental buildings. Few of the places of public worship can be cited as examples of architectural beauty. Some of the streets are spacious and elegant. There are five squares, the largest of which, though by no means the most splendid, is St. Stephen's Green. The river, which traverses the city from west to east, is crossed by nine bridges, three of them consisting of a single arch each; two of these are formed of iron. Noble quays on each side, faced with cut stone, and extending through the heart of the city, from end to end, afford great facilities of communication, and present an appearance of airiness and salubrity peculiarly pleasing to the eye of taste.

The government of the city is vested in the Lord Mayor, chosen annually, who, on public occasions, is distinguished by a collar of gold, and has a mace of office, and a sword of state, borne before him. He is assisted in the performance of his duty by twenty-four aldermen, out of which body he is elected, and by a common council, consisting of members chosen every

^a By the Statist. Tab. (Ireland, No. vii.), there are of the cities and towns containing 4000 inhabitants, or upwards, each—nineteen in Leinster (nine between 4000 and 6000,) twelve in Ulster (seven between 4000 and 6000,) eight in Connaught (four between 4000 and 6000,) and twenty-five in Munster (only seven between 4000 and 6000.) By the same Table, the population of all such towns in Leinster, is 348,296; in Ulster, 131,961; in Connaught, 80,074; and in Munster, 366,614. The statements in the text are perhaps from the census of 1821.—P.

^b The population of such towns in Leinster, exclusive of Dublin (203,752,) is, by Stat. Tab. No. vii., 144,544.—P.

^c It was called by the native Irish, *Ath Cliath* (ford of hurdles,) and *Bally (Baile) Leam Cliath* (town of the haven of hurdles,) from the shallowness of the river rendering it fordable at low water, and the depth of the mud rendering a pathway of hurdles necessary; also

Dubh-leana (Black-haven,) whence the modern name. (Ed. Enc.)—It was called by the Irish, *Balacloy* [*Baile-cliaith* (town of hurdles,) pron. *Bàlacléah.*] (Martiniere, Dict. Geog.)—P.

^d A. D. 851. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^e By the united forces of Dermot McMurrrough, and of the English adventurers under Raymond le Gros. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^f The first charter was granted by Henry II.; a new charter, by Henry III. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g Trinity College was founded by Queen Elizabeth, in 1591. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^h 1600 acres. (Ed. Enc.)—More than 1260 acres. (Myers' Geog.)—P.

ⁱ Two miles and a half long from east to west; for a mile from the west, nearly square; the other mile and a half, one mile and three quarters from north to south. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

third year by the twenty-five guilds, or corporations of trade. A court of justice for the trial of offences committed within the precincts of the city is held, at which the recorder, aided by some of the aldermen, who are the chartered magistrates, presides. Though this court has power of life and death, it confines its jurisdiction to minor offences, referring cases involving the penalty of death to a superior tribunal. The peace of the city is preserved by two sheriffs, annually chosen from among the common-council, under whom is a body of about 800 police, directed by twelve stipendiary magistrates: their powers extend to all places within eight miles distance. By their exertions the city and its vicinity are as secure as any other large and well ordered town in Europe. Crimes of great atrocity seldom call for punishment.

Dublin can boast of numerous charitable institutions, some largely supported by grants of public money, others entirely dependant on voluntary contributions. Among the former are, the foundling hospital for deserted children, the Hibernian and marine schools for the children of soldiers and sailors, the royal hospital for disabled soldiers, the house of recovery for fever patients, the general hospital in Brunswick street, the lying-in hospital, and the female orphan-house; among the latter, the mendicity association for the suppression of street begging, the society for the relief of sick and indigent room-keepers, the strangers' friend society, Stevens' hospital for accidents, Simpson's hospital for blind and gouty men, besides many others of minor note. Every parish has both a Protestant and Roman Catholic school for the instruction and, in several instances, for the maintenance of the children of the poor. Other sects also support similar institutions.

The literary institutions are not such, either in number or qualifications, as might be expected from the appearance of the metropolis, or the population of the country. Public libraries, properly so called, there are none. The use of that of Trinity College, the first as to the number and selection of its books, is confined to such graduates of that university as choose to take the oath of admission, an essential preliminary to the opening of a volume in it. The King's Inns' library is confined to the members and students of that society. Each of these libraries enjoys the privilege of copies of all books published in the British dominions. Marsh's, or St. Patrick's library, is more liberal as to the qualification for admission, but consists of a limited number of books, few of modern date. The Dublin library, and the Dublin institution, are private establishments supported wholly by the subscriptions of the members, and therefore open, with some exceptions, solely to them. The library of the Dublin Society, which receives a large annual grant for the dissemination of useful knowledge, and the improvement of the arts, is confined to the members, who pay a sum of L.30 for admission. This society maintains professors in chemistry, botany, experimental philosophy, and geology, who annually deliver public courses of lectures. It also maintains a school of drawing, architecture, and modelling.

The Royal Irish Academy was formed for the encouragement of literature, antiquities, and the higher branches of science. It publishes volumes of its transactions

from time to time, consisting of essays on some of the various subjects comprehended within the scope of its investigations.

The school of physic in Dublin is rising rapidly in estimation, partly owing to the talents of several of the professors, partly to the facilities of procuring subjects for dissection. The college of physicians is connected with Trinity College: the college of surgeons is detached from it. There are also several respectable private schools of medicine.

The King's Inns, intended as a place of legal instruction, has but two public halls, namely, one for the dining-room, the other for the reception of the library; attendance at the former of these, for a certain period, is essential towards admission as a pleader in the courts of justice; the presence of the student in the latter is regulated solely by his own inclination. Lectures, or other modes of communicating instruction to the young aspirant for legal honours, are unknown here.

The environs of Dublin, particularly on the southern side, present numerous situations of great picturesque beauty, which are, therefore, frequently visited by strangers.

The second city in Leinster, in population and celebrity, is Kilkenny, beautifully situated on the banks of the Nore. Like Dublin, its origin is involved in the shades of antiquity. Some writers suppose it to be the *Iernis*^a of Ptolemy, and the *Ibernia* of Richard of Cirencester; the etymology of its present name leads to the supposition of an ecclesiastical origin, Kill-kenny signifying the church or cell of Kenny, or St. Canice.^b The English effected a settlement here shortly after their landing; a charter of incorporation was granted to it by one of Strongbow's immediate successors. Thus favoured, it soon became one of the most distinguished inland cities in the country. At the close of the fourteenth century its castle fell into the hands of the Butler family, by whom it has ever since been retained. One of the descendants of this house, the Earl of Ormond, entertained Richard II. in it for fourteen days, with royal splendour, during that monarch's progress to Dublin. In the civil wars it became the seat of government of the confederate Catholics, who held their meetings there in the form of a parliament. It made a gallant defence against Cromwell, who was glad to accept its surrender upon terms highly honourable to the garrison.

The city consists of two parts, Kilkenny properly so called, and the borough of St. Canice or Irishtown, a separate jurisdiction. On the two most elevated parts of the united town are placed the structures which constitute its principal ornaments, the castle and the cathedral. The former contains a good collection of paintings, and commands a rich and extensive prospect of the fine and varied country around; the latter is the largest ecclesiastical structure in Ireland, except those in Dublin. Several ruins of monastic buildings still evince the former grandeur of the religious foundations here. As a central depot for manufacturing industry, it does not reap all the advantages that might accrue from its situation on a large river, in the midst of a fertile and populous district; the woollen manufacture, particularly that of blankets, and the tanning of leather being the only processes carried on extensively. Near the city are quarries,

^a *Iouevris—Iuernis* (Edit. Lat. Mercat.)—P.

^b *Cill-canice—Lat. Cella Canici.*—P

whence a marble of high polish is raised; when first wrought it is almost black, but after exposure to the atmosphere it gradually exhibits numerous white marks throughout its surface, which an attentive examination proves to be produced by the sections of various kinds of fossil shells. The annual export of it from the city averages fifty tons. This city is a separate jurisdiction from the cognominal county with which it is surrounded, being governed by magistrates elected under a special charter.

Thirty miles^a northwards of Dublin is Drogheda, formerly called Tredagh, a town of great antiquity and much historical notoriety, situate on the Boyne, about five miles from its mouth. Though seldom named in the early native annals, its importance in the reign of Edward II. entitled it to the privilege of being the place of a royal mint. In the succeeding reign it was made one of the staple towns, a clear proof of its commercial importance at that period. Parliaments were also held in it, particularly that celebrated one in the reign of Henry VII. at which Poynings' laws were enacted. It obtained a right by an act of Edward IV. to have an university with the same privileges as that of Oxford, but the right has never been exercised. During the civil wars of 1641, after having baffled the attempts of the northern Irish under O'Neil, and of the parliamentary forces under Jones, it was invested by Cromwell in person, who, having taken it by storm, caused the whole of the inhabitants, without distinction of age or sex, to be put to the sword, notwithstanding a previous assurance of quarter. Thirty persons only escaped from the massacre, and they were transported as slaves to the West Indies. After the battle of the Boyne the town surrendered without a struggle to the victorious army of William.

The portions of the town on each side of the Boyne were formerly separate jurisdictions, distinguished by the names of Drogheda on the side of Meath, and Drogheda on the side of Uriel.^b The dissensions arising from this division frequently terminated in bloodshed, until at length assuaged by the exertions of Peter Bennet, a Dominican friar, who, having invited the leaders of both parties to a sermon which was succeeded by a banquet, discoursed with such effect on the evil consequences of the division, that they joined in a petition to king Henry V. to remove the cause of those sanguinary tumults, by combining both parts under one common government. It is now under the control of a mayor and aldermen. The archbishop of Armagh long made this town his place of residence, the portion of his province in which the city of Armagh is situated being without the pale, and therefore deemed an unsafe residence for a prelate recognising the sovereignty of the king of England. The Roman Catholic archbishop of the province still resides in Drogheda.

The next town in Leinster as to population and importance is Dundalk, the county town of Louth. Before the reign of Elizabeth it was considered to be a frontier town of the pale, and underwent many of the changes

and sufferings incident to such a position. Edward Bruce was crowned in this town, and fell in battle near it. The first army sent by king William into Ireland under Schomberg was forced to stop here, in its progress southwards, in consequence of the ravages of disease and famine. It is now noted only as one of the chief places for the export of grain.

Wexford, the next in rank, was the first town of which the English took possession, after their landing, in the time of Henry II. Their descendants still inhabit the neighbouring districts, where they retain, to the present day, in their manners, appearance and dialect, indisputable indications of their original stock. The town is now little more than a fishing station, and a place of residence for families of limited incomes, who enjoy here, from the cheapness of all the necessaries and many of the comforts of existence, a degree of opulence not to be obtained elsewhere. During the rebellion of 1798 it remained for some time in the possession of the insurgents, and the long wooden bridge by which the Slaney is crossed near its mouth was the place of execution for their prisoners. After its recovery by the king's troops, the town became the scene of retaliation by the victorious party equally sanguinary.

Carlow on the Barrow, once a place of strength, and at times the seat of the king's exchequer, is now of little note. It is built in the midst of a rich agricultural district; and its inhabitants depend more on the limited traffic carried on by means of the river Barrow which passes by the town, than on any of the main sources of manufacturing industry. New Ross on the Slaney,^c once a port that vied in commerce with Waterford, is now little more than a village. Portarlington on the Barrow, in consequence of a settlement of French refugees there, was until lately a favourite place of elementary education for children of the higher classes.

Belfast, the largest, the most opulent, and the most public-spirited town in Ulster, owes its pre-eminence neither to its antiquity or its political constitution, but solely to the energetic well directed exertions of its inhabitants.^d It was a place of but little note so lately as the time of William III.; since that period it has risen to a great height in commercial importance, maintaining an extensive traffic with the United States and the West Indies. The following table will serve to exhibit the increase of its shipping. The number and tonnage of the vessels belonging to it were as follows, at the dates here specified.

	No. of vessels.	Tonnage.		No. of vessels.	Tonnage.
1765	55	10,040	1819	104	10,489
1792	58	9,765	1820	106	10,281
1814	78	9,866	1829	184	21,557

The principal building is the Academical Institution, a college erected solely by voluntary contributions for general instruction in the most essential departments of literature and useful knowledge; its funds have latterly been augmented by grants of public money. Belfast has also two churches, and a dissenting meeting-house of

^a 23 miles. (Myers.)—P.

^b Louth.

^c New Ross stands on the Barrow, a little below its junction with the Nore.—P.

^d Belfast is more ancient than is generally supposed; the parish is a

vicarage, called *Shankil* [Gaelic, *sean-cill*, old cell,] or the old church. The castle was taken by the Earl of Kildare, in 1503 and 1512. The town was made a borough in 1613. The custom-house was removed from Carrickfergus to Belfast, in 1638. However, in 1726, it was a small place of little consequence. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

some architectural elegance.^a The town is connected with the adjoining county of Down, by a long narrow bridge over the Lagan. It was one of the great marts for the sale of linen, before the manufacture was superseded by that of cotton, which is now carried on here to a greater extent than in any other part of Ireland.^b There are eight large cotton factories in the town, or in its immediate vicinity, besides seven others in the adjoining district.

The manufacture of damask, for table linen, is carried on with much spirit at Lisburn, a neighbouring borough town, which is indebted for the knowledge of the fabric to the settlement of some French and Flemish refugees. Large orders are executed here for crowned heads and foreigners of distinction.

Midway between Belfast and Drogheda, is the town of Newry, formerly noted as a military pass into Ulster, and now as a place of trade, though in this respect considerably inferior to the first-named of these towns. An extensive inland traffic is maintained by means of its canal, navigable for vessels of sixty tons: it also partakes of the advantages of the cross-channel trade with Great Britain. The lordship of Newry, comprehending the town, and a small surrounding district, is an exempt jurisdiction, being free from the spiritual control of any bishop. The proprietor of the lordship grants marriage-licences, probates of wills, and letters of administration, and exercises other episcopal powers.

The city of Londonderry, at the mouth of the Foyle, is a regular, well-built town, consisting of four main streets, issuing from a central square, named the Diamond, and terminating at the gates.^c The harbour affords accommodation sufficient for an extensive intercourse with Great Britain, America, and the West Indies. But Londonderry is best known for its successful defence against the forces of James II. The statue of the Rev. George Walker, who acted as governor at that crisis, is one of the ornaments of the town. The fortifications are still kept in good repair, and the ramparts, which are planted, form a fine walk round the city.

The honour of being the seat of the primatial see of Ireland,^d is the chief claim which the city of Armagh has to notice, to which circumstance it also owes most of the public institutions that now adorn it. In the early ages of Christianity, a college flourished here, said to have given instruction to several thousand students. The foundation of its cathedral, which is built on an eminence, called *Druimsailich*, or the Hill of Willows, is attributed to St. Patrick. The bodies of Brian Boru, and of his son, both of whom fell at the battle of Clontarf, were interred in it. During the incursions of the

Danes, the city suffered severely from their ravages, in some of which all their books and records were destroyed. Since the revolution, it has been enriched by Lord Rokeby, otherwise called Primate Robinson,^e with a library, an observatory, and an extensive grammar school-house. He projected the foundation of an University, but unfortunately for the interests of science, intrusted the execution of his design to his executors. Armagh was one of the great staples of the linen manufacture.

Coleraine, at the mouth of the Bann, and the place of one of the most extensive salmon-fishings in Ireland—Carrickfergus, once the capital of the north of Ireland, but now a military depot, and a fishing town—Downpatrick, the county town of Down county, celebrated in monastic records as the burial place of the saints Patrick, Bridget and Columbkil^f—and Enniskillen, situated on the strait or river that connects the two basins of Lough Erne, have little to entitle them to a rank among the chief towns of Ireland, beyond the right of returning members to the Imperial Parliament.

The city of Cork, which stands foremost among the numerous towns of Munster, was for many years after the invasion of the English, a place of inferior note, situated in a salt-water marsh subject to occasional inundations, called in the native tongue, "*Corcagh*,"^g whence the city derives its name, and yielding the precedence in population and trade to Limerick and Waterford. In Elizabeth's reign it consisted of one street, terminated by a bridge over the Lee; several smaller streams, which are now arched over, flowed through the city. Its increase of inhabitants, and its present celebrity, are attributable wholly to its trade, chiefly in provisions. During the late war, the average number of black cattle annually slaughtered in it amounted to 18,000, and not less than 160,000 cwt. of butter had been exported in some one of those years.^h Large quantities of spirits, and some malt liquor, manufactured here, are also sent to Great Britain, and to foreign markets. Its public buildings are few and plain, with the exception of the Roman Catholic Chapel, which would do honour to any city, particularly in its internal structure. A literary institution, for the promotion of useful knowledge, was founded here in 1807, and endowed with an annual grant of public money, which was expended in the formation of a library, and in maintaining lectureships in several branches of science.ⁱ The grant has been lately withdrawn.

A favourable commercial station on the Shannon, gave rise to the city of Limerick. It was the first fordable place to be met with on that river from its mouth; and, therefore, attracted a concourse of settlers. Soon after

^a The houses of public worship are ten; an established church; six dissenting meeting-houses, four of which are presbyterian; a quaker meeting-house; a methodist meeting-house; and a Roman Catholic chapel. (Ed. Enc. 1813.)—There are two episcopal churches. (Myers.)—P.

^b Belfast was the first seat of the cotton manufacture in Ireland.—P.

^c Londonderry has four main streets, crossing at right angles, within the walls, and a mall, with a public terrace, or diamond, in the centre. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^d The archbishop of Armagh is styled lord primate and metropolitan of all Ireland; that of Dublin, lord primate of Ireland.—P.

^e Richard Robinson, a native of Yorkshire, made archbishop of Armagh in 1765, and a peer of Ireland, by the title of Baron Rokeby, in 1777.—P.

^f This should read Columba (Gaelic, *Colum*.) Columbkil (Gaelic,

Choluim-cill) is Columba's cell or church. The celebrated island off the south-western extremity of Mull, is Icolumbkill (Gaelic, *I-choluim-chill*, island of Columba's church,) or Iona (Gaelic, *I-thonn* (pron. *Ihon*.) island of waves.)—P.

^g Gaelic, *corcach*, a moor or marsh. The rich alluvial flats (meadows) on the Shannon are called *corcach*, corrupted in English into *corcass* or *caucas*. They resemble the Scotch *carsc* lands on the Forth and Tay. *Carsc* itself may be derived from the Gaelic, though it seems more immediately connected with the Welsh *cors*, a bog or fen; *corsaug*, fenny. The Curragh, an extensive grassy plain in the county of Kildare, derives its name from the Gaelic *currach*, a bog or fen, a plain.—P.

^h In 1806. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

ⁱ An "Institution for applying Science to the Common Purposes of Life," has been established, and is in a flourishing state. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

the arrival of the English under Strongbow, it was seized by them, but was immediately after evacuated, in consequence of his death, and burned by the native princes, to prevent it from falling again into the hands of their enemy. Cromwell invested it during his campaign in Ireland, but was forced to raise the siege.^a It underwent two sieges in the subsequent war of 1688. In the former, the efforts of William, who opened the trenches in person, were baffled by a daring manœuvre of General Sarsfield.^b The latter terminated by the memorable surrender, which put an end to the bloody contest that had too long desolated the country.^c

The city is composed of two parts, the English and the Irish town. In some instances, the streets are narrow and gloomy; and though, in the ranges of buildings lately erected, great attention has been paid to external appearance, hovels, exhibiting a picture of squalid wretchedness, are to be seen in the contiguity of splendid mansions. As an emporium of commerce, it once disputed the title to precedence with Galway, formerly a first-rate port. Both have latterly been outstripped in the career of mercantile competition by other places.

Waterford occupies a commanding position, near the mouth of the Suir.^d Its streets, as is usual in towns which had been fortified, are narrow; its public buildings, in general, well designed and elegant. The quays, which extend nearly a mile along the river, are much admired; a well constructed bridge affords free communication with the adjoining county of Kilkenny. The city was anciently one of the Danish seaports. Reginald's tower, used by Strongbow, after his capture of the place, as a prison for refractory Danish or Irish chieftains, is still in existence. Waterford derives much of its wealth from the Newfoundland fishery, to which it annually sends several vessels; it also exports pork and butter in large quantities. Dungarvan,^e a populous town, about twenty-four miles from this city, is considered to be the largest fishing town in Ireland.

Clonmel, though the county town of Tipperary, and maintaining a considerable population, presents little to arrest attention, while Cashel, a city of inconsiderable magnitude, possesses several claims to particular notice. This city, like Dublin, boasts of being the site of two cathedrals. The more ancient is built on a precipitous rock, whose summit is attained by a winding path. Its ruins exhibit the remains of several splendid edifices, among which was the royal palace.^f In the time of Henry VIII. this cathedral was burnt by the Earl of Kildare, in revenge for some insult offered to him by the archbishop. In it was deposited the fatal stone on which the kings of Munster sat at their coronation.^g Tradition states, that when Fergus obtained the crown of Scotland, he borrowed this stone for his own ceremonial, and retained possession of it, in consequence of

a prophecy which declared that, wherever it was kept, the Milesian race of kings should reign. After being preserved for some centuries at Scone, it was removed by Edward I. to Westminster, where it still remains. Adjoining the cathedral is Cormac M'Cuillenan's chapel. The modern cathedral is an edifice of Grecian architecture adorned with a handsome spire.

The second town in the county of Cork as to population is Youghal,^h a seaport, at the mouth of the Blackwater. Sir Walter Raleigh, who held it by a grant from the crown, disposed of his interest in it to Richard Boyle, the first Earl of Cork, by whom it was much improved. Cromwell sailed hence on the termination of his sanguinary campaign in Ireland. It is a place of little trade, being chiefly frequented for the purpose of sea-bathing. The potato is said to have been first raised in Ireland in a garden here.

The next town, as to population, is Kinsale. It underwent two sieges, one in the time of Elizabeth, the other in that of William. James II. also landed here on his arrival to recover his throne. The town being built on the side of a hill, presents a fine prospect, but, on entering, the streets are found to be narrow, and the communications difficult from the steepness of the declivities. A considerable fishing trade is carried on here. The town gives the title of baron to the head of the De Courcy family, who enjoys the singular right of appearing covered in the royal presence.

Bandon Bridge is chiefly remarkable for the singular antipathy formerly entertained by its inhabitants against Roman Catholics, expressed by an inscription over one of the gates, in the following pithy, though not very liberal or poetical distich:

TURK, JEW OR ATHEIST
May enter here, but not a papist.

So lately as 1750, it is said that it did not contain a single resident Roman Catholic. Nor was a piper allowed to play in the streets, the pipe being proscribed as an Irish instrument. The inscription, however, is erased, and the sectarian distinctions are dying away. Sir Richard Cox, the writer of a prolix history of Ireland,ⁱ was a native of this town. His work breathes the undiluted spirit of the political atmosphere whence he imbibed his opinions.

Fermoy, on the Blackwater, is one of the most regularly built towns in Ireland. It consists of a square with diverging streets, in each of which the houses are built according to an uniform elevation. Its increase in wealth and dimensions was rapid during the late war, chiefly owing to the erection of an extensive barrack in its immediate vicinity.

Mallow, an inland town in the same county,^k is frequented chiefly for its mineral waters. Tralee, the

^a Limerick was taken by General Ireton, after Cromwell's return to England.—P.

^b Before the place was fully invested, Colonel Sarsfield, one of the inferior officers of the garrison, made a sally by night, and disabled William's train of artillery; still the latter continued the siege, and was induced to raise it, in consequence of an unsuccessful assault. (Smollet.)—P.

^c Limerick surrendered to General Ginckel, by a capitulation, called the Articles of Limerick.—P.

^d Waterford stands on the south bank of the Suir, above its junction with the Barrow.—P.

^e Dungarvon.

^f On the rock of Cashel, are the old Gothic cathedral, the ruins of Cormac's chapel, adjoining the cathedral, and a high round tower, of five stories, near the eastern angle of the north aisle. The rock was formerly inclosed with a wall. (Ed. Enc.)—P.

^g Cashel was the residence of the kings of Munster.—P.

^h By the Stat. Tab. (Ireland, No. vii.) Bandon is next to Cork in population (12,617); Youghal, third (9,608).—P.

ⁱ "Hibernia Anglicana," in two parts, 1689, 1700.—P.

^k Cork county, in which Fermoy is also situated.—P.

county town of Kerry, is situated at the extremity of a broad but shallow bay, between Kerry Head and Brandon Head. The episcopal church is a noble modern structure. Large shoals of herrings are frequently taken in the bay. Ennis, the county town of Clare, situated at the northern extremity of the estuary of the Fergus, has little to boast of except a Franciscan abbey, founded by O'Brien in 1250, which is considered the most elegant Gothic monastery in Ireland.

The province of Connaught, as appears from the comparative statement of the numbers of inhabitants in the towns of each of the great divisions of Ireland, is peopled mostly by a rural population. Galway, the chief town both of the province, and of the county of the same name, is but the sixth in Ireland as to numbers.^a The town is situated on the neck of land that separates Lough Corrib from the sea,^b and was formerly of considerable note, both as a place of strength and as a commercial emporium, in which latter character it long disputed the precedence with Limerick. Some manufactures are carried on here, but the fisheries afford the chief source of employment to the people. During the war of 1688, the town, after a gallant defence, surrendered to General Ginkell on honourable terms.^c

Sligo, the second town in size in the province, was built by the English, shortly after their arrival in the country, and has ever since been a place of some importance. It now exports grain in large quantities. Near the town is a relic of antiquity, called Lugna Clough,^d or the Giant's grave, consisting of a number of stupendous stones placed on each other, somewhat similar to those of Stonehenge. Tuam, the seat of the archiepiscopal see, is a town of small note. The cathedral is a neat modern edifice. In trade and manufactures it maintains a respectable rank as an inland town; the inhabitants are generally in good circumstances, and its market is well supplied. The archbishop resides here in a spacious but antiquated palace. Athlone, situated on the Shannon, is but partly in Connaught,^e the eastern portion of it lying in the county of West Meath. It was the main pass over the Shannon, and thence considered

as a place of much importance. During the war of 1688 it underwent two sieges, the first by William III. in person,^f who failed in his attempt to force a passage through it; in the second it surrendered to General Ginkell. At present it is one of the chief depots for arms and military stores, and therefore is the quarters of a large garrison, upon the expenditure of which the town chiefly depends.

This description of Ireland cannot be concluded more appropriately, than by the following quotations, which form the opening and close of Sir John Davies's celebrated tracts on the causes why Ireland continued so long unsubdued and useless to the crown of England.^g The work commences with the description of the natural capabilities of the country: "Wherein I have observed the good temperature of the ayre, the fruitfulness of the soyle, the pleasant and commodious seats for habitation, the safe and large ports and havens lying open for trafficke into all the western parts of the world; the long inlets of many navigable rivers, and so many great lakes and fresh ponds within the land, as the like are not to be seen in any part of Europe; the rich fishings; the wild fowle of all kinds; and lastly, the bodies and mindes of the people endued with extraordinary abilities of nature." The conclusion of the treatise, in which he shows that the island was then, in the beginning of the reign of James I., completely subdued, is wound up by the following emphatic passage:—"In which condition of subjects they will gladly continue without defection or adhering to any other lord or king, as long as they may be protected and justly governed without oppression on the one side, or impunity on the other. For there is no nation of people under the sun, that doth love equall and indifferent justice better than the Irish, or will rest better satisfied with the execution thereof, although it be against themselves, so as they may have the benefit and protection of the law, when upon just cause they do desire it."

^a The fifth, in Stat. Tab. No. vii.—P.

^b It stands on the river that connects Lough Corrib with the sea. (Myers.)—P.

^c General Ginkel (Ginkle) commanded in Ireland, after William's return to England. He took Athlone, Galway and Limerick.—P.

^d Gaelic. *Cloch*, a stone.—P.

^e In the county of Roscommon.—P.

The first attempt on Athlone was made by General Douglas, while William was on his march from Dublin to Kilkenny. (Smollet.)—P.

^g Published in 1612.—Sir J. Davies was successively solicitor and attorney-general, and judge, in Ireland, during the reign of James I.—P.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

TABLE I.

ENGLAND.

Real Property, as assessed April 1815. Comparative Population.

COUNTIES.	Annual value of the Real Property, as assessed April 1815.	POPULATION.			
		1801.	1811.	1821.	1831.
Bedford	£343,685	63,393	70,213	83,716	95,400
Berks	643,781	109,215	118,277	131,977	145,200
Buckingham	643,492	107,444	117,650	134,068	146,400
Cambridge	645,554	89,346	101,109	121,909	143,200
Chester	1,083,083	191,751	227,031	270,098	334,314
Cornwall	916,060	188,269	216,667	257,447	301,000
Cumberland	705,446	117,230	133,744	156,124	171,700
Derby	887,659	161,142	185,487	213,333	236,900
Devon	1,897,515	343,001	383,308	439,040	494,400
Dorset	698,395	115,319	124,693	144,499	159,400
Durham	791,359	160,561	177,625	207,673	253,700
Essex	1,556,836	226,437	252,473	289,424	317,200
Gloucester	1,463,259	250,809	200,906	335,843	386,700
Hereford	571,107	97,577	111,654	129,714	143,300
Huntingdon	320,188	37,568	42,208	48,771	53,100
Kent	1,644,179	307,624	373,095	426,016	478,400
Lancaster	3,087,774	672,731	828,309	1,052,859	1,335,800
Leicester	902,217	130,081	150,419	174,571	197,000
Lincoln	2,061,830	208,557	237,891	283,058	317,400
Middlesex	5,595,537	818,121	953,276	1,144,531	1,358,200
Monmouth	295,097	45,582	62,127	71,833	98,200
Norfolk	1,540,952	273,371	291,099	344,368	390,000
Northampton	942,162	131,757	141,353	162,483	179,300
Northumberland	1,240,594	157,101	172,161	198,965	223,000
Nottingham	737,229	140,350	162,900	186,873	225,400
Oxford	713,147	109,620	119,191	136,971	152,100
Rutland	133,487	16,356	16,380	18,487	19,400
Salop	1,037,988	167,639	194,296	206,153	222,800
Somerset	1,900,651	273,750	303,180	355,314	402,500
Southampton (Hants)	1,130,952	219,656	245,080	283,298	314,700
Stafford	1,150,285	239,153	295,153	341,040	410,400
Suffolk	1,127,404	210,431	234,211	270,542	296,000
Surrey	1,579,173	269,043	323,851	398,658	485,700
Sussex	915,348	159,083	190,083	233,019	272,300
Warwick	1,236,727	208,190	228,735	274,392	337,600
Westmoreland	298,199	41,617	45,922	51,359	55,000
Wilts	1,155,459	185,107	193,828	222,157	240,200
Worcester	7,999,605	139,333	160,546	184,424	211,400
York East Riding	1,120,434	111,693	135,319	154,934	169,800
City of York and Ainsty	69,892	23,692	26,422	29,527	34,461
York North Riding	1,166,948	158,255	169,391	187,452	190,800
York West Riding	2,396,222	565,282	656,042	801,274	976,400

WALES.

COUNTIES.	Annual value of the Real Property, as assessed April 1815.	POPULATION.			
		1801.	1811.	1821.	1831.
Anglesey	£292,581	33,806	37,045	45,063	48,300
Brecon	146,530	31,633	37,735	43,613	47,800
Cardigan	141,889	42,965	50,260	57,784	64,700
Caermarthen	277,455	61,317	77,217	90,239	100,800
Caernarvon	125,198	40,521	49,336	57,958	86,600
Denbigh	221,783	60,352	64,240	76,511	82,800
Flint	153,930	39,622	46,518	53,784	60,100
Glamorgan	334,192	71,525	85,067	101,737	126,200
Merioneth	111,436	27,506	30,924	34,382	34,500
Montgomery	207,285	47,978	51,931	59,899	65,700
Pembroke	219,589	56,280	60,615	74,009	80,900
Radnor	99,717	19,050	20,900	22,459	24,700

SCOTLAND.

Real Property, as assessed April 1815. Comparative Population.

COUNTIES.	Annual value of the Real Property, as assessed April 1815.	POPULATION.			
		1801.	1811.	1821.	1831.
Aberdeen	£325,218	123,082	135,075	155,387	177,600
Argyle	227,493	71,859	85,585	97,316	101,400
Ayr	409,983	84,306	103,954	127,299	145,100
Banff	88,942	35,807	36,668	43,561	48,604
Berwick	245,379	30,621	30,779	33,385	34,000
Bute	22,541	11,791	12,033	13,797	14,200
Caithness	35,469	22,609	23,419	30,238	34,500
Clackmannan	37,978	10,858	12,010	13,263	14,700
Dumbarton	71,587	20,710	24,189	27,317	33,200
Dumfries	295,621	54,597	62,960	70,878	73,800
Edinburgh	770,875	122,954	148,607	191,514	219,600
Elgin	73,288	26,705	28,108	31,162	34,200
Fife	405,770	93,743	101,272	114,550	128,800
Forfar	361,241	99,127	107,264	113,138	139,600
Haddington	251,126	29,986	31,164	35,127	36,100
Inverness	185,565	74,292	78,356	90,157	94,800
Kincairdine	94,861	26,349	27,439	29,118	31,400
Kinross	25,805	6,725	7,245	7,762	9,100
Kirkcudbright	213,308	29,211	33,684	38,903	40,600
Linark	686,381	146,699	191,152	224,387	316,800
Linlithgow	97,597	17,844	19,541	22,685	23,300
Nairn	14,902	8,527	8,257	9,006	9,400
Orkney and Shetland	20,938	46,824	46,153	53,124	58,200
Peebles	64,182	8,735	9,935	10,046	10,600
Perth	555,532	126,366	135,090	10,046	142,900
Renfrew	265,534	78,056	92,596	112,175	133,400
Ross and Cromarty	121,557	55,343	60,853	68,828	74,800
Roxburgh	254,180	33,682	37,230	40,892	43,700
Selkirk	43,584	5,070	5,889	6,637	6,800
Stirling	218,766	50,825	58,174	65,376	72,600
Sutherland	33,878	23,117	23,629	23,840	25,500
Wigton	143,425	24,918	26,918	33,240	36,330

Summary of the annual value of real property, as assessed April 1815, £6,652,655.

Rate of Increase in the Population of Great Britain, between the periods of 1801 and 1811, 1811 and 1821, 1821 and 1831.

ENGLAND.

COUNTIES.	Population in 1801.	Rate of Increase in 1811.	Rate of Increase in 1821.	Rate of Increase in 1831.
Berks	109,215	8 —	11 —	10 —
Buckingham	107,444	9 —	14 —	9 —
Cambridge	89,346	13 —	20 —	18 —
Chester	191,751	18 —	19 —	24 —
Cornwall	188,269	15 —	19 —	17 —
Cumberland	117,230	14 —	17 —	10 —
Derby	161,142	15 —	15 —	11 —
Devon	343,001	12 —	15 —	13 —
Dorset	115,319	8 —	16 —	10 —
Durham	160,561	11 —	17 —	22 —
Essex	226,437	11 —	15 —	10 —

Rate of Increase in the Population, &c. (Continued.)

COUNTIES.	Population in 1801.	Rate of Increase in 1811.	Rate of Increase in 1821.	Rate of Increase in 1831.
Gloucester	250,809	12 per ct.	18 per ct.	15 per ct.
Hereford	89,191	5 —	10 —	7 —
Hertford	97,577	14 —	16 —	10 —
Huntingdon	37,598	12 —	15 —	9 —
Kent	307,624	21 —	14 —	12 —
Lancaster	672,731	23 —	27 —	27 —
Leicester	130,081	16 —	16 —	13 —
Lincoln	208,557	14 —	19 —	12 —
Middlesex	818,129	17 —	20 —	19 —
Monmouth	45,582	36 —	15 —	36 —
Norfolk	273,371	7 —	18 —	13 —
Northampton	131,757	7 —	15 —	10 —
Northumberland	157,101	9 —	15 —	12 —
Nottingham	140,350	16 —	15 —	20 —
Oxford	109,620	9 —	15 —	11 —
Rutland	16,356	0 —	13 —	5 —
Salop	167,639	16 —	6 —	8 —
Somerset	273,750	12 —	17 —	13 —
Southampton (Hants)	219,656	12 —	15 —	11 —
Stafford	239,153	21 —	15 —	20 —
Suffolk	210,431	11 —	15 —	9 —
Surrey	269,043	20 —	23 —	22 —
Sussex	159,311	19 —	22 —	17 —
Warwick	208,190	10 —	20 —	23 —
Westmoreland	41,617	10 —	12 —	7 —
Wiltshire	185,107	5 —	15 —	8 —
Worcester	139,333	15 —	15 —	15 —
York, (East Riding)	111,693	16 —	14 —	10 —
York, (City & Ainsty of)	23,692	12 —	12 —	17 —
York, (North Riding)	158,225	7 —	11 —	2 —
York, (West Riding)	565,282	16 —	22 —	22 —

WALES.

COUNTIES.	Population in 1801.	Rate of Increase in 1811.	Rate of Increase in 1821.	Rate of Increase in 1831.
Anglesey	33,806	10 per ct.	21 per ct.	7 per ct.
Brecon	31,633	19 —	16 —	10 —
Cardigan	42,956	17 —	15 —	10 —
Caermarthen	67,317	15 —	17 —	12 —
Caernarvon	41,521	19 —	17 —	15 —
Denbigh	60,352	6 —	19 —	8 —
Flint	39,622	17 —	15 —	11 —
Glamorgan	71,525	18 —	19 —	24 —
Merioneth	27,506	4 —	11 —	0 —
Montgomery	47,978	8 —	15 —	9 —
Pembroke	56,280	7 —	22 —	9 —
Pendnryn	19,050	9 —	7 —	9 —

SCOTLAND.

COUNTIES.	Population in 1801.	Rate of Increase in 1811.	Rate of Increase in 1821.	Rate of Increase in 1831.
Aberdeen	123,082	10 per ct.	15 per ct.	14 per ct.
Argyle	61,859	19 —	14 —	4 —
Ayr	84,306	23 —	22 —	14 —

Rate of Increase in the Population, &c. (Continued.)

COUNTIES.	Population in 1801.	Rate of Increase in 1811.	Rate of Increase in 1821.	Rate of Increase in 1831.
Banff	35,307	2 per ct.	19 per ct.	12 per ct.
Berwick	30,621	1 —	8 —	2 —
Bute	11,791	2 —	15 —	3 —
Caithness	22,609	4 —	29 —	14 —
Clackmannan	10,858	11 —	10 —	11 —
Dumbarton	20,710	17 —	13 —	22 —
Dumfries	54,597	15 —	13 —	4 —
Edinburgh	122,954	21 —	29 —	15 —
Elgin	26,705	5 —	11 —	10 —
Fife	93,743	8 —	13 —	12 —
Forfar	99,127	8 —	6 —	23 —
Haddington	20,906	4 —	13 —	3 —
Inverness	74,292	5 —	15 —	5 —
Kincardine	26,349	4 —	5 —	8 —
Kinross	6,725	8 —	7 —	17 —
Kirkcudbright	20,211	15 —	15 —	4 —
Lanark	146,699	31 —	27 —	30 —
Linlithgow	171,844	9 —	17 —	3 —
Nairn	8,527	0 —	9 —	4 —
Orkney and Shetland	46,824	0 —	15 —	10 —
Peebles	8,735	14 —	1 —	1 —
Perth	126,366	7 —	3 —	3 —
Renfrew	78,056	19 —	21 —	19 —
Ross and Cromarty	55,343	10 —	13 —	9 —
Roxburgh	33,682	11 —	10 —	7 —
Selkirk	5,070	16 —	13 —	2 —
Stirling	50,825	14 —	12 —	11 —
Sutherland	23,117	2 —	0 —	7 —
Wigton	22,918	17 —	23 —	9 —

Summary of the Annual Value of Real Property, as assessed April 1815.

England	£49,744,622
Wales	2,153,801
Scotland	6,652,655
Total	£58,551,078

Summary of the Population of Great Britain.

	Population in the year 1801.	Increase per cent.	Population in the year 1811.	Increase per cent.	Population in the year 1821.	Increase per cent.	Population in the year 1831.
England	8,331,434	14 $\frac{2}{3}$	9,551,888	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	11,261,437	16	13,089,338
Wales	541,546	13	611,788	17	717,438	12	805,236
Scotland	1,599,068	14	1,805,688	16	2,093,456	13	2,365,807
Army, Navy, &c. }	470,598	—	640,500	—	319,300	—	277,017
Total	10,942,646	15$\frac{1}{4}$	12,609,864	14	14,391,631	15	16,537,398

TABLE II.

Number of Persons of both Sexes in the Counties of Great Britain, according to the returns of 1831.

ENGLAND.

Counties of	Males.	Females.	Total.
Bedford	46,350	49,033	95,383
Berks	72,453	72,836	145,289
Bucks	71,734	74,795	146,529
Cambridge	72,031	71,924	143,955
Chester	164,152	170,258	334,410
Cornwall	146,949	155,491	302,440
Cumberland	81,971	87,710	169,681
Derby	117,740	119,430	237,170
Devon	235,630	258,538	494,168
Dorset	76,536	82,716	159,252
Durham	721,701	132,126	253,827
Essex	158,885	158,352	317,237
Gloucester	185,063	201,841	386,904
Hereford	55,715	55,261	110,976
Hertford	71,895	71,946	143,841
Huntingdon	26,365	26,784	53,149
Kent	534,572	244,583	479,155
Lancaster	650,389	680,465	1,336,854
Leicester	97,556	99,447	197,003
Lincoln	158,717	158,527	317,244
Middlesex	631,493	727,048	1,358,541
Monmouth	51,095	47,035	98,130
Norfolk	189,305	200,749	390,054
Northampton	87,889	91,387	179,276
Northumberland	106,157	116,755	222,912
Nottingham	110,443	114,877	225,320
Oxford	76,055	75,671	151,726
Rutland	9,721	9,664	19,385
Salop	110,788	111,715	222,503
Somerset	194,169	209,739	403,908
Southampton (Hants)	152,097	162,216	314,313
Stafford	206,895	203,588	410,483
Suffolk	145,761	150,543	296,304
Surrey	230,855	255,471	486,326
Sussex	135,326	137,002	272,328
Warwick	165,761	171,227	336,988
Westmoreland	27,594	27,477	55,041
Wilts	117,118	122,063	239,181
Worcester	103,367	107,989	211,356
York, East Riding, and } York, City and Ainsty of }	98,524	105,484	204,008
York, North Riding	93,232	97,641	190,873
York, West Riding	485,845	490,570	976,415
England, Total	6,375,394	6,713,944	13,089,338

WALES.

Counties of	Males.	Females.	Total.
Anglesey	23,475	24,850	48,325
Brecon	23,896	23,867	47,763
Cardigan	30,868	33,912	64,780
Caernarthen	48,648	52,007	100,655
Caernarvon	31,810	33,943	65,753
Denbigh	41,388	41,779	83,167
Flint	29,924	30,088	60,012
Glamorgan	63,284	63,328	126,612
Merioneth	17,334	18,275	35,609
Montgomery	33,048	33,437	66,485
Pembroke	37,947	43,477	81,424
Radnor	12,453	12,198	24,651
Wales, Total	394,075	411,161	805,236

SCOTLAND.

Counties of	Males.	Females.	Total.
Aberdeen	82,582	95,069	177,651
Argyle	50,059	51,366	101,425

Counties of	Males.	Females.	Total
Ayr	69,717	75,338	145,055
Banff	22,743	25,861	48,604
Berwick	16,239	17,809	34,048
Bute	6,495	7,656	14,151
Caitness	16,359	18,170	34,529
Clackmannan	7,095	7,634	14,729
Dumbarton	16,321	16,890	33,211
Dumfries	34,829	38,941	73,770
Edinburgh	99,911	119,681	219,592
Elgin	15,779	18,452	34,231
Fife	60,780	68,059	128,839
Forfar	65,093	74,513	139,606
Haddington	17,397	18,748	36,145
Inverness	44,510	50,287	94,797
Kincardine	15,016	16,415	31,431
Kinross	4,519	4,553	9,072
Kirkcudbright	18,969	21,621	40,590
Lanark	159,259	166,590	325,849
Linlithgow	10,995	12,296	23,291
Nairn	4,307	5,047	9,354
Orkney and Shetland	26,594	31,645	58,239
Peebles	5,342	5,236	10,578
Perth	68,565	74,329	142,894
Renfrew	61,154	72,289	133,443
Ross and Cromarty	34,927	39,893	74,820
Roxburgh	20,761	22,902	43,663
Selkirk	3,394	3,439	6,833
Stirling	35,283	37,338	72,621
Sutherland	12,090	13,420	25,518
Wigton	17,078	19,180	36,258
Scotland, Total	1,115,132	1,250,675	2,365,807

IRELAND.

No. I.

Table of the Extent and Value of the several Counties, Counties of Cities, and Counties of Towns, with the amount of the County Assessments, and the Proportion of the Sums levied for County Cess and Tithe, to £1 sterling in the value of the Land.—The Parish Cesses are not included in this Table.

COUNTIES.	Contents in Statute Acres.	Estimated Value.	Average Value per Statute Acre.	Average of County Cess in 1830—1831.		Proportion of County Cess and Tithe, to one Pound sterling in the Value of the Land.			
				£	s. d.	Cess.	Tithe.	s. d.	s. d.
LEINSTER.									
Carlow	219,863	164,895	0 15 0	10,326	1 10	1	3½	1	4
Dublin	240,104	216,093	0 18 0	21,319	0 2	2	0	1	2
Dublin City	8,527	34,108	4 0 0	14,831	16 6½	0	0	0	0
Kildare	392,435	255,082	0 13 0	18,904	10 5½	1	5½	1	3½
Kilkenny	491,399	393,119	0 16 0	17,036	9 1	0	10	1	5
Kilkenny } City }	22,287	44,574	2 0 0	2,232	7 7	1	0	0	0
King's	528,166	317,019	0 12 0	15,095	0 0	0	11½	1	1
Longford	263,645	151,595	0 11 6	10,215	10 4½	1	4	1	0
Louth	200,484	150,363	0 15 0	10,516	7 6½	1	3½	1	5½
Drogheda } Town }	5,777	14,402	2 10 0	1,178	11 2	1	7½	0	0
Meath	567,127	510,414	0 18 0	25,724	0 6½	1	0	1	0
Queen's	396,810	277,767	0 14 0	19,556	12 3½	1	5	1	5½
West Meath	386,251	251,063	0 13 0	15,735	15 7	1	3½	1	0
Wexford	564,479	395,134	0 14 0	33,728	9 2½	1	8	1	5½
Wicklow	494,704	296,822	0 12 0	18,650	12 6	1	3	1	3
ULSTER.									
Antrim	742,324	556,743	0 15 0	42,909	10 1	1	6½	1	4
Carrickfer- } gus Town }	16,542	12,406	0 15 0	811	18 10	1	3½	0	0
Armagh	328,183	178,955	0 17 0	23,655	9 3	2	8	1	3
Cavan	473,449	307,741	0 13 0	23,852	7 6½	1	6	0	0
Donegal	1,165,107	349,501	0 6 0	24,606	15 4½	1	4½	2	1

Table of the Extent and Value of the several Counties, &c. (Continued.)

COUNTIES.	Contents in Statute Acres.	Estimated Value.	Average Value per Statute Acre.	Average of County Cess in 1830—1831.	Proportion of County Cess and Tithe, to One Pound sterling in the Value of the Land.	
					Cess.	Tithe.
ULSTER.						
Down . . .	611,404	489,123	0 16 0	37,471 15 9	1 6	1 4
Fermanagh . . .	471,341	259,241	0 11 0	16,705 18 8	1 3	1 0
Londonderry . . .	518,270	310,962	0 12 0	24,902 2 1	1 6	1 11
Monaghan . . .	327,048	212,581	0 13 0	19,643 19 6	1 1	1 0
Tyrone . . .	754,395	528,065	0 14 0	42,893 7 9	1 7	2 0
MUNSTER.						
Clare . . .	802,352	441,393	0 11 0	30,439 2 8	1 4	1 0
Cork . . .	1,725,100	1,137,242	0 13 7	65,473 15 10	1 1	1 9
Cork City . . .	44,463	66,694	1 10 0	18,952 15 8	5 8	0 0
Kerry . . .	1,148,720	344,616	0 7 6	30,559 6 6	1 9	1 0
Limerick . . .	640,621	544,527	0 17 0	30,515 2 2	1 1	1 0
Limerick City . . .	34,162	85,405	2 10 0	5,921 4 8	1 4	0 0
Tipperary . . .	1,013,173	886,439	0 17 6	52,532 10 7	1 2	1 3
Waterford . . .	461,598	276,958	0 12 0	16,980 8 7	1 2	0 0
Waterford City . . .	9,683	18,366	2 0 0	4,348 14 10	4 10	0 0
CONNAUGHT.						
Galway . . .	1,485,533	850,000	0 11 5	30,441 11 11	0 8	1 2
Galway Town . . .	25,059	18,894	0 15 0	3,731 15 4	3 6	0 0
Leitrim . . .	420,375	210,187	0 10 0	15,170 17 0	1 5	1 0
Mayo . . .	1,355,048	550,018	0 8 0	21,287 2 8	0 11	1 1
Roscommon . . .	607,405	379,628	0 12 6	23,070 11 1	1 2	1 0
Sligo . . .	454,887	227,443	0 10 0	19,224 2 5	1 8	1 0
IRELAND . . .	20,399,608	12,715,578	0 12 5	860,111 9 3	1 5	1 3

** In Counties of Cities and Counties of Towns, the Clergy are chiefly paid by a tax on the houses, called Minister's Money, and therefore the Tithe has not been introduced into this Table.

No. II.

Table of the Geographical Positions of the principal Seaports and Headlands.

	Latitude.	Longitude.	
Malin Head . . .	55° 20' 40"	7° 24' 0"	{ The most northern point of Ireland.
Londonderry city . . .	54 59 20	7 19 30	
Fair Head . . .	55 13 20	6 9 0	{ The nearest point to Scotland.
Tor Point . . .	55 11 0	6 2 0	
Carrickfergus town . . .	54 42 45	5 47 0	{ The most eastern point of Ireland.
Belfast town . . .	54 36 0	5 56 0	
Donaghadee town . . .	54 38 20	5 31 50	{ The most eastern point of Ireland.
Ballywalter town . . .	54 32 20	5 28 0	
Ballyquintin Point . . .	54 19 30	5 28 20	Near Dublin.
Downpatrick town . . .	54 19 50	5 42 0	
St. John's Point . . .	54 13 30	5 39 0	Near Dublin.
Drogheda town . . .	53 43 45	6 24 15	
Howth, bailey of . . .	53 21 30	6 3 15	Near Dublin.
Dunsink observatory . . .	53 23 10	6 21 0	
Wicklow Head . . .	52 58 10	5 56 30	Near Dublin.
Wexford town . . .	52 20 0	6 21 30	
Carnsore Point . . .	52 10 0	6 16 45	Near Dublin.
Hook Head . . .	52 7 20	6 58 0	
Waterford city . . .	52 15 0	7 7 30	Near Dublin.
Ardmore Head . . .	51 57 20	7 41 40	
Youghal town . . .	51 58 0	7 52 30	Near Dublin.
Cove town . . .	51 51 0	8 18 45	
Kinsale town . . .	51 42 0	8 33 0	Near Dublin.
Brow Head . . .	51 26 0	9 48 0	
Crow Head . . .	51 34 20	10 11 40	{ The most southern point of Ireland.

Table of the Geographical Positions of the principal Seaports and Headlands. (Continued.)

	Latitude.	Longitude.	
Dingle town . . .	52° 10' 30"	10° 15' 45"	{ The most western point of Ireland.
Dunmore Head . . .	52 8 30	10 27 30	
Brandon Head . . .	52 19 0	10 8 20	{ The most western point of Ireland.
Tralee town . . .	52 16 50	9 43 0	
Kerry Head . . .	52 24 40	9 54 0	{ The most western point of Ireland.
Limerick city . . .	52 39 30	8 36 30	
Loop Head . . .	52 33 30	9 54 0	{ The most western point of Ireland.
Black Head . . .	53 9 20	9 13 0	
Galway town . . .	53 16 0	9 0 0	{ The most western point of Ireland.
Slieve Head . . .	53 24 30	10 7 40	
Aghris Point . . .	53 32 45	10 8 30	{ The most western point of Ireland.
Westport town . . .	53 48 20	9 27 30	
Achill Head . . .	53 58 30	10 12 20	{ The most western point of Ireland.
Erris Head . . .	54 17 20	9 56 15	
Sligo town . . .	54 16 15	8 24 0	{ The most western point of Ireland.
Donegal town . . .	54 38 0	8 4 30	
Telen Head . . .	54 40 45	8 46 30	{ The most western point of Ireland.
Bloodyfarland Point . . .	55 8 0	8 17 0	
Horn Head . . .	55 12 50	7 58 20	{ The most western point of Ireland.

No. III.

Names and Situation of the Tribes settled in Ireland, according to Ptolemy; and of the principal Septs or Families at the Commencement of the 17th Century, according to O'Connor.

LEINSTER.

County.	Ptolemy.	O'Connor.
Carlow	Brigantes Caucoi ^a	Cooke, Brown, Bagnall, O'Nolan, O'Ryan, Carew, M'Morrough, Cavenagh.
Dublin	Eblani ^b	Grace, St. Laurence, Warren, Luttrell, Talbot, Harold, Wolverston, O'Brin.
Kildare	Caucoi Eblani	White, Allen, Sarsfield, Rice, Wogan, Aylmer, Fitzgerald, Brown, Eustace.
Kilkenny	Brigantes Caucoi	Grace, O'Brenan, Wandersford, Butler, O'Shea, Rooth, Harpur, Walsh, Shortall.
King's Co.	Brigantes	Fitz-Simons, O'Connor, Hy Falie, O'Molloys, O'Carroll, O'Delany.
Longford		O'Ferral.
Louth		Portlance, Bellew, Taaffe, Verdon, Gernon, Dowdall, Fleming, Netterville, Darcy, Nangle, Barnewall, Denny, Preston, Cadell, Cusack, Bellew, Cheevers, Mareward, Plunket, Hussey, Dease.
Meath	Eblani	
Queen's Co.	Brigantes	O'Regan, O'Dempsey, O'Don, O'More, O'Mooney, Keating, Fitz-Patrick.
West Meath		Nugent, O'Melaghlin, Petit, M'Geoghegan, Dillon, M'Auley, O'Malone, O'Daly.
Wexford	Manapii	Hy Kenselagh, Brown, Talbot, M'Murrough, Colclough, Sutton, Butler, Masterson, Keating, Comerford, Redmond, Devereux, Hay.
Wicklow		O'Birne, Wallis or Walsh, O'Toole.
ULSTER.		
Antrim	Robogdii Voluntii	M'Willins, O'Hara, O'Shiel, Mac-Donall, O'Neil.
Armagh	Vinderii ^c Voluntii	O'Neil, Caulfield, Brownlow, O'Hanlon, Acheson.

^a Καυχοί—Cauci (Lat.)—P.
^b Blani. (Edit. Mercator.)—Blanii or Eblanii. (Martiniere.)—In a MS. quoted by Ortelius, Εβδύνοι (Hebdyni.)—P.
^c In Mercator's Edition, there is no people mentioned called the Vinderii. Among the geographical positions is the following: Vinderii fluvii ostia (mouth of the river Vinderius.)—P.

County.	Ptolemy.	O'Connor.
Cavan	Erdini	O'Reilly, O'Curry, Plunket, O'Sheridan, O'Brady, M'Kiernan, Hamilton.
Donegal	Erdini Vennicnii	O'Dogherty, M'Swiny Fanet, M'Conemy, O'Donnel, M'Swiny na tua, M'Ward, O'Boyle, O'Gallagher, O'Clery.
Down	Vinderii Voluntii Robogdii Darini ^a	M'Ginnes, Savage, O'Neil, White, M'Cartan.
Fermanagh		M'Gwire, Cole, O'Flanagan.
Londonderry	Vennicnii	O'Cahan, O'Conor, O'Murry, O'Donnell.
Monaghan		M'Mahon.
Tyrone	Erdini	O'Neil, Hamilton, Caulfield, O'Hagan, Chichester.

MUNSTER.

Clare	Gangani	O'Daly, O'Loughlin, O'Davoran, O'Brien, O'Finn, O'Dea, M'Brueddin, O'Honeen, O'Conor, M'Gillysaght, O'Grady, M'Innery, O'Molony, O'Halloran, Sexten, M'Clancy, M'Namara Reagh, M'Namara Finn, M'Mahon, O'Hehir, M'Gillereagh, M'Considin, O'Gorman, M'Gorman.
Cork	Juvernii ^b Coriondi Vodii ^c	Fitzgerald, Meagh, Barry, Condon, M'Carthy, Gibbon, M'Donogh, Roche, Nagle, O'Donohoe, O'Keefe, O'Lyons, Baine, Copinger, Gold, O'Calaghan, O'Hely, O'Hennesy, O'Riordan, O'Daly, Boyle, Carew, Barry, Waters, Skyddy, Stackpole, Archdeacon, Sandfield, Galwey, O'Kearney, O'Leary, O'Crowly, M'Carthy Reagh, O'Hea, O'Mahony, O'Driscoll, O'Sullivan, O'Donovan, Barry.
Kerry	Duellabri ^d Juvernii	O'Connor Kerry, Blenerhasset, Crosby, Fitzmaurice, Denny, Fitzgerald, M'Elliott, Trant, Rice, Browne, O'Donoghoe, Conway, O'Falvy, M'Carthy More, M'Gillucuddy, O'Sullivan More, O'Mahown
Limerick	Coriondi Duellabri	O'Brien, O'Hurly, O'Grady, De Lacey, Arthur, Roche, O'Quin, Fanning, Comyn, Browne, Creagh, Stritch, Harrold, M'Mahon, Nash, Purcel, O'Casey, Fitzgerald, O'Halinan, O'Scanlan, Aylmer, M'Sheehy, White, Morony, Sarsfield, M'Enery, O'Gorman.
Tipperary	Darini Coriondi	M'Egan, O'Kennedy, O'Hogan, Magrath, O'Brien O'Mulrian, O'Hickey, O'Meagher, O'Carrol, Purcel, O'Fogarty, Matthews, Butler, Everard, O'Dwyer, Burke, Woulfe, O'Heffernan, Cantwell O'Kearny, Tobin, Mandeville, Fitzgerald, Fitzgibbon.

County.	Ptolemy.	O'Connor.
Waterford	Manapii	O'Brien, Aylward, Poer, O'Feolan, Wyse, Walsh, Wadding, Sherlock, Dalton, M'Thomas, Boyle.

CONNAUGHT.

Galway	Gangani Auteri ^e	O'Maly, O'Flaherty, Birmingham, O'Halloran, O'Kirwan, Martin, Blake, Skerret, Lynch, Browne, O'Heney, O'Shaughnesy, O'Madden, Burke, French, Darcy, O'Mullally. O'Daly.
Leitrim		O'Ruark, M'Gauran, M'Ranell, M'Conavan, M'Dermot Roe.
Mayo	Auteri	M'William, Burke, Barrett, Jordan, Dillon, M'Phillips, M'Costello oi Nangle, Browne, Joyce, Bingham, Fitzmaurice.
Roscommon	Auteri	O'Fallon, O'Kelly, O'Naghton, O'Birn, O'Flanagan, King, M'Dermot, O'Conor Don, O'Donellan, Crofton, O'Hanly, O'Flynn, M'David, Burke.
Sligo	Nagnata ^e	O'Conor Sligo, O'Dowd, M'Firbis, O'Hara, O'Bean, M'Donoghl, O'Gara.

No. IV.

Heights of the Principal Mountains.

		Feet.
Macgillicuddy's Reeks,	Kerry,	3695
Lugnaquilla,	Wicklow,	3070
Slieve Donard,	Down,	2809
Muilrea,	Mayo,	2733
Mangerton,	Kerry,	2693
Croagh Patrick,	Mayo,	2660
Nephin,	Mayo,	2630
Kippure-head,	Wicklow,	2527
Comaderry,	Wicklow,	2268
Arragh,	Donegal,	2220
Great Sugar-loaf,	Wicklow,	2104

No. V.

Islands on the Coast of Ireland.

Province.	Total number of Islands.	Number of inhabited Islands.	Population
Leinster,	6	1	34
Ulster,	40	27	4,546
Munster,	70	50	22,827
Connaught,	80	60	15,592
	196	138	42,995

^a Darni. (Ed. Merc.)—Darni, Darnii, or Darini. (Martiniere.)—P.
^b Not in Ed. Merc. Qu. Uterni.—Ptolemy places the *Uterni* on the southern coast of the island. In a MS. quoted by Ortelius, the reading is *Juberni*. In others, the name is *Jucrni* (Ιουερνιοι.) (Martiniere.)—P.

^c Vodii. (Ed. Merc.)—P.
^d Not in Ed. Merc. Qu. Vellabri.—Vellabori or Vellabori; a Greek MS. Ουελλαβοροι; some Latin copies, Vellagori. (Martiniere.)—P.
^e Autini (Ed. Merc. Text. Ind. Gen.) Auteri (Id. Ind. Eur.)—P.

No. VI.

Table of the Population of Ireland in the Years 1812, 1821, and 1831.

COUNTIES.	1812.	1821.	1831.	Total Increase.	COUNTIES.	1812	1821.	1831.	Total Increase.
Carlow	69,566	78,952	81,576	12,010	Mayo	237,371	293,112	367,956	130,585
Dublin	257,057	335,892	386,694	99,637	Roscommon	158,110	208,729	239,903	81,793
Kildare	85,133	99,065	108,401	23,268	Sligo	119,265	146,229	171,508	5,243
Kilkenny	155,664	181,946	193,024	37,360	CONNAUGHT	877,841	1,110,229	1,348,077	470,236
King's	113,266	131,088	144,029	30,763					
Longford	95,917	107,570	112,391	16,474					
Louth	105,111	119,129	125,533	20,422					
Meath	142,479	159,183	177,023	34,544					
Queen's	113,857	134,275	145,843	21,986					
West Meath	112,000	128,819	148,161	36,161					
Wexford	160,000	170,806	182,991	22,991					
Wicklow	83,109	110,767	122,301	39,192					
LEINSTER	1,523,159	1,757,492	1,927,967	404,808					
Antrim	237,684	270,883	323,306	85,622	Leinster	1,523,159	1,757,492	1,927,967	404,808
Armagh	121,499	197,427	220,651	99,152	Ulster	1,711,183	1,998,494	2,293,128	581,945
Cavan	164,000	195,076	228,050	64,050	Munster	1,525,475	1,935,612	2,165,193	639,718
Donegal	212,100	248,270	298,104	86,004	Connaught	877,841	1,110,229	1,348,077	470,236
Down	287,290	325,410	352,571	65,281	IRELAND	5,637,658	6,801,827	7,734,365	2,096,707
Fermanagh	111,250	130,997	149,555	38,305					
Londonderry	186,181	193,869	222,416	36,235					
Monaghan	140,433	174,697	195,532	55,099					
Tyrone	250,746	261,865	302,943	52,197					
ULSTER	1,711,183	1,998,494	2,293,128	581,945					
Clare	160,603	208,089	258,262	97,659					
Cork	588,330	730,444	807,366	219,036					
Kerry	178,622	216,185	219,989	41,367					
Limerick	162,465	277,477	300,080	137,615					
Tipperary	290,531	346,896	402,598	112,067					
Waterford	144,924	156,521	176,898	31,974					
MUNSTER	1,525,475	1,935,612	2,165,193	639,718					
Galway	269,000	337,374	427,407	158,407					
Leitrim	94,095	124,785	141,303	47,208					

SUMMARY.

The population of the following cities and towns is included in the preceding table in the total contents of the counties to which they respectively belong, but it is not particularly specified in the enumeration of 1812. In those of 1821 and 1831, the amounts are as follow :—

CITY or TOWN.	COUNTY.	1821.	1831.	Increase or Diminution.
Dublin City	Dublin	185,881	203,652	Increase, 17,771
Kilkenny City . . .	Kilkenny	23,230	23,741	Do. 511
Drogheda Town . . .	Louth	18,118	17,365	Decrease, 750
Carrickfergus Town .	Antrim	8,023	8,698	Increase, 675
Cork City	Cork	100,658	107,007	Do. 6349
Limerick City	Limerick	59,045	66,575	Do. 7530
Waterford City . . .	Waterford	28,679	28,821	Do. 142
Galway Town	Galway	27,775	33,120	Do. 5345

No. VII.

Population of the Cities and Towns in Ireland of 1000 Souls and upwards.

** The County Towns are printed in Capitals.

LEINSTER.	ULSTER.	MUNSTER.	CONNAUGHT.
<i>Upwards of 100,000 Inhabitants.</i>			
DUBLIN, <i>Dubl.</i>	203,752		CORK, <i>Cork,</i>
<i>From 100,000 to 10,000.</i>			
KILKENNY, <i>Kilk.</i>	23,741	Belfast, <i>Antr.</i>	53,287
Drogheda, <i>Lou.</i>	17,365	LONDONDERRY, <i>L.derry,</i>	13,251
Athlone, <i>Rosc. West.</i>	11,362	Newry, <i>Down.</i>	13,134
WEXFORD, <i>Wexf.</i>	10,673	LIMERICK, <i>Lim.</i>	65,092
DUNDALK, <i>Lou.</i>	10,078	WATERFORD, <i>Water.</i>	28,821
		CLONMEL, <i>Tip.</i>	17,833
		Bandon, <i>Cork,</i>	12,617
<i>From 10,000 to 8000.</i>			
CARLOW, <i>Carl.</i>	9,114	ARMAGH, <i>Arm.</i>	9,189
		CARRICKFERGUS, <i>Ant.</i>	8,698
		Carrick on Suir, <i>Tip.</i>	9,626
		Youghal, <i>Cork,</i>	9,608
		TRALEE, <i>Ker.</i>	9,562
		Nenagh, <i>Tip.</i>	8,446

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

653

LEINSTER.

ULSTER.

MUNSTER.

CONNAUGHT.

From 8000 to 6000.

Parsonstown, *King's*, . . . 6,594
 Tullamore, *King's*, . . . 6,342
 Callan, *Kilk.* 6,111

Killarney, *Ker.* 7,910
 ENNIS, *Cl.* 7,711
 Kinsale, *Cork.* 7,312
 Thurles, *Tip.* 7,084
 Fermoy, *Cork.* 6,976
 Tipperary, *Tip.* 6,972
 Cashel, *Tip.* 6,971
 Cove, *Cork.* 6,966
 Dungarvan, *Wat.* 6,519

CASTLEBAR, *May.* 6,373
 Loughrea, *Gulw.* 6,28²

From 6000 to 4000.

Enniscorthy, *Wez.* 5,955
 Kingstown, *Dubl.* 5,736
 New Ross, *Wez.* 5,011
 Mountmellick, *Que.* 4,577
 ATHY, *Kild.* 4,494
 NAVAN, *Mea.* 4,416
 LONGFORD, *Long.* 4,354
 Kells, *Mea.* 4,326
 MULLINGAR, *West.* 4,295

Strabane, *Tyr.* 5,457
 Ballymacarrett, *Down.* 5,168
 ENNISKILLEN, *Ferm.* 5,270
 Lisburn, *Ant.* 5,218
 DOWNPATRICK, *Down.* 4,784
 Newtown Ardes, *Down.* 4,442
 Ballymena, *Ant.* 4,063

Roscrea, *Tip.* 5,512
 Mallow, *Cork.* 5,229
 Rathkeale, *Lim.* 4,972
 Charleville, *Cork.* 4,766
 Skibbereen, *Cork.* 4,430
 Dingle, *Kerry.* 4,357
 Bantry, *Cork.* 4,276

Ballina, *Mayo.* 5,510
 Ballinasloe, *Galw.* 4,615
 Tuam, *Galw.* 4,571
 Westport, *Mayo.* 4,448

From 4000 to 3000.

Arbee, *Lou.* 3,975
 NAAS, *Kild.* 3,808
 Bray, *Wick.* 3,656
 Trim, *Mea.* 3,282
 MARYBOROUGH, *Que.* 3,220
 Portarlington, *Que.* 3,091
 Gorey, *Wez.* 3,044
 Balbriggan, *Dubl.* 3,016

MONAGHAN, *Mon.* 3,848
 Ballyshannon, *Don.* 3,775
 Coleraine, *Lond.* 3,774
 Dungannon, *Tyr.* 3,515

Kilrush, *Cl.* 3,996
 Cloghnakilty, *Cork.* 3,807
 Mitchelstown, *Cork.* 3,545
 Cahir, *Tip.* 3,408
 Fethard, *Tip.* 3,400

Gort, *Galw.* 3,627
 Boyle, *Rose.* 3,433
 ROSCOMMON, *Rosc.* 3,306

From 3000 to 2000.

Thomastown, *Kilk.* 2,871
 Banagher, *King.* 2,611
 Mountrath, *Que.* 2,593
 Skerries, *Dubl.* 2,556
 Swords, *Dubl.* 2,537
 WICKLOW, *Wick.* 2,472
 Castlecómer, *Kilk.* 2,436
 Freshford, *Kilk.* 2,175
 Rush, *Dubl.* 2,144
 Graige, *Kilk.* 2,130
 Granard, *Long.* 2,058
 Maynooth, *Kild.* 2,053
 Blackrock, *Dubl.* 2,050
 Leighlin Bridge, *Carl.* 2,035
 Arklow, *Wick.* 2,002

Donaghadee, *Down.* 2,986
 Carrickmacross, *Mon.* 2,979
 CAVAN, *Cav.* 2,931
 Cookstown, *Tyr.* 2,883
 Lurgan, *Arm.* 2,842
 Bangor, *Down.* 2,741
 Antrim, *Ant.* 2,655
 Banbridge, *Down.* 2,469
 Newtown Limavady, *Lond.* 2,428
 Clones, *Mon.* 2,381
 Ballymoney, *Ant.* 2,222
 OMAGH, *Tyr.* 2,211
 Portaferry, *Down.* 2,203
 Cootehill, *Cav.* 2,178
 Letterkenny, *Don.* 2,160
 Belturbet, *Cav.* 2,026
 Rathfriland, *Down.* 2,001

Tallow, *Wat.* 2,998
 Templemore, *Tip.* 2,936
 Newcastle, *Lim.* 2,908
 Lismore, *Wat.* 2,894
 Dunmanway, *Cork.* 2,738
 Carrickbeg, *Wat.* 2,704
 Doneraile, *Cork.* 2,652
 Cappoquin, *Wat.* 2,289
 Listowel, *Ker.* 2,289
 Cloyne, *Cork.* 2,227
 Tramore, *Wat.* 2,224
 Passage West, *Cork.* 2,131
 Macroom, *Cork.* 2,053

BALLINROBE, *Mayo.* 2,575
 Ardnaree, *Sl.* 2,479

From 2000 to 1000.

Ranelagh, *Dubl.* 1,988
 Kilbeggan, *Wcst.* 1,985
 Graige, *Que.* 1,976
 Athboy, *Mea.* 1,959
 Tullow, *Carl.* 1,929
 Ballynakill, *Que.* 1,927
 Stradbally, *Que.* 1,799
 Moate, *West.* 1,785
 Kildare, *Kild.* 1,753
 Kileoek, *Kild.* 1,730
 Baltinglass, *Wick.* 1,669
 Celbridge, *Kild.* 1,645
 Chapelizod, *Dubl.* 1,632
 Ballyragget, *Kilk.* 1,629
 Castlepollard, *West.* 1,618
 Rathmines, *Dubl.* 1,600
 Rathfarnham, *Dubl.* 1,572
 Oldcastle, *Mea.* 1,531
 PHILIPSTOWN, *King.* 1,454
 Monastereven, *Kild.* 1,441
 Newtownbarry, *Wez.* 1,430

Ballibay, *Mon.* 1,947
 Dromore, *Down.* 1,942
 Warrenspoint, *Down.* 1,856
 Castlebaney, *Mon.* 1,828
 Ramelton, *Don.* 1,783
 Aghnacloy, *Tyr.* 1,742
 Newton Stewart, *Tyr.* 1,737
 Fintona, *Tyr.* 1,714
 Ballycastle, *Ant.* 1,683
 Kingscourt, *Cav.* 1,616
 Portadown, *Arm.* 1,591
 Tanderagee, *Arm.* 1,559
 Larne, *Old, Ant.* 1,551
 Hillsborough, *Down.* 1,453
 Magherafelt, *Lond.* 1,436
 Raphoe, *Don.* 1,408
 Comber, *Down.* 1,377
 Holywood, *Down.* 1,288
 Kilrea, *Lond.* 1,215
 Ardglass, *Down.* 1,162
 Dungiven, *Lond.* 1,162

Kilworth, *Cork.* 1,963
 Middleton, *Cork.* 1,946
 Millstreet, *Cork.* 1,935
 Clogheen, *Tip.* 1,928
 Abbeyside, *Wat.* 1,859
 Bruff, *Lim.* 1,772
 Kilfinane, *Lim.* 1,752
 Ballingarry, *Lim.* 1,685
 Rathcornmuck, *Cork.* 1,656
 Portlaw, *Wat.* 1,618
 Killenaule, *Tip.* 1,578
 Castle-island, *Ker.* 1,569
 Buttevant, *Cork.* 1,536
 Rosscarbery, *Cork.* 1,522
 Askeyton, *Lim.* 1,515
 Sixmilebridge, *Cl.* 1,491
 Newmarket, *Cork.* 1,437
 Ennistymon, *Cl.* 1,430
 Milltown, *Ker.* 1,427
 Killaloe, *Cl.* 1,411
 Kanturk, *Cor.* 1,349

Eyrecourt, *Galw.* 1,789
 Mohill, *Leit.* 1,606
 Strokestown, *Rose.* 1,548
 Elphin, *Rosc.* 1,507
 Crosmalina, *Mayo.* 1,481
 Clare, *Mayo.* 1,476
 CARRICK ON SHANNON, *Leit.* 1,428
 Manorhamilton, *Leit.* 1,348
 Athenry, *Galw.* 1,319
 Clifden, *Galw.* 1,257
 Newport, *Mayo.* 1,235
 Ballyhadereen, *Mayo.* 1,147
 Killala, *Mayo.* 1,125
 Portunna, *Galw.* 1,122
 Headford, *Galw.* 1,026
 Foxford, *Mayo.* 1,024

LEINSTER		ULSTER.		MUNSTER.		CONNAUGHT.	
Ballycollinbeg, <i>Que.</i>	1,351	Maghera, <i>Lond.</i>	1,154	Burrisoleigh, <i>Tip.</i>	1,340		
Castledermot, <i>Kild.</i>	1,375	Killilcagh, <i>Down.</i>	1,147	Castleconnel, <i>Lim.</i>	1,312		
Urlingford, <i>Kilk.</i>	1,366	Killishandra, <i>Cav.</i>	1,137	Ballylongford, <i>Ker.</i>	1,300		
Carlingford, <i>Low.</i>	1,319	Lifford, <i>Don.</i>	1,096	Croom, <i>Lim.</i>	1,263		
Bagnalstown, <i>Carl.</i>	1,315	Bailieborough, <i>Cav.</i>	1,085	Kilmallock, <i>Lim.</i>	1,213		
Clontarf, <i>Dubl.</i>	1,309	Caledon, <i>Tyr.</i>	1,079	Cahersiveen, <i>Ker.</i>	1,192		
Durrow, <i>Kilk.</i>	1,298	Larne, <i>New, Ant.</i>	1,064	Burrisokane, <i>Tip.</i>	1,185		
Shinrone, <i>King's.</i>	1,287	Buncrana, <i>Don.</i>	1,059	Mullinahone, <i>Tip.</i>	1,175		
Edenderry, <i>King's.</i>	1,283	Saintfield, <i>Down.</i>	1,056	Hospital, <i>Lim.</i>	1,131		
Lucan, <i>Dubl.</i>	1,229	Irvinestown, <i>Ferm.</i>	1,047	Abbey, <i>Tip.</i>	1,123		
Dulcek, <i>Mea.</i>	1,217	Markethill, <i>Arm.</i>	1,043	Newmarket on Fergus, <i>Cl.</i>	1,118		
Clane, <i>Kild.</i>	1,216	Kilkeel, <i>Down.</i>	1,039	Glanworth, <i>Cork,</i>	1,098		
Rathdowney, <i>Que.</i>	1,214	Moneymore, <i>Lond.</i>	1,025	Castletownrocke, <i>Cork,</i>	1,095		
Rathangan, <i>Kild.</i>	1,165	Randalstown, <i>Ant.</i>	1,025	Kenmare, <i>Ker.</i>	1,072		
Leixlip, <i>Kild.</i>	1,159	Newtown Hamilton, <i>Arm.</i>	1,020	Doogh, <i>Cl.</i>	1,051		
Collon, <i>Low.</i>	1,153	Stewartstown, <i>Tyr.</i>	1,010	Glynn, <i>Lim.</i>	1,030		
Clara, <i>King's.</i>	1,149			Clare, <i>Cl.</i>	1,021		
Frankfort, <i>King's.</i>	1,112						
Taghmon, <i>Wex.</i>	1,109						
Harold's Cross, <i>Dubl.</i>	1,101						
Ballymahon, <i>Long.</i>	1,081						
Rathdrum, <i>Wick.</i>	1,054						
Prosperous, <i>Kild.</i>	1,038						
Abbeyleix, <i>Que.</i>	1,009						
Baldoyle, <i>Dubl.</i>	1,009						
Gowran, <i>Kilk.</i>	1,009						
Edgeworthstown, <i>Long.</i>	1,001						

Summary of the preceding Table of the Population of Cities and Towns in Ireland.

Provinces.	Upwards of 100,000.	100,000 to 10,000.	10,000 to 8,000.	8,000 to 6,000.	6,000 to 4,000.	4,000 to 3,000.	3,000 to 2,000.	2,000 to 1,000.	Total Number of Towns.
Leinster,	1	5	1	3	9	8	15	48	90
Ulster,	0	3	2	0	7	4	17	37	70
Munster,	1	4	4	9	7	5	13	38	81
Connaught,	0	2	0	2	4	3	2	16	29
Ireland,	2	14	7	14	27	20	47	139	270

No. VIII.

EDUCATION.

Number of Children receiving Education in Ireland, in the Year 1824.

Provinces.	Established Church.	Presbyterians.	Other Dissenters.	Roman Catholics.	Sect not specified.	Total.
Ulster,	34,972	43,667	2,625	58,164	2,531	141,959
Leinster,	30,487	559	485	126,591	2,909	161,031
Munster,	17,297	136	456	171,574	1,450	191,093
Connaught,	9,293	204	112	64,514	758	74,881
Total,	92,049	44,566	3,678	421,023	7,648	568,964

No. IX.

Number of Teachers in Schools in 1824.

Provinces.	Established Church.	Presbyterians and other Dissenters.	Roman Catholics.	Sect not stated.	Total.
Ulster,	1,093	938	1,482	27	3,540
Leinster,	1,128	65	2,612	25	3,830
Munster,	597	45	2,913	17	3,572
Connaught,	280	10	1,293	5	1,588
Total,	3,098	1,058	8,300	74	12,530

No. X.

Total Amount of Grants of Public Money for the Purposes of Education.

Charter Schools,	£1,105,869	0 0
Foundling Hospital,	820,005	3 4
Association for discountenancing Vice,	101,991	18 6
Kildare Place Society,	170,508	0 0
Lord-Lieutenant's Fund,	40,998	0 0
Maynooth College,	271,869	18 6
Belfast Institution,	4,155	0 0
Cork Institution,	43,710	0 0
Hibernian School,	240,356	1 6
Marine Society,	64,262	10 9
Female Orphan School	50,414	10 9
	£2,914,140	3 4

No. XI.

Table of the Income and Expenditure of Ireland from the Year 1792 to 1830.

I.—From the Commencement of the War with France to the Union.

Year	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Debt incurred by the excess of expenditure above the revenue.
1793	1,162,588	1,296,061	133,473
1794	955,030	1,462,415	507,385
1795	1,119,190	1,378,908	189,718
1796	1,487,412	2,799,593	1,312,181
1797	1,891,479	3,420,373	1,528,894
1798	1,613,645	4,944,944	3,331,299
1799	2,137,543	6,887,787	4,750,244
1800	2,732,053	7,110,537	4,377,484

Table of the Income and Expenditure of Ireland, &c. (Continued.)

No. XIII.

II.—From the Union to the Termination of the War with France.

State of the Cross-Channel Trade since the Union.

Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Debt incurred by the excess of expenditure above the revenue.
1801	2,645,716	7,799,988	5,154,272
1802	2,490,978	8,021,011	5,530,033
1803	3,128,093	7,184,522	4,056,429
1804	2,745,762	7,097,123	4,351,361
1805	3,186,450	8,889,885	5,703,435
1806	3,218,774	7,828,503	4,609,729
1807	3,656,910	7,758,815	4,101,915
1808	4,179,923	7,700,531	3,520,608
1809	4,301,781	8,564,200	4,262,419
1810	4,027,583	9,948,238	5,920,655
1811	3,413,450	10,823,800	7,410,350
1812	3,929,106	11,325,093	7,395,987
1813	4,614,037	11,614,024	6,999,987
1814	4,820,511	12,239,003	7,418,492
1815	5,287,581	14,836,409	8,548,828

The amounts are given in official values, which, though they afford no criterion as to present prices, inasmuch as for the last eleven years the real values, which had previously exceeded the official by several millions per annum, have rapidly decreased and come below it, yet they serve to show the increase and decrease in quantity.

	Exports to Great Britain.	Imports from all parts.
1801	£3,270,350 12 0	£4,621,344 16 6
1805	4,067,717 1 7	5,294,967 4 11
1809	5,316,557 5 1	6,896,821 18 10
1813	6,746,353 12 10	7,797,286 11 0
1817	4,722,766 0 3	5,646,563 3 9
1821	5,338,838 4 6	6,407,427 15 9
1825	7,048,936 5 6	8,596,785 8 11

III.—From the termination of the War with France to the present Time.

No. XIV.

Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Debt incurred by the excess of expenditure above the revenue.
1816	5,467,942	18,165,729	12,697,787
1817	4,394,630	13,402,479	9,005,849
1818	4,384,816	6,018,551	1,633,735
1819	4,577,286	4,984,148	0,406,862
1820	4,250,980	6,447,685	2,196,705
1821	3,605,446	6,465,714	2,860,268
1822	3,909,923	5,853,623	1,853,700
1823	3,690,973	5,759,566	2,068,593
1824	3,199,128	3,836,486	0,637,358
1825	3,690,090	3,700,246	0,010,156
1826	3,624,799	4,082,719	0,457,920
1827	3,622,593	4,084,871	1,462,278
1828	3,682,341	3,703,807	0,021,466
			Excess of revenue above expenditure.
1829	3,961,432	3,645,779	0,315,653
1830	3,866,595	3,622,370	0,244,225

Quantities of the Articles named underneath imported into Ireland in the Years specified in the Table.

	Tea.	Tobacco.	Brandy & Geneva.	Rum.	Wine.	Sugar.	Coffee
	lbs.	lbs.	gals.	gals.	gals.	cwts.	lbs.
1787	1,680,325	1,877,579	380,696	905,862	1,467,579	259,9	12,530
1797	2,492,254	8,445,555	744	72,120	312,212	231,233	132,755
1807	3,555,129	4,531,049	16,680	251,449	1,603,278	369,598	72,274
1817	3,141,035	4,778,469	7,258	36,823	571,596	338,415	513,248
1827	3,887,955	4,041,172	11,015	27,888	929,629	319,736	585,739
1828		4,013,915	11,735	29,650	1,017,177	315,562	592,386
1829		4,124,742	12,449	25,514	955,091	328,266	559,655

No. XII.

Trade of Ireland with Great Britain.

In the Year	Inwards.		Outwards.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1801	6,816	582,003		
1805	6,875	598,720	6,306	566,790
1809	7,011	580,587	7,041	600,898
1813	9,096	773,286	8,569	718,851
1817	10,142	845,260	9,186	770,547
1821	9,924	844,997	9,440	819,648
1825	11,542	984,754	8,922	741,182
1829	13,878	1,292,041	8,922	906,158

No. XV.

Exportation of Cattle to Liverpool.

One year, to	Cattle.	Calves.	Sheep.	Pigs.	Horses.	Mules.
June, 1828.	33,164	3,875	133,567	107,066	1114	331
June, 1829.	49,674	6,786	125,197	155,319	665	329
Dec. 1829.	32,816	15,846	91,589	82,561	208	161
Total 2½ years.	115,654	26,507	350,353	344,946	1987	821

Trade of Ireland with Foreign Parts.

In the Year	Inwards.		Outwards.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1801	874	129,239		
1805	1,085	155,742	829	136,927
1809	853	115,356	696	103,212
1813	826	125,895	986	171,319
1817	748	108,752	723	116,973
1821	800	116,538	621	98,718
1825	1,116	182,660	767	136,991
1829	1,093	178,936	723	133,303

No. XVI.

Table of the Number and State of the Parishes and Benefices in Ireland.

Number of Parishes in Ireland,	2450
Number of Benefices with cure of souls,	1295
Churches,	1192
Benefices without churches,	286
Unions,	517
Glebe houses,	771
Incumbents resident,	767
----- non-resident, or absent,	60

No. XVII.

Table exhibiting the Number of Unions, the Number of Parishes in each, and their Denominations

Number of Parishes in each Union,	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	13	Total of Benefices.	Total of Parishes.
Parliamentary Unions,	2	4	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	38
Charter Unions,	5	8	4	3	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	25	98
Privy Council Unions,	46	34	19	12	7	2	4	1	4	0	1	126	440
Episcopal Unions,	119	51	29	16	5	3	3	0	2	2	0	230	704
Immemorial Unions,	49	34	18	13	5	5	0	1	1	0	0	126	421
Total,	221	131	71	44	23	11	8	2	3	2	1	517	1701

No. XVIII.

Table showing the State of the Patronage of the Irish Church.

	Parishes.
In the patronage of Bishops,	1392
the Crown,	293
Laymen,	367
the University,	21
Improprate without Churches or Incumbents,	95
Total,	2168

No. XIX.

Estimated Values of the several Dioceses of Ireland, and the Number of Acres in each, as returned to Parliament in 1831.

	£	Acres.
Armagh,	15,080	63,270
Dublin,	no return	15,048
Cashel and Emly,	3,500 and upwards.	13,372
Tuam,	5,549	49,281
Ardagh, united with Tuam, and supposed to be included in the return thereof,	no return	no return
Clogher,	9,000	27,070
Down and Connor,	no return	no return
Dromore,	4,863	no return
Derry,	10,000 and upwards.	94,836
Kilmore,	no return	47,361
Meath,	5,815	18,374
Raphoe,	5,379	no return
Ossory,	3,000	13,391
Leighlin and Ferns,	5,000	11,697
Kildare,	no return	592
Cork and Ross,	3,000	22,755
Waterford and Lismore,	5,000	8,600
Limerick, Ardfert, and Aghadoe,	2,916	6,720
Cloyne,	2,000 and upwards.	15,871
Killaloe and Kilfinora,	4,600	11,081
Elphin,	no return	31,017
Clonfert and Kilmacduagh,	no return	6,555
Killala and Achonry,	no return	32,282
		480,141

No. XX.

State of Crime during eight Years ending 1829.

	Committals.	Convictions.	Capitally sentenced.	Executed.
1822	14,894	7,272	341	101
1823	14,632	7,285	241	61
1824	15,258	7,743	295	60
1825	15,515	8,571	181	18
1826	16,318	8,716	281	34
1827	18,031	10,207	346	37
1828	14,683	9,269	211	21
1829	15,271	9,449	224	38
Total,	124,602	68,512	2,120	370

No. XXI.

Statement of the Amount of Monies deposited in the Savings' Banks of Ireland since their Establishment under the Statute, of the Sums annually drawn out, and of the Excess or Deficiency thence arising in each Year.

	Lodged.			Drawn out.			Difference.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1821	46,615	7	9	25,200	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	24,415	7	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
1822	82,338	9	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	8,030	15	4	74,357	13	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
1823	123,230	15	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	11,723	1	6	111,507	13	10 $\frac{3}{4}$
1824	175,292	6	0 $\frac{3}{4}$	17,533	9	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	157,753	16	9 $\frac{1}{4}$
1825	207,738	9	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	35,047	5	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	172,691	3	4
1826	156,249	4	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	87,085	14	2	69,163	10	2 $\frac{3}{4}$
1827	139,080	0	0	164,939	12	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	25,859	12	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
1828	254,400	0	0	134,605	11	9	119,791	8	3
1829	311,600	0	0	179,092	2	0	132,597	18	0
1830	213,020	0	0	221,769	19	9	8,749	19	9

No. XXII.

Statement of the Length, Rate of Lockage, and Cost of Execution of the several Canals in Ireland.

Name.	Length. Miles.	Rate of lockage. Feet.	Cost per mile.		Total cost £
			£	£	
Grand Canal,	100	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	18,610		1,861,008
Royal Canal,	72	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	19,749		1,421,954
Limerick Navigation,	12	7	10,296		123,560
Barrow Navigation,	34	5	7,220		255,502
Boyne Navigation,	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	7,463		115,677
Newry Navigation,	27	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	2,804		75,730
Lagan Navigation,	22	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	4,363		96,000
	282 $\frac{1}{2}$				3,949,431

No. XXIII.

Public Conveyances.

	1800.				1820.				1829.			
	Mail Coaches.	Stage Coaches.	Cara-vans.	Passengers.	Mail Coaches.	Stage Coaches.	Cara-vans.	Passengers.	Mail Coaches.	Stage Coaches.	Cara-vans.	Passengers.
Dublin,	4	8	0	151	11	20	0	389	13	22	12	612
Belfast,	1	0	0	5	4	4	2	126	4	6	4	179
Cork,	1	0	0	5	4	3	0	83	6	4	0	118
Limerick,	1	0	0	5	2	3	1	58	4	3	1	94
Derry,	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	5	3	0	0	24
	7	8	0	166	22	30	3	661	30	35	17	1027

FINANCE.

INCOME FOR THE YEARS

HEADS OF INCOME.	1828.		1829.		1830.		
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	
CUSTOM AND EXCISE.							
Spirits { Foreign	1,558,406	10 11	1,519,572	8 7	1,480,507	8 7	
{ Rum	1,392,553	7 2	1,434,782	13 1	1,599,445	6 11	
{ British	4,969,685	7 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,783,951	2 1	5,185,574	4 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Malt	4,623,113	19 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,814,305	1 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,436,272	14 2	
Beer	3,256,186	19 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,055,453	13 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,345,122	10 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Hops	260,578	18 0	242,658	0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	118,912	5 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Wine	1,500,051	6 1	1,473,607	11 4	1,524,177	18 3	
Sugar and Molasses	3,193,148	14 5	5,089,315	0 3	4,927,025	7 6	
Tea	3,448,814	2 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,321,722	2 6	3,387,097	18 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Coffee	440,244	13 10	498,951	8 1	579,363	10 7	
Tobacco and Snuff	2,793,874	11 8	2,849,706	7 8	2,924,264	13 11	
	£29,436,658	4 1 $\frac{1}{2}$		£28,084,025	11 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	£27,507,763	14 1
Butter	195,793	13 5	147,839	3 4	102,752	3 8	
Cheese	112,049	0 11	87,122	14 4	54,870	19 5	
Currants and Raisins	436,581	5 11	388,102	2 6	420,217	0 3	
Corn	193,250	12 8	898,793	13 2	790,109	17 8	
Cotton Wool and Sheep's Wool imported	395,773	5 3	317,074	10 5	482,274	11 11	
Silks	345,278	1 2	205,615	9 0	209,047	7 3	
Printed Goods	657,741	5 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	552,270	12 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	570,330	15 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Hides and Skins	474,391	6 10 $\frac{3}{4}$	452,768	15 7	255,278	3 10	
Paper	727,377	4 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	684,563	10 11 $\frac{3}{4}$	690,610	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Soap	1,212,092	7 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,152,245	11 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,251,021	12 11 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Candles and Tallow	665,758	6 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	652,971	16 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	662,944	18 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Coals, Sea borne	935,911	5 5	983,919	9 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,021,862	5 11	
Glass	616,534	14 10	670,494	12 9 $\frac{3}{4}$	567,632	18 11	
Bricks, Tiles, and Slates	392,365	10 9 $\frac{3}{4}$	398,145	14 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	383,985	5 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Timber	1,488,498	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,394,407	19 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,319,233	9 11	
Auctions	275,564	4 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	251,562	19 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	234,854	2 11	
Excise Licences	845,160	2 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	845,390	18 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	848,469	14 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Miscellaneous duties, } Customs and Excise }	2,321,050	19 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,892,668	2 4	1,971,223	8 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	
	12,291,121	7 11		11,975,957	18 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	11,836,718	18 7
Total of Customs and Excise	£41,727,779	12 0 $\frac{1}{2}$		£40,059,983	10 5	£39,344,482	12 8
STAMPS.							
Deeds and other Instruments	1,686,315	9 8 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,663,145	14 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,621,427	1 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Probates and Legacies	2,043,268	4 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,035,719	0 4	2,084,432	15 3	
Insurance { Marine	243,359	0 9	226,897	6 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	219,565	6 1	
{ Fire	745,710	15 1 $\frac{1}{4}$	764,939	0 11 $\frac{1}{4}$	760,931	3 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Bills of Exchange, Bankers' Notes, &c.	603,237	12 2	593,485	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	568,564	1 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Newspapers and Advertisements	581,526	18 5	433,385	5 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	613,848	2 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Stage Coaches	407,529	10 10 $\frac{3}{4}$	426,472	1 3	418,598	5 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Post-Horses	238,858	0 4	252,772	2 8	220,357	12 10	
Receipts	236,531	6 6	225,996	2 6	223,660	6 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Other Stamp Duties	531,272	9 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	663,164	5 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	516,716	18 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	
	£7,317,609	7 11 $\frac{1}{2}$		£7,285,976	1 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7,248,083	14 6
ASSESSED AND LAND TAXES.							
Land Taxes	1,210,227	17 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,200,159	10 11 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,184,790	12 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Houses	1,295,550	12 10	1,324,327	18 9 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,361,625	0 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Windows	1,164,010	13 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,163,760	17 8	1,185,283	7 10 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Servants	277,759	5 4 $\frac{1}{4}$	286,552	7 0	295,087	5 6	
Horses	400,676	9 3	405,678	1 9	425,125	17 0	
Carriages	352,478	16 9	374,677	14 0	397,613	10 0	
Dogs	182,944	17 11 $\frac{3}{4}$	183,060	8 4	186,102	2 0	
Other Assessed Taxes	279,224	16 0	268,175	2 9	259,242	11 7	
				5,206,392	1 8	5,294,870	6 10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Post Office	2,207,998	11 5		2,184,667	2 4	2,212,206	5 6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Crown Lands	448,792	17 7		465,481	4 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	363,742	0 4
Other ordinary Revenues and Resources	620,542	3 11		622,302	0 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	376,805	0 6
Grand Total	£57,485,596	2 7 $\frac{1}{2}$		£55,824,802	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	£54,840,190	0 4 $\frac{3}{4}$

FINANCE (Continued.) — EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEARS

HEADS OF EXPENDITURE.		1828.		1829.		1830.	
		£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
FORCES.							
Army.	Effective. {	(89,047)		(85,721)		(84,172)	
	Charge . . .	5,146,463	8 3½	4,829,282	12 4½	4,492,687	5 7½
	Non- {	(96,916)		(96,595)		(96,081)	
	Effective. {	2,903,476	0 0	2,939,896	0 0	2,930,606	9 6
	Charge . . .						
	Total Army	8,049,939	8 3½	7,769,128	12 4½	7,432,294	15 1½
Ordnance.							
Ordnance.	Effective. {	(8906)		(8,879)		(8,878)	
	Charge . . .	1,223,770	0 0	1,363,282	0 0	1,332,354	0 0
	Non- {	(12,439)		(12,494)		(12,364)	
	Effective. {	372,380	0 0	365,626	0 0	357,090	0 0
	Charge . . .						
	Total Ordnance	1,596,150	0 0	1,728,908	0 0	1,689,444	0 0
Navy.							
Navy.	Effective. {	(31,818)		(32,458)		(31,444)	
	Charge . . .	4,000,135	7 7	4,299,645	11 11	4,067,308	7 8½
	Non- {	(31,136)		(30,467)		(29,922)	
	Effective. {	1,596,830	0 0	1,579,149	0 0	1,531,646	17 11½
	Charge . . .						
	Total Navy	5,995,965	7 7	5,878,794	11 11	5,594,955	5 8
	Total Forces	15,642,054	15 10½	15,376,881	4 3½	14,716,694	0 9½
Bounties for promoting Fisheries, Linen Manufactures, &c. paid out of the Gross Revenue							
		276,226	8 6	236,898	3 0¾	207,966	10 1¼
Public Works							
		727,615	0 10	606,396	8 4	474,242	0 1
Payment out of the Revenue of Crown Lands for Improvements and various public services							
		421,838	17 6	427,015	2 5½	252,601	5 7¼
Post-Office, Charge of Collection and other Payments							
		681,368	7 2½	696,801	16 11¼	718,359	8 6½
Quarantine and Warehousing Establishments							
		159,709	4 9½	191,852	18 2½	214,037	14 6¾
Spanish Claims as granted by Parliament							
				200,000	0 0		
Miscellaneous Services not classed under the foregoing Heads, consisting of grants of Parliament, Payments of the Consolidated Fund, out of the Civil List of England, Scotland, and Ireland							
		1,485,840	12 8¾	1,336,287	16 7	1,988,530	7 8¼
Grand Total		54,836,901	10 9¼	54,348,875	9 8½	53,011,533	3 5¼

AN ACCOUNT OF THE TOTAL AMOUNT OF THE NATIONAL DEBT IN EACH YEAR, FROM THE 1st FEBRUARY, 1786, TO THE 5th JANUARY, 1818; STATING THE AMOUNT OF DEBT CONTRACTED, THE AMOUNT OF DEBT REDEEMED, AND ALSO THE TOTAL AMOUNT OF UNREDEEMED DEBT IN EACH OF THOSE YEARS. ORDERED TO BE PRINTED, 27th APRIL, 1818.

		GREAT BRITAIN.				IRELAND, FUNDED IN GREAT BRITAIN.			
		Co. 1.	Co. 2.	Co. 3.	Co. 4.	Co. 5.	Co. 6.	Co. 7.	Co. 8.
		Total Amount of Debt.	Debt contracted in each Year.	Debt redeemed in each Year, including 5 per cents. 1797 paid off.	Total unredeemed Debt.	Total Amount of Debt.	Debt contracted in each Year.	Debt redeemed in each Year.	Total unredeemed Debt.
		£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Amount at 1st August.	1786	238,231,248			238,231,248				
Between the 1st of Aug. and 1st of Feb.	1787	238,231,248		662,750	237,568,498				
	1788	238,231,248		1,456,900	236,774,348				
	1789	238,231,248		1,506,350	234,727,898				
	1790	238,231,248		1,558,850	233,169,048				
	1791	238,231,248		1,587,500	231,581,548				
	1792	238,231,248		1,507,100	229,974,448				
	1793	238,231,248		1,962,650	227,981,798				
	1794	244,481,248	6,250,000	2,174,405	232,064,743				
	1795	260,157,773	15,676,525	2,804,945	244,936,323				
	1796	311,863,471	51,705,698	3,083,455	293,558,566				
	1797	368,809,040	56,945,569	4,390,670	346,113,465				
	1798	394,159,040	25,350,000	6,635,585	361,707,880	2,925,000	2,925,000	15,404	2,909,596
	1799	429,783,290	35,624,250	7,779,807	392,619,323	6,925,000	4,000,000	96,530	6,813,066
	1800	451,658,290	29,045,000	20,211,571	394,275,752	12,175,000	5,250,000	130,165	11,932,881
	1801	480,763,290	29,954,313	10,251,776	413,038,977	15,315,000	3,140,000	233,360	14,839,521
	1802	536,657,603	55,954,313	9,925,739	459,007,551	19,708,750	4,393,750	310,928	18,992,343
	1803	507,008,978	30,351,375	8,846,450	450,572,476	22,348,000	2,639,250	337,008	21,924,585
	1804	583,008,978	16,000,000	12,409,854	484,162,622	25,548,000	3,200,000	472,256	23,552,329
	1805	603,925,792	20,916,814	11,951,711	493,127,726	33,738,000	8,190,000	579,428	31,562,901
	1806	640,752,103	36,826,311	12,673,475	517,250,561	38,398,000	4,600,000	738,849	35,484,052
	1807	670,632,103	29,880,000	14,055,017	533,075,543	41,718,000	3,320,000	807,393	37,996,650
	1808	689,005,303	18,373,200	14,672,717	536,776,026	47,139,625	5,421,625	907,585	42,510,699
	1809	702,698,556	13,693,353	14,728,227	535,741,052	50,094,000	2,954,375	951,463	44,513,611
	1810	723,975,678	21,278,122	15,061,321	541,957,854	53,694,000	3,600,000	1,013,577	47,100,034
	1811	743,787,785	19,811,167	16,106,263	545,682,698	61,274,250	7,580,250	1,135,716	53,544,568
	1812	773,032,496	a 29,244,711	18,622,500	556,244,819	68,330,000	7,656,000	1,356,276	52,188,292
	1813	813,775,927	40,743,031	21,816,457	575,211,392	79,130,250	10,200,000	1,367,541	58,276,751
	1814	907,495,950	93,720,423	24,763,646	644,108,165	86,472,750	7,342,500	1,798,434	66,678,317
	1815	932,281,880	24,705,930	19,739,863	649,074,235	103,032,750	16,560,000	1,812,192	72,908,695
	1816	1,003,090,282	70,888,402	20,647,122	699,315,316	103,032,750	16,560,000	2,316,690	86,432,005
	1817	1,006,090,282	3,000,000	19,546,201	682,769,314	103,032,750	16,560,000	2,316,690	86,432,005
	1818	1,109,123,032		18,512,227	748,201,991			2,316,690	83,944,904

In this and the following years, the Debt is shown after deducting the 5 per cents. 1797, paid off in each year

Includes Loan 1811, raised for Ireland, chargeable on Great Britain.

Great Britain and Ireland, consolidated by 65 Geo. 3. c. 98. } 5th Jan. 1818

a The above Debt of Ireland is exclusive of £1,900,000 Irish 5 per cents. payable in England.

b By 57th Geo. III. c. 45, the Sinking Fund Accounts terminate on the 5th January in each year, instead of the 1st February as heretofore.

Note.—The above Sums in Columns 1, 2, and 3, after the year 1806, differ from the return made from this Office on the 13th February last, in consequence of the 5 per cents. 1797, paid off, being included in this Account.

National Debt Office, } S. HUGHAM. }
17th April, 1818.

The Sums in Columns 3 and 7 have been redeemed, and transferred as follows:

By the Sinking Fund	325,274,369
Land Tax	25,389,233
Life Annuities purchased	4,323,385
Stock, the Dividends due upon which have remained unclaimed 10 years and upwards	222,037
Purchased with unclaimed Dividends	348,600
	358,557,624
5 per cents. 1797 paid off	2,363,417
	360,921,041

The Sums in Columns 3 and 7 amount to £360,921,040. The difference arises from the fractional parts of a pound being omitted.

Total Debt of the United Kingdom, Jan. 5, 1838, . . . £785,530,326
 Annual Charge thereof, 30,230,037

Amount of the National Debt, March, 1834.

Funded Debt, £751,658,883
 Unfunded Debt, 27,906,900
 Total, 779,565,783
 Charges on Funded Debt, 27,782,116
 " Unfunded Debt, 779,769
 Total Charges, 28,561,885
 Decrease in the Debt from 1815 to 1834, £64,653,057

Table of the Reformed Parliament, as compared with the former Parliament.

I.—Comparative Numbers.

ENGLAND.		ENGLAND.	
Former.		Reformed.	
Counties, 82	members.	Counties, 144	members.
Cities, 50	"	Cities and	"
Boroughs and	} 353	Boroughs,	} 323
Cinque Ports,			
Universities, 4	"	Universities, 4	"
Total, 489	"	Total, 471	"

WALES.

Counties, 12	members.	Counties, 15	members.
Cities and	} 12	Borough Dis-	} 14
Boroughs,			
Total, 24	"	Total, 29	"

SCOTLAND.

Shires, 30	members.	Shires, 28	members.
Burghs, 15	"	Burghs, 22	"
Total, 45	"	Total, 50	"

IRELAND.

Counties, 64	members.	Counties, 64	members.
Cities and	} 35	Cities and	} 39
Boroughs,			
University, 1	"	University, 2	"
Total, 100	"	Total, 105	"
Total Parliament, 658	"	Total Parliament, 655	"

II.—Distribution of Members.

House of Commons, as heretofore constituted.

ENGLAND.

39 Counties, 2 each, and Yorkshire, 4, sent 82
 23 Cities, 2 each, and London, 4, " 50
 166 Boroughs, 2 each; 5 Boroughs, 1 each; 8 Cinque- } " 353
 ports, 16, }
 2 Universities, Oxford and Cambridge, " 4
 ——— 489

WALES.

12 Counties, " 12
 12 Cities and Boroughs, " 12
 ——— 24

SCOTLAND.

Shires, " 30
 Cities and Boroughs, " 15
 ——— 45

IRELAND.

Counties, " 64
 Cities and Boroughs, " 35
 University of Dublin, " 1
 ——— 100
 Total Number of Members, 658

Reformed House of Commons.

ENGLAND.

26 Counties, 4 each, 7, 3 each; 6, 2 each; Yorkshire, 6; } 144
 Isle of Wight, 1, }
 133 Cities and Boroughs, 2 each, 266
 53 Boroughs, 1 each, 53
 City of London, 4
 Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, 2 each, 4
 ——— 471

WALES.

3 Counties, 2 each; and 9 Counties, 1 each, 15
 14 Districts of Boroughs, 1 each, 14
 ——— 29

SCOTLAND.

33 Counties, 28
 Edinburgh and Glasgow, 2 each, 4
 18 Boroughs and Districts of Boroughs, 1 each, 18
 ——— 50

IRELAND.

32 Counties, 2 each, 64
 6 Cities, 2 each; 27 Boroughs, 1 each, 39
 The University of Dublin, 2, 2
 ——— 105
 Total, 655

III.—Disfranchisements and Enfranchisements.

ENGLAND.

Disfranchised, 55 Boroughs, 2 each, 110 members.
 " 1 Borough, 1, 1 member.
 56 111

Reductions, 30 Boroughs, 2 each, reduced to 1 each, 30 members.
 2 " 2 each, united, now send- } 2 "
 ing only 2, }
 ——— 32 "
 Total reduction, 143 "

Additions, 22 New Boroughs and Borough Dis- } 44 "
 tricts, 2 each, }
 19 New Boroughs and Borough Dis- } 19 "
 tricts, 1 each, }
 New County Members, 64 "
 Total additions, 127 "
 Excess of reductions, 16 "

WALES.

New County Members, 3
 New Borough " 2
 Additions, 5

SCOTLAND.

Reduction of County Members, 2
 Addition of Borough Members, 7
 Total addition, 5

IRELAND.

New City and Borough Members, 4
 New University Member, 1
 Additions, 5

Comparative Population of Towns and Country.

About half the population of Great Britain is contained in the towns, and the other half inhabit the country. On this subject the following results have been given by *Dr. Colquhoun*, in his "Treatise on the wealth and power of Great Britain:" viz.

	Counties.	Towns.	Houses.	Inhabitants.
In England,	40	861	746,308	4,221,814
Wales,	12	78	29,416	143,467
Scotland,	32	244	139,670	907,431
	84	1183	915,394	5,272,712

	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Total Houses.	Total Inhabitants.
In the Country—England,	979,723	5,317,013	1,726,031	9,538,827
Wales,	93,077	468,321	122,493	611,788
Scotland,	175,752	898,257	315,422	1,805,688
	1,248,552	6,683,591	2,163,946	11,956,303

"Thus it appears, that in England the inhabitants of the Country only exceed those in the Towns to the extent of 95,199 persons, less than one eleventh part; whereas in Wales, the difference is much greater, being more than double on the whole population; while in Scotland the population in the Country and in the Towns is nearly equal. During the 10 years between 1801 and 1811, the increase of population of Great Britain, in the Country and in the Towns, stands thus:—

The Inhabitants of the Country have increased	787,612
The Inhabitants of the Towns have increased	696,643
Total	1,484,255
The Houses have increased, in the Country,	127,661
in the Towns,	98,796
Total,	226,457

Which shows that there is a greater tendency to populate the Towns than the Country. It is probable many of the buildings erected for the accommodation of the rural population, are barns, stables, and other out-houses for agricultural purposes; whereas those erected in towns, are generally for the dwellings of the inhabitants; and it should seem probable that a greater proportion of the population of Great Britain

live in towns than in any other country, Holland, perhaps, excepted, and yet it appears that the general mortality has been progressively diminishing."

Classes of Inhabitants in 1812.

The same author also distributes the population of Great Britain and Ireland into the following classes, with the number of families, of individuals, and the income of each, in 1812, as follows:—

	Families.	Persons, including domestics.	Income of each class.
Royalty,	12	300	£501,000
Nobility,	564	13,620	5,400,480
Gentry,	46,861	402,915	53,022,110
State and Revenue,	21,500	114,500	8,830,000
Army,	75,000	490,000	14,000,000
Navy,	53,000	345,000	9,299,680
Half-pay, &c.	2,500	14,500	856,600
Pensioners,		92,000	1,050,000
Clergy,	19,000	96,500	4,580,000
Law,	19,000	95,000	7,600,000
Physic,	18,000	90,000	5,400,000
Fine Arts,	5,000	25,000	1,400,000
Agriculture, Mines, &c.	1,302,151	6,129,142	107,246,795
Foreign Com., Shipping, Manufae., and Trade, including Fisheries,	1,506,774	7,071,989	183,908,352
Universities and Schools for the education of youth,	35,874	213,496	7,664,400
Miscellaneous,	9,445	354,441	9,890,955
Paupers,	387,100	1,548,400	9,871,000
Total,	3,501,781	17,096,803	£430,521,372

AGGREGATE.

	Families.	Persons.	Income
Agriculture, Mines, &c.	1,302,151	6,129,142	107,246,795
Inland Trade,	970,224	4,599,139	98,629,352
Manufactures,	464,500	2,066,500	57,223,000
Foreign Commerce and Shipping,	72,050	406,350	28,056,000
King's Military and Marine, including Pensioners,	130,500	941,500	25,206,280
Miscellaneous,	562,356	2,954,172	114,159,945
Total,	3,501,781	17,096,803	£430,521,372

TABLES

OF

MATHEMATICAL GEOGRAPHY.

I.

COMPARISON OF FRENCH AND ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Units which form the Bases of the New French System compared with the Weights and Measures of England.

	<i>English.</i>	
The Metre	=	3,280,916.7 feet, or 39,371 inches.
Are	=	1076,441 square feet.
Litre	=	61,028 cubic inches.
Stere	=	35,317 cubic feet.
Gramme	=	15,444 grains troy.
Gramme also	=	5,6481 drams avoirdupois.

New Weights and Measures of France compared with the Old and also with English Weights and Measures.

	<i>Linear Measure.</i>	
	French Feet.	English Feet.
Distance from the Equator to the Pole	} 30784440	} 32809167
Degree (centesimal)		
Myriametre	30784,44	32809,167
Kilometre	3078,444	3280,9167
Hectometre	307,8444	328,09167
Decametre	30,78444	32,809167
METRE	3,078444	3,2809167
	Lines French.	Lines English.
Decimetre	44,3296	47,2452
Centimetre	4,43296	4,72452
Millimetre	0,443296	0,472452

Square or Superficial Measure.

	French Square Feet.	English Square Feet.
Miriare	9476817,46113	10764414,3923
Kilare	947681,746113	1076441,43923
Hectare	94768,1746113	107644,143923
Decare	9476,81746113	10764,4143923
ARE	947,681746113	1076,44143923
Deciare	94,7681746113	107,644143923
Centiare	9,47681746113	10,7644143923
	Square Inches.	Square Inches.
Square Decimetre	13,646617	15,500756
	Square Lines.	Square Lines.
Square Centimetre	19,651134	22,321088
Square Millimetre	0,19651134	0,2232108

Measures of Capacity.

	French cubic feet.	English cubic feet.
Myrialitre	291,738519	353,1714693
Kilolitre	} 29,1738519	} 35,31714693
Cubic metre		
Hectolitre	2,91738519	3,531714693
	Cubic inches.	Cubic inches.
Decalitre	504,124160	610,280264
LITRE or Cubic Decimetre	50,4124160	61,0280264
Decilitre	5,04124160	6,10280264
	Cubic lines.	Cubic lines.
Centilitre	871,126926	1054,564296

The Litre, which is the unit for measures of capacity = 2,113 English pints, wine measure; and therefore the Hectolitre equals 26,4 such gallons—35 litres = a Winchester bushel.

Solid or Cubic Measures.

	French cubic feet.	English cubic feet.
Decastere	291,738519	353,1700
STERE (cubic metre)	29,1738519	35,3170
Decistere	2,91738519	3,5317

This measure is used for fire-wood, stone, &c. The stere is the same as the kilometre in the preceding measure.

Weights.

	Poids de Marc. livres. on. gros. grains.	English Troy weight. lb. oz. dr. gr.
Bar or cubic metre of water	2042 14 0 14	2681 3 6 2,
Myriagramme	20 6 6 63,5	26 9 15 1,46
Kilogramme	2 0 5 35,15	2 8 3 12,146
Hectogramme	- 3 2 10,715	3 4 8,414
Decagramme	- 2 44,2715	6 10,441
GRAMME	- - 18,82715	15,4441
Decigramme	- - 1,882715	1,54441
Centigramme	- - 0,1882715	0,15444

French New Measure of Time compared with the Old or Usual System.

	New division.	Old value. h. m. s.
100 seconds, 1 minute	second	0 0 0.864
100 minutes, 1 hour	-	2 24 0.
10 hours, 1 day	-	24 0 0.

Reversed.

	Old or usual division.	New value. h. m. s.
1 second	second	0 0 1.1574
60 seconds, 1 minute	-	0 69 54.4
60 minutes, 1 hour	-	1 15 74.
24 hours, 1 day	-	10 0 0.

French New Measure of the Circle compared with the Old or Common System.

	New division.	Old value.
100 seconds, 1 minute of space,	second	0° 0' 32 ⁷ / ₅
100 minutes, 1 degree,	-	0 54 0
100 degrees, 1 quadrant,	-	90 0 0
400 degrees, 1 circle,	-	360 0 0

Reversed.

	Old division.	New value.
60 tierces, 1 second,	second	0° 0' 3 ⁷ / ₁₁
60 seconds, 1 minute of space,	-	0 1 85 ⁵ / ₇
60 minutes, 1 degree,	-	1 11 11 ¹ / ₉
90 degrees, 1 quadrant,	-	100 0 0
4 quadrants, or 360°, 1 circle,	-	400 0 0

Old Weights and Measures of France.

LONG MEASURE.—The toise or fathom of France is equal to six feet French, the foot to 12 inches French, and the inch to 12 lines, each subdivided into 12 points;

76 French feet are nearly equal to 81 English feet; or, more accurately, 40,000 French feet, inches, or lines, equal 42,638 English feet, inches, or lines. Thus 1 French foot equals 1.06597 English, or 12.78934 English inches; and hence one English foot equals 11.26 French inches. The Paris aune was $46\frac{1}{25}$ English inches.

In the old French road measure, the lieue, or league, is two French miles, each mile 1000 toises; hence the French league equals two English miles, three furlongs, and 15 poles.

The French league, however, in different parts of France, has been applied to different distances. The marine league, (20 to a degree,) equals 2853 toises, or 6081 English yards; and the astronomical league, (25 to a degree,) equals $2282\frac{2}{3}$ French toises, or 1865 English yards.

The arpent, or acre of land, contained in general 100 square perches; but the perch varied in different provinces.

The old French weight for gold and silver (called poids de marc,) makes the pound or livre contain 2 marcs, 16 onces, 128 gros, 384 deniers, or 9216 grains.

The French marc = 3780 grains Troy weight.

For commercial weight, the poids de marc was likewise used, and the quintal of 100 livres = 108 lb. avoirdupois, very nearly.

Weights and measures, however, varied considerably in the different provinces.

Corn measure was the muid of 12 setiers, 24 mines, 48 minots, or 144 bushels.

Wine measure was the muid of 36 setiers, 144 quartes, or 288 pints.

II.

Synoptical Table of the Planetary System.^a

Diameters and bulk; those of the Earth considered as unity.

	Diameter.	Bulk or Volume.
The Sun	111.45	1,384,462.
Mercury	0.4012	0.06456
Venus	0.9693	0.8902
The Earth	1.	1.
The Moon	0.2731	0.02036
Mars	0.5199	0.1406
Vesta	0.4	- - -
Juno	0.1	- - -
Ceres	0.3076	0.02913
Pallas	0.154	0.00365
Jupiter	10.862	1.281.00000
Saturn	9.983	995.00000
Uranus ^b	4.332	80.49

	Rotation, or Sidereal Day.			Flattening at the Poles.	
	Hours.	Min.	Sec.		
Mercury	24	5	28	-	-
Venus	23	21	0	-	-
The Earth	23	56	4	-	$\frac{1}{334}$
Mars	24	39	21	-	$\frac{1}{16}$
Jupiter	9	56	0	-	$\frac{1}{14}$
Saturn	Herschel	10	16	0	20.91 : 22.81
	Calandillo	11	39	0	13.3 : 16.1

^a Laplace, *Système du Monde*. Biot, *Astronomie Physique*.

^b Herschel.

^c The eccentricity of Pallas proves, that, notwithstanding the identity almost of its mean distance with that of Ceres, the orbits of

Revolutions Tropical.

Sidereal.

	Yrs.	Days.	Hrs.	Min.	Sec.	Days.	Hrs.	Min.	Sec.
Mercury	0	87	23	14	32.7	87	23	15	43.6
Venus	0	224	16	41	27.5	224	16	49	10.6
The Earth	1	0	5	48	48	365	6	9	8
Mars	1	321	22	18	27.4	686	23	30	35.6
Vesta	3	240	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Juno	4	130	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ceres	4	221	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pallas	4	241	17	-	-	-	-	-	-
Jupiter	11	315	14	39	2	4,332	14	27	10.8
Saturn	29	161	19	16	15.5	10,759	1	51	11.2
Uranus	83	294	8	39	-	30,689	-	29	-

Half the greater Axis of the Orbits of the Planets; or their mean distances from the Sun, in Myriametres, each containing 32809 English feet.

	Myriametres.
Mercury,	5917938
Venus,	11058215
The Earth,	15287873
Mars,	23294021
Vesta,	36278123
Juno,	40619979
Ceres,	42282000
Pallas, ^c	42666000
Jupiter,	79511907
Saturn,	145836700
Uranus,	291720130

The relative proportion of the eccentricity to the half of the greater axis.

Mercury,	0.205523
Venus,	0.006885
The Earth,	0.016814
Mars,	0.093088
Ceres,	0.082501
Pallas,	0.2463
Jupiter,	0.048077
Saturn,	0.056223
Uranus,	0.046683

Inclination of the Orbit to the Ecliptic.

Mercury,	6° 35' 30"
Venus,	3 23 10
The Earth,	0 0 0
Mars,	1 50 47
Ceres,	10 36 57
Pallas,	34 50 40
Jupiter,	1 19 38
Saturn,	2 30 40
Uranus	0 46 12

these two planets are very distant from each other at their aphelion and perihelion. Between these points, the orbits intersect each other Pallas sometimes approaches Jupiter and sometimes Mars.

III.
Table of Climates.

Climates of Half an Hour. Their Number.	Longest Day.		Latitude.		Extent of Climates.	
	Hours.	Min.	Degrees.	Min.	Degrees.	Min.
0	12	0	0	0	0	0
1	12	30	8	34	8	34
2	13	0	16	43	8	9
3	13	30	24	10	7	27
4	14	0	30	46	6	46
5	14	30	36	23	5	42
6	15	0	41	21	4	53
7	15	30	45	29	4	8
8	16	0	48	59	3	30
9	16	30	51	57	2	58
10	17	0	54	28	2	31
11	17	30	56	36	2	8
12	18	0	58	25	1	49
13	18	30	59	57	1	32
14	19	0	61	16	1	19
15	19	30	62	24	1	8
16	20	0	63	20	0	56
17	20	30	64	8	0	48
18	21	0	64	48	0	40
19	21	30	65	20	0	32
20	22	0	65	46	0	26
21	22	30	66	6	0	20
22	23	0	66	20	0	14
23	23	30	66	23	0	8
24	24	0	66	32	0	4

Climates of Months. Their Number.	Longest Day. Months.	Latitude.		Extent of Climates	
		Degrees.	Min.	Degrees.	Min.
1	1	67	23	0	51
2	2	69	10	2	27
3	3	73	39	3	49
4	4	78	31	4	52
5	5	84	5	5	34
6	6	90	0	5	55

N. B.—We do not in these Tables take any notice of the effects of the refraction, which increases the duration of the day, particularly towards the poles. Under the pole itself the refraction alone, independent of the twilight, increases the day, which is six months, 67 hours long.

IV.

Table of the Decrease of the Degrees of Longitude, according to the ancient or nonagesimal graduation, the Earth being supposed to be spherical.

Latitudes.	Degree of Longitude.		Latitudes.	Degree of Longitude.		Latitudes.	Degree of Longitude.	
	In toises of 6 ft. Fr.	In nautical miles.		In toises of 6 ft. Fr.	In nautical miles.		In toises of 6 ft. Fr.	In nautical miles.
0	57050	60.00	31	48901	51.43	61	27659	29.09
1	57041	59.99	32	48381	50.88	62	26784	28.17
2	57015	59.96	33	47846	50.32	63	25904	27.24
3	56972	59.92	34	47298	49.74	64	25010	26.30
4	56911	59.85	35	46732	49.15	65	24110	25.36
5	56833	59.77	36	46154	48.54	66	23204	24.41
6	56738	59.67	37	45562	47.92	67	22291	23.44
7	56625	59.56	38	44956	47.28	68	21371	22.48
8	56495	59.42	39	44337	46.63	69	20445	21.50
9	56347	59.26	40	43703	45.96	70	19512	20.52
10	56183	59.09						
11	56002	58.89	41	43056	45.28	71	18573	19.53
12	55803	58.69	42	42397	44.59	72	17629	18.54
13	55587	58.46	43	41725	43.83	73	16679	17.54
14	55355	58.22	44	41038	43.16	74	15724	16.54
15	55106	57.95	45	40340	42.43	75	14764	15.53
16	54840	57.67	46	39630	41.68	76	13801	14.51
17	54557	57.38	47	38908	40.92	77	12833	13.50
18	54257	57.06	48	38174	40.15	78	11862	12.48
19	53941	56.73	49	37429	39.36	79	10885	11.45
20	53609	56.38	50	36671	38.57	80	9907	10.42
21	53260	56.01	51	35902	37.76	81	8924	9.38
22	52895	55.63	52	35123	36.94	82	7941	8.35
23	52514	55.23	53	34333	36.11	83	6953	7.32
24	52117	54.81	54	33532	35.27	84	5963	6.28
25	51705	54.38	55	32722	34.41	85	4972	5.23
26	51276	53.93	56	31902	33.55	86	3980	4.18
27	50832	53.46	57	31076	32.68	87	2986	3.14
28	50372	52.97	58	30231	31.79	88	1991	2.09
29	49897	52.47	59	29384	30.90	89	996	1.05
30	49406	51.96	60	28525	30.00	90	0	0.00

V.

Table of the Decrease of the Degrees of Longitude, according to the New or Centesimal Graduation, the Earth being considered as Spherical.

Latitude. Deg.	Degree of Longitude. Kilometres.	Latitude. Deg.	Degree of Longitude. Kilometres.	Latitude. Deg.	Degree of Longitude. Kilometres.
1	99,988	35	85,264	69	46,793
2	99,951	36	84,433	70	45,339
3	99,889	37	83,581		
4	99,803	38	82,708	71	43,994
5	99,692	39	81,815	72	42,578
6	99,556	40	80,902	73	41,151
7	99,396			74	39,115
8	99,211	41	79,968	75	38,268
9	99,002	42	79,015	76	36,812
10	98,769	43	78,043	77	35,347
		44	77,051	78	33,874
11	98,511	45	76,040	79	32,392
12	98,220	46	75,011	80	30,902
13	97,922	47	73,963		
14	97,592	48	72,897	81	29,404
15	97,237	49	71,813	82	27,899
16	96,858	50	70,711	83	26,387
17	96,456			84	24,869
18	96,029	51	69,591	85	23,344
19	95,579	52	68,455	86	21,814
20	95,106	53	67,301	87	20,279
		54	66,131	88	18,738
21	94,608	55	64,945	89	17,193
22	94,088	56	63,742	90	15,643
23	93,544	57	62,524		
24	92,978	58	61,291	91	14,090
25	92,388	59	60,042	92	12,533
26	91,775	60	58,778	93	10,973
27	91,140			94	9,411
28	90,483	61	57,500	95	7,846
29	89,803	62	56,208	96	6,279
30	89,101	63	54,902	97	4,711
		64	53,583	98	3,141
31	88,377	65	52,250	99	1,571
32	87,631	66	50,904	100	0,000
33	86,863	67	49,546		

VI.

Table of the Decrease of the Degrees of Longitude, according to the New or Centesimal Graduation, the Earth being supposed to be a Spheroid, flattened $\frac{1}{315}$.

Latitude. Deg.	Degree of Longitude. Metres.	Latitude. Deg.	Degree of Longitude. Metres.	Latitude. Deg.	Degree of Longitude. Metres.
1	100137.1	35	85461.0	69	46972.4
2	100100.3	36	84631.4	70	45574.8
3	100038.9	37	83780.9		
4	99953.0	38	82909.7	71	44165.9
5	99842.5	39	82018.1	72	42746.0
6	99707.6	40	81106.2	73	41315.3
7	99548.2			74	39874.4
8	99364.3	41	80174.1	75	38423.4
9	99156.2	42	79222.3	76	36962.8
10	98923.6	43	78250.9	77	35493.0
		44	77260.1	78	34014.2
11	98666.8	45	76250.1	79	32527.0
12	98385.8	46	75221.3	80	31031.6
13	98080.6	47	74173.8		
14	97751.3	48	73108.0	81	29528.5
15	97398.1	49	72024.0	82	28017.9
16	97020.9	50	70922.1	83	26500.3
17	96616.9			84	24976.1
18	96195.1	51	69802.6	85	23445.6
19	95746.8	52	68665.8	86	21909.2
20	95274.9	53	67512.0	87	20367.3
		54	66341.3	88	18820.3
21	94779.6	55	65154.2	89	17268.6
22	94260.9	56	63950.9	90	15712.6
23	93719.1	57	62731.7		
24	93154.2	58	61496.8	91	14152.6
25	92566.4	59	60246.7	92	12589.0
26	91955.8	60	58981.5	93	11022.3
27	91322.6			94	9452.9
28	90666.4	61	57701.6	95	7881.0
29	89988.9	62	56407.4	96	6307.2
30	89288.6	63	55099.1	97	4731.8
		64	53777.1	98	3155.7
31	88566.4	65	52441.7	99	1577.8
32	87822.4	66	51093.1	100	0.0
33	87056.7	67	49731.8		

VII.

Of the Increase of the Degrees of Latitude, according to the New or Centesimal Scale, the Earth being supposed to be a spheroid, flattened $\frac{1}{315}$.

Lati-tude.	Degree of Lati-tude.	Lati-tude.	Degree of Lati-tude.	Lati-tude.	Degree of Lati-tude.
Deg.	Metres.	Deg.	Metres.	Deg.	Metres.
0	99552.5	34	99789.7	68	100245.9
1	99552.9	35	99802.2	69	100257.5
2	99553.8	36	99814.9	70	100269.0
3	99555.1	37	99827.8		
4	99556.9	38	99840.9	71	100280.2
5	99559.0	39	99854.1	72	100291.1
6	99561.8	40	99867.5	73	100301.7
7	99564.7			74	100312.0
8	99568.2	41	99881.0	75	100322.0
9	99572.1	42	99894.6	76	100331.7
10	99576.4	43	99908.3	77	100341.1
		44	99922.1	78	100350.1
11	99581.2	45	99936.0	79	100358.8
12	99586.3	46	99950.0	80	100367.2
13	99591.8	47	99964.0		
14	99597.8	48	99978.0	81	100375.1
15	99604.2	49	99992.1	82	100382.7
16	99610.9	50	100006.2	83	100389.9
17	99618.0			84	100396.8
18	99625.4	51	100020.3	85	100403.2
19	99633.4	52	100034.4	86	100409.3
20	99641.6	53	100048.4	87	100414.9
		54	100062.4	88	100420.1
21	99650.2	55	100076.3	89	100424.9
22	99659.1	56	100090.2	90	100429.3
23	99668.4	57	100103.9		
24	99678.5	58	100117.6	91	100433.2
25	99687.9	59	100131.2	92	100436.8
26	99698.1	60	100144.6	93	100439.9
27	99708.6			94	100442.5
28	99719.4	61	100157.9	95	100444.7
29	99730.5	62	100171.0	96	100446.5
30	99741.9	63	100184.0	97	100447.8
		64	100196.8	98	100448.7
31	99753.5	65	100209.4	99	100449.2
32	99765.3	66	100221.7	100	
33	99777.4	67	100233.9		

VIII.

Comparative View of Linear Measures, called (or equivalent to) Feet.^a

States and Towns.	Measures.	Lines.	Deci-metres.
Amsterdam	Voet	125.5	2.83
Augsbourg	Stadt, or Werk-Schu	131.3	2.97
Bâle	Stadt, or Feldt-Schu	132.2	2.98
Batavia	Voet	139.12	3.14
Berlin	Fuss { of Berlin	137.3	3.10
	{ of the Rhine	139.12	3.14
Brabant	Fuss	126.6	2.86
Cadix	Pie	125.3	2.83
China	Foot of the Merchants	150	3.38
	Mathematical foot	147.7	3.33
	Chè or Carpenter's foot	143.1	3.23
	Land-surveyor's foot	141.7	3.19
Copenhagen	Fod	139.12	3.14
Cracovia	Fuss	158	3.56
Dantzick	Fuss	127.2	2.86
Dauphiné	Pied	151.1	3.41
Dijon	Pied	139.2	3.15
Dresden	Fuss	125.5	2.83
France	Pied de Roi	144	3.25
	Decimetre	44.33	1
Frankfort on the Main	Fuss	127	2.86
Franché Comté	Pied	158.3	3.57
Genoa	Palmo	111.3	2.51
Hamburgh	Fuss { of Hamburgh	127	2.86
	{ of the Rhine	139.12	3.14
Leipzig	Fuss	125.3	2.83
Lisbon	Palmo	96.9	2.18
London	Foot	135	3.05
Lorraine	Pied	129.2	2.92
Lubbeck	Fuss	129	2.91
	Codo	127.9	2.83
	Pies	125.3	2.83
Madrid	Palmo { great	93.97	2.11
	{ small	31.32	0.70
Malacca	Common foot	139.1	3.14
	Carpenter's foot	127.5	2.87
Messina	Palmo	107.3	2.42

^a " Pieds communs."

VIII.—Continued.

States and Towns.	Measures.	Lines.	Deci-metres.
Milan	Palmo	176	3.97
Munich	Fuss	128.2	2.89
Naples	Palmo	116.5	2.63
Normandy	Pied	132	2.98
Norway	Fod	139.12	3.15
Nuremberg	Stadt-Schu of Carpenters	134.7	3.03
	Werk-Schu of Masons	123.6	2.78
Padua	Palmo	189.9	4.28
Paris	Pied-de-Roi	144	3.25
Palermo	Palmo, ancient	107.3	2.42
	{ of Bohemia	131.4	2.97
Prague	{ of Moravia	131.2	2.96
	Fuss	125.5	2.74
Riga	Fuss	130.6	2.94
Rome	Palmo	135	3.05
Russia	Foot	110.1	2.48
Sardinia	Palmo	131.6	2.97
Sweden	Fot	133	3.00
Switzerland	Fuss	126.8	2.85
Stuttgard	Fuss	227.7	5.13
Turin	Palmo	153.7	3.46
Venice	Palmo	143	3.23
Vienna	Fuss	158	3.56
Warsaw, duchy of,	Fuss		

IX.

A comparative View of the Agrarian Measures used in the principal States of Europe, in ancient French square Feet, (pièds de roi,) compared with the Arpent fixed by the Government for measuring the waters and Forests, and with the Hectare, or new Agrarian Measure of France.

States and Places.	Square Feet.	Arpens.	Hectares.
Alsace, Morgen	19.045	0.39283	0.2009
Austria, Jochart	54.571	1.12750	0.5758
Bavaria, Juchart	31.700	0.65495	0.3345
	104.854	2.16640	1.1064
Denmark, Toende Hartkorn	to	210.514	4.34946
		38.376	0.79229
England, Acre		48.400	1.00000
	Arpent of the waters & forests ^b	32.400	0.66941
	Arpent of Paris	40.000	0.82645
France, Arpent, common		94.768	1.95801
	Hectare	00.9471	0.01958
	Are ^c	12.326	0.25467
	Vorling	18.490	0.38202
Hanover, Drohn		24.653	0.50935
	Morgen	77.016	1.59124
Holland, Morgen		175.138	3.61857
	{ Rubbio	43.784	0.90464
	{ Quarta	25.020	0.51694
	{ Pezza	7.127	0.14725
Italy, Milanese, Pertia		31.679	0.65453
	Naples, Moggia	46.986	0.97078
	Tuscany { Saccate	5.546	0.11459
	{ Stioro	28.456	0.38792
	Venice, 1000 Passi	40.328	0.83323
Lorraine, Journal		36.005	0.74390
Piedmont, Giornata		1,613.130	33.32913
	Great Hufe	107.542	2.22195
	Hakenhufe	53.771	1.11097
Prussia, Landhufe		24.197	0.49993
	{ great	109.782	2.26756
	{ small	52.247	1.07948
Russia, Dasactina		1,345.032	27.78993
Saxony, Acker		32.521	0.67191
	Yugada	195.124	4.03149
	Fanega	10.781	0.22274
Spain, Cahizada		13.299	0.27477
	Aranzada	46.773	0.96639
Swabia, Jouchart		36.6661	0.75755
Sweden, Tunna-land		32.592	0.67338
	Berne, Juehart { for woods	30.711	0.63452
	{ for fields	34.12	0.70495
Switzer-land, Zurich, Juehart	{ for woods	40.999	0.84707
Tyrol, Janelh, or Jauchart			

^a " Arpent d' ordonnance, dit des eaux et forêts."

^b This Arpent contained 100 square perches of 22 feet square, or 484 square feet.

^c The Acre, which is the unity of the new French agrarian measures, is equal to ten metres square, or one square decimetre, that is, a space containing one hundred square metres. The Hectare is a space containing 100 ares, or a square hectometre.

In comparing the new and old measures of France, we may make use of the following approximations.

24 = 47 Arpens of the waters and forests.

27 = 79 Arpens of Paris, of 18 feet to the perch.

19 = 45 Common arpents, of 20 feet to the perch.

67 = 82 Acres of Normandy, of 160 perches of 22 feet each.

X.—A comparative Table of Itinerary and Topographical Measures, considered, first, as measures of distance in their relation to a degree (nonspherical) of the Equator; to a Geographical French League, of 25 to a degree; and to the Kilometre (1000 Metres); and, secondly, as measures of superficial extent in their relation to Geographical square Leagues of Germany (15 to a degree,) to square Leagues of France, (25 to a degree,) and to a square Kilometre.

ITINERARY PROPORTIONS.			MEASURES.	TOPOGRAPHICAL PROPORTIONS.		
To an equatorial degree.	Leagues of 25 to a degree.	Kilometres.		Square Leagues.		
				15 to a degree.	25 to a degree.	Square Kilometres.
12	2.08353	9.27083	Great Meile of Germany,	1.5625	4.3389	85.951
15	1.666	7.41666	Common, or Geographical Meile, of ditto,	1	2.777	53.604
17.75	1.4084	6.2676	Small Meile, of ditto,	0.714	1.987	39.2753
69.5	0.3616	1.6094	Mile of England,	0.0471	0.13075	2.5889
60	0.4167	1.8542	Mile, Geographical, of ditto,	0.0625	0.17363	3.4373
20	1.25	5.5625	League, marine, of ditto,	0.5625	1.5625	30.9357
33	0.7576	3.371	Lieue of Anjou,	0.2066	0.5739	11.3636
57.125	0.4371	1.9449	League of Arabia,	0.0687	0.191	3.78
28	0.8929	3.9732	Lieue of Artois,	0.2868	0.7973	15.785
17.333	1.4423	6.4183	Lieu, Astronomical,	0.7489	2.079	41.2
105.6	0.2367	1.0535	Pfase of Batavia and of Java,	0.02018	0.005602	1.109
26.397	0.9471	4.2145	Horaire of ditto,	0.3229	0.897	17.759
16.087	1.55405	6.9155	League of ditto,	0.8694	2.4149	47.823
33	0.7576	3.371	Lieue of Beauce,	0.2066	0.5739	11.3636
26	0.9615	4.2788	Lieue of Berry,	0.3323	0.9245	18.308
16	1.5625	6.953	Meile of Bohemia,	0.8789	2.44	48.344
21.521	1.1617	5.1693	Lieue of Burgundy,	0.4858	1.3502	26.7186
20	1.25	5.5625	Meile of Brabant,	0.5625	1.5625	30.9414
17	1.4706	6.5441	League of Brazil,	0.7785	2.1638	42.8239
33	0.7576	3.371	Lieue of Bretagne,	0.2066	0.5739	11.3636
28	0.8929	3.9732	League of Cayenne,	0.2868	0.7973	15.7847
28.54	0.8759	3.898	League of Canada,	0.2762	0.7672	15.1944
35	0.71429	3.17857	League of the Carnatic, (Hindostan,)	0.1837	0.5102	10.1
192.4	0.1299	0.5782	Li of China,	0.006078	0.01687	0.3343
11	2.2727	10.1136	Gros or Gau of Coromandel,	1.859	5.1663	102.2856
14.77	1.6926	7.5321	Mile of Denmark,	1.0315	2.866	56.731
12.333	2.027	9.002	Meile of Dresden or Saxony,	1.479	4.1087	81.636
28.54	0.8759	3.898	Lieue, Post (12,000 feet) of France,	0.2762	0.7672	15.1944
25	1	4.45	Lieue, geogr. or common, of ditto,	0.36	1	19.8625
20	1.25	5.5625	Lieue, marine of ditto,	0.5625	1.6625	30.9414
22.25	1.1236	5	Lieue, mean of ditto,	0.4544	1.2633	25
11.125	2.2472	10	Myriametre, or new great league, of ditto,	1.818	5.049	100
11.25	0.2247	1	Kilometre, or new small league, of ditto,	0.01818	0.05049	1
19.025	1.3139	5.8476	Lieue of Gaseogne,	0.6216	1.7266	34.194
26.838	0.9315	4.1452	League of Guiana,	0.3124	0.8677	17.181
	1.3158	5.855	Meile of Holland,	0.6232	1.7319	34.281
13.333	1.875	8.34375	Meile of Hungary,	1.266	3.5159	69.622
42.75	0.5848	2.6023	Cos or Coru of Hindostan,	0.1231	0.342	6.7718
40	0.625	2.78125	Mile of Ireland,	0.1416025	0.3907	7.735
3	8.333	37.0833303	Tingmannaleid of Iceland,	2.5	69.444	1375.1736
9	2.777	12.3601	Mil, marine of ditto,	2.778	7.716	152.797
12	2.0833	9.2708	Mil, common of ditto,	1.5625	4.3389	85.96
58.48	0.4275	1.9024	Legua of Bologna, Italy,	0.06579	0.1828	5.619
67.25	0.3718	1.65427	Legua of Milan,	0.04975	0.1383	2.7366
57.71	0.4332	1.9277	Legua of Naples,	0.06756	0.1877	3.716
74.7	0.3347	1.4719	Legua of the Roman States,	0.0403	0.1121	2.1667
68.25	0.3663	1.62967	Legua of Tuscany,	0.0483	0.1342	2.6558
60.62	0.4124	1.8352	Legua of Venice,	0.06123	0.17009	3.368
12.44	2.001	8.9429	Meile of Lithuania,	1.454	4.004	79.977
28	0.8929	3.9732	Meile of Luxembourg,	0.2868	0.79727	15.7847
23	1.087	4.83696	Lieue of Lyons,	0.4253	1.18157	23.396
10	2.5	11.125	Gros or Gau of Malabar,	1.25	6.25	123.7656
17	1.47066	6.5441	League of the Mysore,	0.7786	2.164	42.824
10	2.5	11.125	Mile of Norway,	2.25	6.25	123.7656
24	1.0417	4.6354	Lieue of Perehe, (in France,)	0.3906	1.0857	21.491
12.5	2	8.9	Parasang of Persia,	1.44	4	79.21
48	0.5208	2.3177	Legua of Piedmont,	0.09766	0.27123	5.373
24	1.0417	4.6354	Lieue of Poitou,	0.3906	1.0857	21.491
20	1.25	5.5625	League of Poland,	0.5625	1.5625	30.9414
18	1.3889	6.18056	Legua of Portugal,	0.6944	1.9293	38.199
14.37	1.7328	7.7488	Meile of Prussia,	1.089	3.003	60.045
19.025	1.3139	5.8476	Lieue of Provence,	0.6216	1.7266	34.194
104.25	0.2396	1.06714	Werste, common of Russia,	0.0207	0.05741	1.1385
104.716	0.23874	1.0624	Werste, fixed of Russia,	0.0205	0.057	1.1278
110.4	0.22645	1.0077	Werste of Russia, according to M. Trescot,	0.0192	0.05128	1.014
17.453	1.43244	6.3744	Mile, geographical, of 6 werstes, of ditto,	0.7387	2.05	40.63
12.29	2.034	9.0521	Meile of the Police, of Saxony,	1.49	4.1371	81.939
50	0.5	2.225	Mile of Scotland,	0.09	0.25	4.9506
28.942	0.8638	3.8438	Roë-ning of Siam,	0.2686	0.74615	14.77
17.18	1.4552	6.475	Meile of Silesia,	0.7623	2.117	41.93
16.4	1.5	6.075	Legua nueva of Spain,	0.8117	2.25	44.5556
20	1.25	5.5625	Legua horaria of Spain,	0.5625	1.5625	30.9414
26.4	0.9375	4.17187	Legua juridica of Spain,	0.3164	0.8789	17.4056
10.4	2.4038	10.6971	Mile of Sweden,	2.08	5.7792	114.45
10	2.5	11.225	Gos, or Gau of Surat,	2.25	6.25	123.7656
26.838	0.9315	4.1452	League of Surinam,	0.3124	0.8677	17.181
66.4	0.375	1.6687	Berri of Turkey,	0.05062	0.1406	2.786
28.537	0.8761	3.8985	Lieue of Touraine,	0.2763	0.7676	15.195
10	2.5	11.225	Meile of the Circle of Westphalia,	2.25	6.25	123.76525

XI.

A Table of the different Measures of Antiquity.

Itinerary Measures.	French Measures.	
	Kilometres.	Metres.
The Schœne of middle Egypt,	20.	• •
The Schœne of the Thebaïde, or the Indian Gau, } known under the name of Stathma, }	10.	• •
The Schœne of the Delta = 9,600 paces,	6.66	• •
The Parasang = 7,200 paces,	5.	• •
The Indian Coss = 3,600 paces,	2.66	• •
The Egyptian Mile = 2,880 paces,	2.	• •
The Persian or Asiatic Mile,	1.5	• •
The Hebrew Mile,	1.166	• •
The Pythian or Delphic Stadium,	•	148.148148
The mean Stadium, called also the Nautical or Persian,	•	166.4
The great Alexandrian or Egyptian Stadium,	•	222.22
The Philetarian or Royal Stadium,	•	210.14
The Grecian Olympic Stadium,	•	185.37
The Stadium of Eratosthenes,	•	159.2
The Stadium of Cleomenes,	•	133.47
The Stadium of Aristotle, or small Stadium,	•	99.8

Linear Measures.	Metres.		Millimetres.	
	Metres.	Millimetres.	Metres.	Millimetres.
The royal Cubit of Babylon,	•	•	468.8	•
The mean Cubit,	•	•	416.66	•
The Pygon or Palmipes,	•	•	347.22	•
The Geometic foot,	•	•	277.77	•
The Pythian or Delphic foot,	•	•	246.9	•
The Palmus Major,	•	•	086.8	•
The common Palm, or Palæsta,	•	•	069.3	•
The Inch, or Uncia of the geometrical foot,	•	•	023.1482	•
The Dactylus or Digit,	•	•	017.361	•
The Olympic Hecatonpede,	30.	•	864.	•
The Exapode,	1.	•	851.	•
The cubit, of 18 Olympic inches,	•	•	463	•
The Olympic foot,	•	•	308.6	•
The exapode of six Roman feet,	1.	•	•	•
The great pace (οπηλια) ^a of five Roman feet,	1.	•	•	•
The common pace, of two Roman feet,	•	•	•	•
The Roman foot,	•	•	•	•

Agrarian Measures.		Square Metres.	
The Plethron = 100 square Olympic feet,	•	•	9,526
The Exapode = 36 square Olympic feet,	•	•	3,429
The Saltus of four Centuries,	•	•	20,22716
The Century of 100 Heredies,	•	•	50,5679
The Heredy of two Jugera,	•	•	5056.79
The Jugerum of 800 Exapodes,	•	•	2528.395

^a The οπηλια was a measure of six feet, corresponding to 6 feet 0 inches. 525 dec. English.—P.

XII.

Comparative View of the Principal Winds.
COMPASS OF FOUR WINDS.

Grecian Names	Modern Names.	Situation upon the Compass.	Degrees.
Boreas,	North,	•	0
Euros,	East,	•	90
Notos,	South,	•	180
Zephyros,	West,	•	270

See Homer, Odyss. b. v. l. 295.

COMPASS OF EIGHT WINDS.

Grecian or Roman Names.	Modern Names.	Situation upon the Compass.	Degrees.
Boreas; Aparctias; Septentrio,	North	•	0
Cæsius; Aquilo; (sometimes Boreas)	North-East	•	45
Apeliotes; Subsolanus (sometimes Eurus)	East	•	90
Euronotos; Vulturinus (often, Eurus)	South-East	•	135
Notos; Auster,	South	•	180
Libs; Africus,	South-West	•	225
Zephyrus; Favonius,	West	•	270
Corus; Skiron; Argestes,	North-West	•	315
Boreas, &c.	North	•	360

See the explanation of the Temple of the Winds at Athens, in Vitruvius, l. i. cap. 6. Aris. Meteor. l. II. cap. 6. Pliny II. 22. Aulus Gellius II. 42. &c

^b In reckoning from the north round the compass. We can thus better understand the arrangement. Navigators reckon by quarters of circles only, in going from the north to east, or to west, and also from the south to east, or to west.

XII.—Continued.

COMPASS OF TWELVE WINDS.

Ancient Names.	Modern Names.	Situation upon the Compass.	Degrees.
Aparctias; Septentrio (Boreas)	North	•	0
Meses (often Boreas and Aquilo)	N.E. $\frac{1}{4}$ N.—30 $\frac{1}{2}$	•	30
Cæsius	N.E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.—30 $\frac{1}{2}$	•	60
Apeliotes; Subsolanus	East	•	90
Eurus; Vulturinus	S.E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.—30 $\frac{1}{2}$	•	120
Phoenix; Euronotus	S.E. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.—30 $\frac{1}{2}$	•	150
Notus; Auster	South	•	180
Libonotus; Libophœnix	S.W. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.—30 $\frac{1}{2}$	•	210
Libs; Africus	S.W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W.—30 $\frac{1}{2}$	•	240
Zephyros; Favonius	West	•	270
lapix; Corus; Argestes	N.W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W.—30 $\frac{1}{2}$	•	300
Thracias; Cercias	N.W. $\frac{1}{4}$ N.—30 $\frac{1}{2}$	•	330
Aparctias	North	•	360

See Arist. De Munda. Pliny, II. 22. Seneca, Nat. Quæst. v. 16. For the compass of 24 winds found upon this of 12, see Saumaise, Exercit. Plinian. 878—892.

COMPASS OF THIRTY-TWO WINDS

English Names.	French Names.	Italian Names.	Situation upon the Compass.
North (N.)	Nord (N.)	TRAMONTANA	0
N. by E.	N. $\frac{1}{4}$ N.E.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di T. Verso greco	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
N.N.E.	N.N.E.	Greco-Tramontana	22 $\frac{1}{2}$
N.E. by N.	N.E. $\frac{1}{4}$ N.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Greco Verso T.	33 $\frac{1}{2}$
N.E.	N.E.	Greco	45
N.E. by E.	N.E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Gr. Verso Levante	56 $\frac{1}{2}$
E.N.E.	E.N.E.	Greco-Levante	67 $\frac{1}{2}$
E. by N.	E. $\frac{1}{4}$ N.E.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Levante V. Greco	78 $\frac{1}{2}$
East (E.)	Estr.	LEVANTE	90
E. by S.	E. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.E.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Lev. Verso Scirocco	101 $\frac{1}{2}$
E.S.E.	E.S.E.	Levante-Scirocco	112 $\frac{1}{2}$
S.E. by E.	S.E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Scirocco V. Levante	123 $\frac{1}{2}$
S.E.	S.E.	SCIROCCO	135
S.E. by S.	S.E. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Scir. Verso Ostro	146 $\frac{1}{2}$
S.S.E.	S.S.E.	Ostro-Scirocco	157 $\frac{1}{2}$
S. by E.	S. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.E.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Ostro V. Scirocco	168 $\frac{1}{2}$
South (S.)	Sup.	Ostro	180
S. by W.	S. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.O.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Ostro V. Libeccio	191 $\frac{1}{2}$
S.S.W.	S.S.O.	Ostro Libeccio	202 $\frac{1}{2}$
S.W. by S.	S.O. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Libeccio V. Ostro	213 $\frac{1}{2}$
S.W.	S.O.	Libeccio	225
S.W. by W.	S.O. $\frac{1}{4}$ O.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Lib. V. Ponente	236 $\frac{1}{2}$
W.S.W.	O.S.O.	Ponente-Libeccio	247 $\frac{1}{2}$
W. by S.	O. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.O.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Ponente-Libeccio	258 $\frac{1}{2}$
West (W.)	OUEST.	PONENTE	270
W. by N.	O. $\frac{1}{4}$ N.O.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Ponente V. Maestro	281 $\frac{1}{2}$
W.N.W.	O.N.O.	Maestro-Ponente	292 $\frac{1}{2}$
N.W. by W.	N.O. $\frac{1}{4}$ O.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Maestro V. Ponente	303 $\frac{1}{2}$
N.W.	N.O.	MAESTRO	315
N.W. by N.	N.O. $\frac{1}{4}$ N.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Maestro V. Tramontana	326 $\frac{1}{2}$
N.N.W.	N.N.O.	Maestro Tramontana	337 $\frac{1}{2}$
N. by W.	N. $\frac{1}{4}$ N.O.	$\frac{1}{2}$ di Tram. V. Maestro	348 $\frac{1}{2}$
North	Nord.	TRAMONTANA	360

Professor Leslie, to whose liberality the publishers are indebted for the following tables, (XIII. and XIV.) says, "I have been able, after a delicate and patient research, to fix the law which connects the decrease of temperature with the altitude. If B and b denote the barometric pressure at the lower and upper stations; then will $(\frac{B}{b} - \frac{b}{B})$ 25 express, on the centigrade scale, the diminution of heat in ascent. Hence, for any given latitude, that precise point of elevation may be found, at which eternal frost prevails. Put $x = \frac{b}{B}$ and t = the standard temperature; then $(\frac{1}{x} - x) 25 = t$, or $x^2 + .04 tx = 1$, which quadratic equation being resolved, gives the relative elasticity of the air at the limit of congelation, whence the corresponding height is determined. From these data the following table has been calculated.

This table (XIII.) will facilitate the approximation to the altitude of any place, which is inferred either from its mean temperature, or its depth below the boundary of perpetual congelation. The decrements of heat at equal ascents are not altogether uniform, but advance more rapidly in the higher regions of the atmosphere. At moderate elevations, however, it will be sufficiently near the truth, to assume the law of equable progression, allowing in this climate (56° N.) one degree of cold by Fahrenheit's scale for every ninety yards of ascent, and for every hundred yards in the tropical regions.

Dr. Francis Buchanan Hamilton found the temperature of a spring at Chitlong, in the Lesser Valley of Nepal, to be 14° 7 centigrade. But the mean temperature in the parallel of 27° 38' being 22° 8, the density of the atmosphere corresponding to difference 8.1, is 8510, which gives 4500 feet for the corrected altitude.

XIII.

Table of the Decrease of Temperature according to the Altitude.

Latitude	Mean temperature at the level of the Sea.		Height of Curve of Congelation. Feet.	Latitude.	Mean temperature at the level of the Sea.		Height of Curve of Congelation. Feet.
	Centigrade	Fahrenheit			Centigrade	Fahrenheit	
0	29° 00	84° 2	15207	46°	13° 99	57.2	7402
1	28.99	84.2	15203	47	13.49	56.3	7133
2	28.96	84.1	15189	48	12.98	55.4	6865
3	28.92	84.0	15167	49	12.43	54.5	6599
4	28.86	83.9	15135				
5	28.78	83.8	15095	50	11.98	53.6	6334
6	28.68	83.6	15047	51	11.49	52.7	6070
7	28.57	83.4	14989	52	10.99	51.8	5808
8	28.44	83.2	14923	53	10.50	50.9	5548
9	28.29	82.9	14848	54	10.02	50.0	5290
				55	9.54	49.2	5034
10	28.13	82.6	14764	56	9.07	48.3	4782
11	27.94	82.3	14672	57	8.60	47.5	4534
12	27.75	82.0	14571	58	8.14	46.6	4291
13	27.53	81.6	14463	59	7.69	45.8	4052
14	27.30	81.1	14345				
15	27.06	80.7	14220	60	7.25	45.0	3818
16	26.80	80.2	14087	61	6.82	44.3	3589
17	26.52	79.7	13947	62	6.39	43.5	3365
18	26.23	79.2	13798	63	5.98	42.8	3145
19	25.93	78.	13642	64	5.57	42.0	2930
				65	5.18	41.3	2722
20	25.61	78.1	13478	66	4.80	40.6	2520
21	25.28	77.5	13308	67	4.43	40.0	2325
22	24.93	76.9	13131	68	4.07	39.3	2136
23	24.57	76.2	12946	69	3.72	38.7	1953
24	24.20	75.6	12755				
25	23.82	74.9	12557	70	3.39	38.1	1778
26	23.43	74.2	12354	71	3.07	37.5	1611
27	23.02	73.6	12145	72	2.77	37.0	1451
28	22.61	72.7	11930	73	2.48	36.5	1298
29	22.18	71.9	11710	74	2.20	36.0	1153
				75	1.94	35.5	1016
30	21.75	71.1	11484	76	1.70	35.1	887
31	21.31	70.3	11253	77	1.47	34.6	767
32	20.86	69.5	11018	78	1.25	34.2	656
33	20.40	68.7	10778	79	1.06	33.9	552
34	19.93	67.9	10534				
35	19.46	67.0	10287	80	.87	33.6	457
36	18.98	66.2	10036	81	.71	33.3	371
37	18.50	65.3	9781	82	.56	33.1	294
38	18.01	64.4	9523	83	.43	32.8	226
39	17.51	63.5	9263	84	.32	32.6	167
				85	.22	32.4	117
40	17.02	62.6	9001	86	.14	32.3	76
41	16.52	61.7	8738	87	.08	32.2	44
42	16.02	60.8	8473	88	.04	32.1	20
43	15.51	59.9	8206	89	.01	32.0	5
44	15.01	59.0	7939	90	.00	32.0	0
45	14.50	58.1	7671				

* Dr. Brewster, in Part I. Vol. IX. of the Edinburgh Philosophical Transactions, gives the following formula for ascertaining the mean temperature in a given latitude, in the old world. If T denote the mean temperature in any given latitude, and $\delta 1^{\circ}.5$ the observed temperature on the equator, the formula becomes
 $T = 81^{\circ}.5 \cos. \text{lat.}$

Table of Mean Temperatures.

Places.	Lat.	Obs. T.	Cal. T.	Difference.
Equator	0° 0'	81° 50'	81° 50'	
Rome	41. 54	60. 44	60. 66	0° 22' +
Paris	48. 50	51. 89	53. 65	1. 76 +
London	51. 30	50. 36	50. 74	0. 38 +
Edinburgh	55. 58	46. 23	45. 64	0. 59 +
Stockholm	59. 20	42. 26	41. 57	0. 69 -
Abo	61. 27	40. 00	40. 28	0. 28 +
Ulea	65. 3	33. 26	34. 33	1. 12 +
Melville Island	74. 47	1. 33	21. 40	20. 07 +

XIV.

Table of the most Remarkable Heights in different Parts of the World, expressed in English Feet. The Altitudes measured by the Barometer are marked B, while those derived from Geometrical Operations, and taken chiefly from the Observations of General Mudge, are distinguished by the letter G.

Snæ Fiall Jokull, on the north-west point of Iceland, 4558 G
 Hekla, volcanic mountain in Iceland, - - 3950 G

Sulitelma, in Lapland, - - - - 5910 B
 Nuppi Vara, the highest of the table-land in Lapland, - - - - 2655 B
 Lomnijauri, elevated lake in Lapland, - - 2265 B
 Driftue, the highest pastoral hamlet in Norway, 2457 B
 Snähätta, centre of the Norwegian mountains, 8120 B
 Harebacke, Alpine ridge of Norway, - - 4575 B
 Pap of Caithness, - - - - 1929
 Ben Nevis, Inverness-shire, highest mountain in Scotland, - - - - 4358 G
 Cairngorm, Inverness-shire, - - - - 4080 B
 Cairnsmuir upon Deugh, Galloway, - - - 2597 G
 Ben Lawers, west side of Loch Tay, Perthshire, 3944 G
 Ben More, Perthshire, - - - - 3870 B
 Ben Lui, or the Calf, near Tyndrum, - - - 3651 G
 Schihallien, Perthshire, - - - - 3513 G
 Ben Voirlich, near Loch Earn, - - - - 3207 G
 Ben Ledi, near Callender, Perthshire, - - 2863 G
 Ben Achonzie, head of Glen Tilt, - - - 3028 G
 Ben Lomond, near Aberfoil, Stirlingshire, - 3191 G
 Cobbler, near Arrochar, - - - - 2863 G
 Ben Clach, in the Ochils, above Alloa, - - 2359 G
 Lomond Hills, east and west, Fifeshire, 1466 and 1721 G
 Soutra Hill, on the ridge of Lammermuir, - 1716 G
 Coulter Fell, Lanarkshire, - - - - 2440 G
 Carnethy, high point of the Pentland ridge, - 1700 B
 Tintoc Hill, Lanarkshire, - - - - 2306 G
 Leadhills, the house of the Director of the mines, 1280 B
 Broad Law, near Crook Inn, Peebles-shire, - 2741 G
 Queensberry Hill, Dumfries-shire, - - - 2259 G
 Cairnsmuir of Fleet, Galloway, - - - - 2329 G
 Hart Fell, near Moffat, - - - - 2635 G
 Dunrich Hill, Roxburghshire, - - - - 2421 G
 Eldon Hills, near Melrose, Roxburghshire, - 1634 G
 Whitcomb Hill, Peebles-shire, - - - - 2685 G
 Lother Hill, Dumfries-shire, - - - - 2396 G
 Ailsa Rock, in the Firth of Clyde, - - - 1103 G
 Crif Feil, near New Abbey, Kirkcudbright, - 1831 G
 Kells Range, Galloway, - - - - 2659 G
 Goat Fell, in the Isle of Arran, - - - - 2865 G
 Paps of Jura, south and north, in Argyle-shire, - - - - 2359 and 2470
 Snea Fell, in the Isle of Man, - - - - 2004 G
 South Berule, in Isle of Man, - - - - 1584 G
 Macgillicuddy's Reeks, County of Kerry, - 3404 G
 Sliebh Donard, the highest of the Mourne Mountains, - - - - 2786 G
 Helvellyn, Cumberland, - - - - 3055 G
 Skiddaw, Cumberland, - - - - 3022 G
 Saddleback, Cumberland, - - - - 2787 G
 Whernside, Yorkshire, - - - - 2384 G
 Ingleborough, Yorkshire, - - - - 2361 G
 Shunnor Fell, Yorkshire, - - - - 2329 G
 Snowdon, Caernarvonshire, - - - - 3571 G
 Cader Idris, Caernarvonshire, - - - - 2914 G
 Beacons of Brecknock, - - - - 2862 G
 Plynlimmon, Cardiganshire, - - - - 2463 G
 Penmaen Mawr, Caernarvonshire, - - - 1540 G
 Malvern Hills, Worcester-shire, - - - 1444 G
 Cawsand Beacon, Devonshire, - - - - 1792 G
 Rippin Tor, Devonshire, - - - - 1549 G
 Brocken, in the Hartz-Forest, Hanover, - 3690
 Priel, in Upper Austria, - - - - 7000 B

	Feet.		Feet.
Peak of Lomnitz, in the Carpathian ridge, -	8870 B	Awatsha, volcanic mountain in Kamtchatka, -	9600
Terglou, in Carniola, - - - - -	10390 B	The Volcano, in the Isle of Bourbon, - -	7680
Mont Blanc, Switzerland, - - - - -	15646 G	Ophir, in the centre of the Island of Sumatra, -	13842
Village of Chamouni, below Mont Blanc, -	3367 G	St. Elias, on the Western coast of North America, -	12672
Jungfrauhorn, Switzerland, - - - - -	13730	White Mountain, in the State of Massachusetts, -	6230 B
St. Gothard, Switzerland, - - - - -	9075	Chimborazo, highest summit of the Andes, -	21440 B
Hospice of the Great St. Bernard, - - - -	8040 B	Antisana, volcanic mountain in the kingdom of	
Village of St. Pierre, on the road to Great St.		Quito, - - - - -	19150 B
Bernard, - - - - -	5338 B	Shepherd station on that mountain. - - -	13500 B
Passage of Mont Cenis, - - - - -	6778 B	Cotopaxi, volcanic mountain in the kingdom of	
Gross Glockner, between the Tyrol and Ca-		Quito, - - - - -	18890 B
rinthia, - - - - -	12780 B	Tunguragua, volcanic mountain, near Riobomba, -	16579 B
Ortler Spitze, in the Tyrol, - - - - -	15430	Rucu de Pichincha, in the kingdom of Quito, -	15940 B
Rigiberg, above the Lake of Lucerne, - - -	5408	Heights of Assuay, the ancient Peruvian road, -	15540 B
Dôle, the highest point of the chain of Jura, -	5412 B	Peak of Orizaba, volcanic mountain east from	
Mont Perdu, in the Pyrenees, - - - - -	11283	Mexico, - - - - -	17390 G
Loneira, in the department of the high Alps, -	14451	Lake of Toluca, in the kingdom of Mexico, -	12195 B
Peak of Arbizon, in the department of the high		City of Quito, - - - - -	9560 B
Pyrenees, - - - - -	8344	City of Mexico, - - - - -	7476 B
Puy de Dome, in Auvergne, - - - - -	4858 G	Silla de Caraccas, part of the chain of Venezuela, -	8640 B
Mont d'Or, - - - - -	6202 G	Blue Mountains, in the Island of Jamaica, -	7431
Summit of Vaucluse, near Avignon, - - - -	2150	Pelée, in the Island of Martinique, - - -	5100
Village on Mont Genevre, - - - - -	5945 B	Morne Garou, in the Island of St. Vincent's, -	5050
St. Pilon, near Marseilles, - - - - -	3295 G		
Soracte, near Rome, - - - - -	2271 G		
Monte Velino, in the kingdom of Naples, -	8397 G		
Mount Vesuvius, volcanic mountain beside Na-			
ples, - - - - -	3978		
Ætna, volcanic mountain in Sicily, - - - -	^a 10936 B		
St. Angelo, in the Lipari Islands, - - - -	5260		
Top of the Rock of Gibraltar, - - - - -	1439 B		
Mount Athos, in Rumelia, - - - - -	3353		
Diana's Peak, in the Island of St. Helena, -	2692		
Peak of Teneriffe, one of the Canary Islands, -	12358 B		
Ruivo Peak, the highest point of Madeira, -	5162		
Table Mountain, near the Cape of Good Hope, -	3520		
Chain of Mount Ida, beyond the plain of Troy, -	4960		
Chain of Mount Olympus, in Anatolia, - - -	6500		
Italitzkoi, in the Altaic chain, - - - - -	10735		

^a 10,899 Herschel, jun.--P.

In this list of altitudes, I have not ventured to insert the Himalaya or Snowy Mountains, the Imaus of the ancients, or Great Central Chain of Upper Asia, to which some late accounts from India would assign the stupendous elevation from 23,000 to 27,000 feet. Such at least are the results of observations made with a small sextant and an artificial horizon, at the enormous distance of 226 or 232 miles, as computed indeed from very short bases. But even with the best instruments, and under the most favourable circumstances, the determination of minute vertical angles is, from the influence of horizontal refraction, liable to much uncertainty. The progress of accurate observation has uniformly reduced the estimated altitudes of mountains. More recent statements accordingly diminish those heights near 2000 feet.

APPENDIX.

BOOK VII.

PAGES 58-60. "We shall, perhaps, forever remain ignorant of the secrets which the two polar regions contain." Since Malte-Brun's time, both the polar regions have been, to some extent, explored; and it appears on the one hand, from the explorations of Dr. Kane, especially, that there is perhaps an open sea about the north pole, two of his party having made an expedition from his vessel as far north as $82^{\circ} 27'$, when they saw open water at the north, and various signs of a warmer climate, which led to the belief that this water opened into a great open sea, which abounded with life. On the other hand, land has been discovered in the southern polar sea, and has been traced to such an extent that it is called a "vast antarctic continent." The first discovery was made by the United States exploring expedition under Captain Wilkes, in 1840, and it was confirmed by the explorations of the French and English expeditions in 1840 and 1841. The coast of this land was icebound and inaccessible, so that the only exploration was along its coast, and at some distance. The English expedition above named reached latitude $78^{\circ} 10'$, the highest southern latitude ever attained.

Page 66. The comparison of the height of mountains in the different parts of the world would be greatly modified by the discoveries and measurements made since the author wrote. It is now known that Asia contains the highest mountains on the globe, viz., the Himalaya, and of these Mount Everest is supposed to be highest, being 29,000 feet above the level of the sea. Mount Kunchingga is 28,178 feet high. Others are from 25,000 to 28,000 feet high. In the Andes, the highest mountains are Sorata, which is upwards of 2,500 feet above the sea, and the two summits of Illimani, which rise to the height of more than 24,000 feet. In Chili is Mount Aroncagua, a volcano, which rises about 24,000 feet above the sea, and is the highest known volcano in the world. Chimborazo is 21,300 feet high.

BOOKS IX., X.

Pages 75, 80, 81. "The precious metals, also, more peculiarly belong to the equatorial regions." The gold regions described by Malte-Brun are thrown into the shade by those which have more recently been discovered, and the statement above quoted has proved unfounded. The gold fields which have yielded the greatest abundance of the precious metal within the last ten or twelve years, are those of California and Australia, each in the temperate zone. The first discoveries of gold in each of these regions were in deposits of rivers and streams, and the yield from these "placers" has been very large. But fur-

ther explorations discovered veins of gold and gold-bearing quartz, and these being extensively worked, have proved as productive as the "diggings." The first discoveries were made in California in 1848, and in Australia in 1851. For some years previous to this, the whole annual production of gold was about \$20,000,000, but in six years after its first discovery in California, the yield of gold in that region was estimated at about \$70,000,000, and that of Australia at about the same amount. Gold has also been discovered in considerable quantities in the British possessions north of the Columbia River, and in Oregon and Washington territory.

The total yield of gold in the principal mining countries of the world, for the year 1854, (as late a data as could be obtained for purposes of comparison,) as shown by Mr. J. D. Whitney, in his work on "The Metallic Wealth of the United States," was \$119,523,600. Of this, Russia furnished \$14,880,000; Southern Asia and the East Indies, \$6,200,000; the northern states of South America, \$3,720,000; Mexico, \$2,480,000; Australia and Oceania, \$37,200,000; United States, \$49,600,000. Other authorities give the amount yielded by California and Australia, for the same year, as much larger, making that of California about \$70,000,000, and of Australia about \$45,000,000; and in 1857, the yield of California is stated at \$65,000,000, and that of Australia at \$59,000,000. The average annual yield of gold,^a of the principal gold-producing countries, is stated to be as follows: Australia, \$60,000,000; California, \$55,000,000; Russia, \$20,000,000;—total, \$135,000,000.

The total yield of *silver* for the year 1854, as appears by the authority above named, was \$47,443,200, of which Peru, Bolivia, and Chili yielded \$10,880,000, and Mexico, the great silver-producing country of the world, yielded \$28,000,000.

Page 82. "The whole of Siberia presents to us only two or three ambiguous specimens [of *mercury*.] The new continent is not more abundantly provided with it." The discoveries in California have proved this statement not well founded, for that state has recently furnished about 2,000,000 pounds *avoirdupois*, annually, out of about 7,000,000 pounds, the total production of the world.

Page 82. "We are assured that in the interior of Louisiana it [*lead*] forms vast beds upon the surface." The "interior of Louisiana" comprised, formerly, the vast territory west of the Mississippi River, and the lead regions of Missouri, Iowa, and Wisconsin are referred to, they having, since Malte-Brun's writing, been more fully explored and mined. The product of these mines is from 20,000 to 25,000 tons annually.

^a United States Commercial Digest.

The product of this region is likely to be greatly increased, as capital and improved methods of mining, &c., are introduced, for the ore exists in large quantities.

Page 83. "Immense beds of it [*copper*] are found upon the banks of the Ohio." Of this statement Mr. Percival remarks, in his note, that it is not known that copper occurs in any quantity on the Ohio, but that a large mass of native copper, and abundant indications of copper ores, are found along the southern shores of Lake Superior. More recent explorations have shown that copper exists in abundance in that region, and numerous mines have been opened, and are being successfully and profitably worked, and several large masses of native copper, of immense weight, have been found and taken out. Copper has also been found in the Blue Ridge in Virginia, but not in quantities or quality to prove profitable. In Tennessee and Georgia more profitable mines have been opened, and the mining is prosecuted to a considerable extent. Great Britain and Chili are the two largest copper producing countries, and yield annually from 14,000 to 16,000 tons each.

Pages 84, 85. Although *iron*, as stated in the text, is profusely distributed throughout nature, more than two thirds of all that is mined is produced by Great

Britain and the United States. In the United States it is found, in some of its various formations, in almost all parts of the country; but it is most abundant in Pennsylvania, Virginia, Ohio, Tennessee, and Kentucky. Pennsylvania produces much the largest portion, mining being more extensively carried on than in other parts of the country, which may be equally rich in the ore. The best iron is found in Michigan and Wisconsin, south of Lake Superior, and the mines promise to be very productive. The total amount of iron produced from the ore in the United States, in the year 1856, was estimated at about 1,000,000 tons, and this production is gradually increasing. The amount produced in England the same year was about 4,000,000 tons.

The quantity of metal produced in any country is not a measure of its mineral wealth, for the production depends upon the capital and labor engaged in it, and these upon a variety of circumstances. But in this connection it may be proper to give a table, prepared from those of Mr. Whitney, from returns and estimates for the year 1854, the latest from which such a comparative table could be made, though there are later data from a part of the countries named, showing the value of the various metals produced by some of the principal mining countries.

Countries.	Gold.	Silver.	Mercury.	Tin.	Copper.	Zinc.	Lead.	Iron.
Russia,	\$14,880,000	\$928,000	\$3,900,000	\$440,000	\$92,000	\$5,000,000
Great Britain,	24,800	1,120,000	\$4,200,000	8,700,000	110,000	7,015,000	75,000,000
Belgium,	1,760,000	115,000	7,500,000
Prussia,	480,000	900,000	3,630,000	920,000	3,750,000
Austria,	1,413,600	1,440,000	\$250,000	30,000	1,980,000	165,000	805,000	5,625,000
France,	80,000	172,500	15,000,000
Spain,	10,416	2,000,000	1,250,000	6,000	300,000	3,450,000	
S. Asia and E. I.,	6,200,000	3,000,000	1,800,000			
Austr. & Oceanica,	37,200,000	128,000	2,100,000			
Chili,	744,000	4,000,000	8,400,000			
Peru,	471,200	4,800,000	100,000	^a 900,000	} 900,000			
Brazil,	1,488,000	11,200				
Mexico,	2,480,000	28,000,000				
United States,	49,600,000	352,000	500,000	2,100,000	550,000	1,725,000	25,000,000

Book XIV.

Much time, and science, and numerous observations have made the ocean currents better known within the last few years, and the general courses and characteristics of those mentioned in Malte-Brun's text have become better known by careful exploration and examination. New currents, or branches of currents, have been discovered, or more accurately mapped, and the charts of ocean currents, such as those by the United States astronomical establishment, are quite exact and full, considering the element which is to be defined. The limited space of this Appendix does not admit of any resumé of such discoveries and explanations, which would require considerable space to add much useful knowledge to that contained in the text. It may, however, be of some interest to add a recent statement about the Maelstrom, page 124.

Of late years, even the existence of the Maelstrom, on the coast of Norway, has been doubted. The ancient accounts of its terrible power were doubtless fabulous, but the Maelstrom actually exists, and is sometimes dangerous. M. Hagerup, minister of the Norwegian marine, has recently given a reliable account of it, in reply to some questions from a correspondent of the *Boston Recorder*. The vast whirl is caused by the setting in and out of the tides between Lofoden and Mosken, and is most violent half way between ebb and flood tide. At flood and ebb tide it disappears for about half an hour, but begins again with the moving of the waters. Large vessels may pass over it safely in serene weather, but in a storm it is perilous to the largest craft. Small boats are not safe near it at the time of its strongest

^a With Bolivia.

^b With Ecuador, New Granada, &c.

action in any weather. The whirls in the Maelstrom do not, as was once supposed, draw vessels under the water, but by their violence they fill them with water or dash them upon the neighboring shoals. M. Hagerup says, —

“In winter, it not unfrequently happens that at sea a bank of clouds shows a west storm, with heavy sea, to be prevailing there, while farther in on the coast, the clear air shows that on the inside of the West-tjord (east side of Lofoden) the wind blows from the land, and sets out through the tjord from the east. In such cases, especially, an approach to the Maelstrom is in the highest degree dangerous, for the stream and under-current, from opposite directions, work there together to make the whole passage one single boiling caldron. At such times appear the mighty whirls, which have given it the name of *Maelstrom*, (i. e., the whirling or grinding stream,) and in which no craft, whatever, can hold its course. For a steamer it is, then, quite unadvisable to attempt the passage of the Maelstrom during a winter storm, and for a sailing vessel it may also be bad enough in time of summer, should there fall a calm or a light wind, whereby the power of the stream becomes greater than that of the wind, leaving the vessel no longer under command.”

BOOK XXIV.

ASIA.

Asia is the largest continental division of the globe, and includes a surface of about 15,500,000 square miles. Its greatest breadth, from north to south, is 5,300 miles, and its greatest length, from east to west, is about 7,600 miles. It has a coast of upwards of 30,000 miles, not including the northern coast, on the Arctic Ocean.

Mountains. — There are three grand mountain systems, the Altai, the Hindoo Koosh, and the Himalaya, the two latter being sometimes considered one system. The Altai system belongs to Central Asia, and is the northern limit of the great eastern plateau. It runs in the mean parallel of 50° north latitude, from 70° east to 110° east, where it joins the great chain of the Aldan, which runs north-east to the arctic circle. The second great system, the Hindoo Koosh, traverses Asia from the Dardanelles to the Yellow Sea, the central chain connecting the Kuen Lun of the east with the Parapomisan, Elbrooz, and the Armenian mountains of the west. It separates the great desert of Gobi from China Proper, and divides the steppes of Independent Tartary from the plateau of Iran. The Himalaya chain runs north-west and south-east for a distance of 1,500 miles, finally, at the north-west, meeting the Hindoo Koosh, where rise, a group of some of the loftiest mountains on the globe, more than 20 of them being upwards of 20,000 feet high. The highest summits, so far as ascertained, are Mount Everest, about 29,000 feet high, and Kunchingiga, which is 28,178 feet high. There are many others, in different parts of the chain, which rise more than 21,000 feet.

There are few active volcanoes in Asia. In Western

Asia, the only one is Demavena, 70 miles south of the Caspian Sea, which is 14,695 feet in height, is always covered with snow, and always emits smoke. In Eastern Asia, in the volcanic range of Thian Shan, are two active volcanoes, Peshan and Hocheoo, about 670 miles apart. Fire springs and fire hills are numerous in China, but there are no volcanoes known to emit lava. In Kamtschatka there are nine active volcanoes, of greater or less magnitude. In Japan there are two or three volcanoes, generally active.

M. Semenoff, a Russian traveller, has discovered a volcano in that part of Central Asia called Mantchoo Tartary. It exists in the district of Ujuu-Holdongt, about nine and a half miles north of the village of Tomolshin, on the Nemez, and some fifteen miles from the town of Mergen. In January, 1721, an eruption occurred there, which lasted nine months; and again in May, 1722, another formidable eruption took place. This is the first account we have of these eruptions, and as the volcanoes in question are situated at a distance of over 600 miles from the sea, the hitherto received theory that the proximity of the sea is an essential condition for the existence of volcanoes, is thus proved to have been fallacious.

The chief political divisions of Asia, as now given by geographers, are as follows:—

BOOKS XXXVII., XXXVIII.

ASIATIC RUSSIA, OR SIBERIA,

Comprising Siberia and the Caucasian provinces, known principally as Georgia, but comprising several somewhat distinct provinces.

Siberia occupies the entire northern part of the continent. Its extreme length is about 3,600 miles, and its breadth about 1,800 miles; area, 4,800,000 square miles. Its population is estimated at about 2,900,000. Irkutsh is the principal town, and the provincial capital of Eastern Siberia; population, including garrison, 120,000. Tobolsk is the provincial capital of Western Siberia; population, 20,000. Kiachta is a frontier town towards China, where the principal trade with that empire centres; population, 6,000; Tomsk, population 24,000; Omsk, population 11,000.

Georgia lies south of the Caucasus Mountains, and its extent is about 28,800 square miles; population about 350,000, including the minor provinces. The capital and principal town is Teflis; population about 50,000.

BOOKS XXXIX., XL., XLII. — XLV.

CHINESE EMPIRE,

Including China Proper, Chinese Turkistan, or Little Bucharina, Mongolia, Manchooria, Elee, Corea, Thibet, and the Koko-nor Territory. Area, 5,200,000 square miles; population 42,000,000.

China Proper.— Area, 1,298,000 square miles; population, 387,633,000. It is divided into eighteen provinces, which are subdivided into numerous departments.

The annual average export of tea is 41,500,000 pounds. Of this, 13,000,000 pounds is exported to the United States, 9,000,000 pounds to Russia, 8,000,000 pounds to England, and 7,500,000 to British colonies.

Chinese Turkistan, Mongolia, Manchooria, and the *Koko-Nor* territory are generally included under the name of Chinese Tartary. They are provinces of China, being under the dominion of that empire. The population is generally sparse, and its number is unknown.

Corea comprises a peninsula north-east of China, and several groups of islands in the Yellow Sea. It is, in most respects, an independent kingdom, though tributary to China. The area of the peninsula is about 80,000 square miles; population, about 8,000,000.

Thibet, north of the Himalaya Mountains, comprises the most elevated plains and plateaus in the world. It is subject to China, and it is but little known. Lassa, its capital, is the residence of the grand lama, and it is the centre of the Boodhist religion. Its population is estimated at about five or six millions.

The chief towns in the Chinese empire are,—

Population.		Population.	
Pekin, . . .	1,500,000	Canton, . . .	1,000,000
Chang-chu-fu, . . .	1,000,000	Nanchang, . . .	700,000
Fu-chu-fu, . . .	500,000	Nankin, . . .	500,000
Singan, . . .	300,000	Amoy, . . .	250,000
Ningpo, . . .	250,000	Shanghai, . . .	190,000
Yarkand, . . .	100,000	Ili, . . .	75,000
Macao, . . .	40,000		

Book LII.
INDO-CHINA.

This division comprises the following countries:—

Anam, an empire, comprising the provinces of Tonquin, Cochin China, (by which name the whole is sometimes called,) Champa, and a part of Cambodia. The population is estimated to be from twelve to fifteen millions. The chief town is Hue, the capital of Cochin China.

Burmah, sometimes called the Kingdom of Ava. Area, about 200,000 square miles; population, estimated at 6,000,000.

Siam, comprising a part of Cambodia and several Malay provinces, contains a population of about 6,000,000. The Tenasserim provinces, belonging to Great Britain, on the western coast of the Indo-Chinese peninsula, formerly belonged to Siam. The loss of these has been compensated by the acquisition of a part of Cambodia and some small Malay provinces.

Anam, Burmah, and Siam, with the British Tenasserim provinces, and some small Malay provinces, are sometimes called Further India, or the Indo-Chinese peninsula.

Books XLVI.—L.
HINDOSTAN OR INDIA.

Area, 1,200,000 square miles; population, about 132,000,000. It embraces the westerly of the two

great peninsulas of Southern Asia, and comprises the British territories, the Protected states, and the Independent states.

The British territories comprise three presidencies, Bengal, Madras, and Bombay. The Bengal presidency embraces the valley of the Ganges, the country watered by the tributaries of the Indus, and the Tenasserim provinces in Indo-China. The Madras presidency embraces a large part of the southern portion of Hindostan. The Bombay presidency embraces the western part of the peninsula, with a part of the interior table lands, and the province of Sind. Population of the three presidencies, about 80,000,000.

The Protected states are in the central part of Hindostan, and are more or less under the control of the British. Population, about 45,000,000. The Independent states comprise Nepal and Bootan, which lie along the southern slope of the Himalaya Mountains. Population, 7,000,000.

There are also some small possessions of the French and Portuguese.

The chief towns in India are,—

Population.		Population.	
Benares, . . .	580,000	Madras, . . .	350,000
Oodipoor, . . .	300,000	Patna, . . .	284,000
Bombay, . . .	235,000	Calcutta, . . .	230,000
Cashmere, . . .	200,000	Delhi, . . .	200,000
Dacca, . . .	200,000	Hyderabad, . . .	200,000
Saigon, . . .	180,000	Surat, . . .	157,000
Nagpoor, . . .	115,000	Lahore, . . .	100,000
Poonah, . . .	90,000	Moulton, . . .	80,000
Agra, . . .	65,000	Bangkok, . . .	55,000
Cuttack, . . .	40,000	Pondicherry, . . .	40,000

Book XXXV.
AFGHANISTAN.

Area, about 300,000 square miles; population, estimated at 5,000,000.

The chief towns are Cabul, the capital, population, 60,000; Candahar, population, 50,000; Herat, population, 40,000.

Book XXXV.
BELOOCHISTAN.

Area, about 150,000 square miles; population, estimated at 2,000,000.

Kelat, capital, population, about 12,000; Chonbar, population, about 2,000, and Gundava, population, about 5,000, the chief towns.

Book XXXVI.
INDEPENDENT TURKISTAN.

Area, about 720,000 square miles. Population, estimated at 6,000,000.

The chief towns are Bokhara, famous as a seat of Mahommedan learning, population 160,000, and Khotan, population 80,000.

BOOKS XXXI.—XXXIII.

PERSIA.

Area, 450,000 square miles; population, about 9,500,000.

The chief towns are,—

	Population.		Population.
Teheran, the capital,	60,000	Kermanshah,	35,000
Balfrush,	200,000	Shiraz,	30,000
Ispahan,	150,000	Bushire, chief	
Tabriz,	60,000	seaport,	15,000

BOOKS XXVI.—XXIX.

ASIATIC TURKEY.

Area, 437,000 square miles; population, about 11,000,000.

Its chief towns are,—

	Population.		Population.
Smyrna,	150,000	Erzeroum,	40,000
Damascus,	90,000	Scutari,	40,000
Aleppo,	75,000	Beyrout,	30,000
Bagdad,	65,000	Trebizond,	25,000
Brusa,	60,000	Jerusalem,	20,000
Bassora,	60,000		

BOOK XXX.

ARABIA.

Area, about 834,000 square miles; population, estimated at 12,000,000, divided into numerous tribes, of which Huot gives a list of upwards of 150.

The chief towns are,—

	Population.		Population.
Aden,	50,000	Sana,	40,000
Mecca,	30,000	Derai,	15,000
Muscat,	40,000	Mocha,	7,000
Medina,	18,000		

BOOK XLI.

JAPAN, OR JAPANESE ISLES,

Comprise the islands of Nippon, Sikoke, Kioosio, and some smaller ones, together with dependencies in the Kurile Islands, Jesso, Saghalien, &c., embracing in all a territory of about 170,000 square miles, and containing a population estimated at 25,000,000, and by some at 30,000,000. For two hundred years, closed to all foreign nations except the Chinese and Dutch, who had a limited trade there, these islands have at last been opened to increased foreign trade through the efforts of the United States, followed by England, Russia, France, &c. Several ports are now open to the trade of these nations, and the commerce with Japan promises to become important.

The chief towns are,—

Yedo, or Jeddo, in Nippon, the capital, and residence of the military emperor, containing, formerly, a population estimated at 1,500,000, but within a few years it has been in part destroyed by an earthquake.

	Population.
Hakodadi,	
Mijaco, residence of the spiritual emperor,	220,000
Nangasaki,	50,000
Simoda,	6,000
Matsmai,	50,000
Osaca,	80,000
Kotsi,	
Kokura,	

Simoda and Hakodadi are open to American commerce, by the treaty made by Commadore Perry with the Japanese government. Nangasaki and Hakodadi are open to the British.

BOOKS XLI., XLIII, &c.

ASIATIC ISLANDS.

Besides the Japanese Islands, included in the islands of Asia, are the following:—

Kurile Isles, a range of small islands, extending from Japan to Kamtschatka, containing an area estimated at 3,000 square miles. The population is sparse, and they are but little known.

Loo Choo Islands, consisting of the Great Loo Choo Island and upwards of thirty others, which are smaller, lie east of China and south of Japan. Great Loo Choo is about 65 miles in length. These islands are dependencies of Japan, though in some respects independent.

Formosa, about 90 miles east of China. Area, about 15,000 square miles; population, estimated at 2,500,000.

Hong-Kong, a small island, about ten miles long, at the mouth of the estuary that leads to Canton. It belongs to Great Britain. Population, about 40,000. It is a place of great commercial importance, being the centre of British trade with China. It has attained this position since it was ceded to Great Britain, in 1841. The chief town is called Victoria.

Hainan, a large island south of China, and separating the Gulf of Tonquin from the Chinese Sea. Its area is estimated at 12,000 square miles, and its population at 1,200,000, mostly Chinese. It belongs to China. The chief town is Kiang-Choo, which is a populous city.

Singapore, an island south of the Malay peninsula, belonging to Great Britain. The chief town is Singapore; population, 25,900. It is a place of great commercial importance.

Nicobar Islands lie west of Malaya. Inhabited by savages, but nominally belonging to Denmark.

Andaman Islands, in the eastern part of the Bay of Bengal, also inhabited by savages.

Ceylon, about 60 miles south-east of the southern extremity of Hindostan. Area, 24,664 square miles; population, 1,500,000. It is a very productive and valuable island, belonging to Great Britain. The pearl fishery, for which it was once famous, has ceased since 1837. Coffee, rice, and cinnamon are its principal commercial productions, that of coffee rapidly increasing in importance. Chief town, Colombo.

Maldivé Islands, an extensive chain of islands, of coral formation, south of Hindostan. Estimated pop-

ulation, 150,000, mostly Mohammedans; tributary to the British.

Laccadive Islands, also of coral formation, north of the Maldives. Population, estimated at 10,000.

BOOKS LIII. — LVIII.

OCEANICA.

Oceania, or Oeeania, is the name given to the numerous islands in the Pacific, including Australia, which is itself sometimes considered as a continent. The estimated area of the land in these islands is 4,500,000 square miles, and the population about 21,000,000. Geographers now divide Oeeania into three parts, viz., Eastern Oceania, or Polynesia, Central Oceania, or Australasia, and Western Oceania, or Malaysia.

POLYNESIA includes numerous groups, the principal of which are the following:—

Bonin Isles, three small groups, about 500 miles south-east of Japan, claimed by Great Britain.

Sandwich Isles, or *Hawaii Group*, the most important group in Polynesia, in the north Pacific, about 1,800 miles west of California, consisting of seven inhabited islands, and six islets uninhabited. The first mentioned are Hawaii, Mani, Atauai, Oahu, Molokai, Ranai, and Nilan. Aggregate area, about 6,500 square miles. The larger of these islands are high, and contain several volcanic peaks. In Hawaii, three of these are constantly active. One is 12,500 feet high. Mauna Loa is the most active of these volcanoes, and a great eruption took place in 1852, when a column of molten lava was projected 500 feet into the air. A river of the lava, nearly a mile wide, flowed down the ravines and valleys. Some of the valleys and plains are fertile, and produce sugar-cane, coffee, &c.

The islands have long been a resort for whale ships in the Pacific, for the purpose of transshipping, procuring supplies, &c.; upwards of 500 of these vessels have touched there in a year.

The population, since the natives have become partially civilized, has rapidly decreased. By Captain Cook, it was estimated at 400,000. In 1832, it was 130,315; in 1836, 108,579; in 1850, 84,165; in 1853, 72,964. The government, formerly divided among several rulers, one for each island, is now vested in one king, and is administered on European models. The principal town and seaport is Honolulu, in Oahu; population, 6,000. Most of the commerce centres here.

Marquesas Islands, about 2,000 miles west of Peru. Nukahiva, the largest, is 70 miles in circumference. They belong to France.

Low Archipelago, comprising numerous groups between the Marquesas and Society Islands, in all 90 or more islands, generally uninhabited.

Gambier Islands, in the South Pacific, south-east of the Society Isles. They are resorted to by vessels for water.

Pitcairn Island, 300 miles south-east of the last, midway between Panama and Australia.

Society Islands, south-west of the Low Archipelago, consisting of Tahiti, which is about 30 miles long, and many smaller islands. Considerable trade is carried on here with the natives, who resemble the Sandwich Islanders. They are under the protection of France.

Cork's, or *Hervey Isles*, a small group south-west of the Society Isles.

Tonga, or *Friendly Isles*, west of the last named, (Cork's.) Tongatabu, the largest, is about 50 miles in circumference. The surface is low, and the islands abound in tropical fruits, &c.

Feejee Islands, the most westerly group of Polynesia, comprises about 150 islands, not half of which are inhabited. Viti Levu, the largest, is about 80 miles long. The surface is mountainous, and the origin of the islands is supposed to be volcanic. The inhabitants are the most savage and barbarous of all the Polynesians.

Navigator's Isles, eight islands north-east of the Feejee Isles. Lavaii, the largest, has an area of about 700 square miles. The surface is mountainous, and the soil fertile.

Central Archipelago includes several groups lying between 10° north and 10° south latitude. Among the largest, are Marshall Islands, Gilbert's Islands, Kings mill group, &c.

Caroline Islands consist of numerous groups, lying between 5° and 10° north, and from 135° to 160° east from Greenwich. Many are of coral formation. One of the Yap group, north of Pelew, is mountainous, and abounds in precious metals. The most westerly is the Pelew group, and the most easterly is Onalan. They belong to Spain.

Ladrone Islands consist of 20 islands, north of the Carolines. They are mountainous and picturesque. The soil is fertile, yielding many tropical productions. They belong to Spain.

AUSTRALASIA includes Australia and the adjacent islands.

Australia, or *New Holland*. Area, about 3,000,000 square miles; population, 1,043,000. It lies between the Pacific and Indian Oceans, and extends from about 10° south to 39° south latitude, and from 113° to 153° of longitude east from Greenwich. Its greatest length, from east to west, is about 2,400 miles, and its greatest breadth is about 1,900 miles. It belongs to Great Britain, and is divided into five colonies, North Australia, West Australia, South Australia, New South Wales, and Victoria. The first of these colonies is now abandoned, on account of the hot and unhealthy climate; and the last two are the only ones which have flourished.

The north and west coasts are low, and the interior is generally sterile; extensive regions consisting of sandy plains, or rugged and verdureless hills. Near the east and south coasts are ranges of mountains, none, however, over 7,000 feet high. The valleys and plains here are more fertile, and capable of sustaining a large population. The central part of Australia is almost wholly unexplored, and offers but little attraction to the explorer.

In 1851 gold was discovered in the south-western part of the island, or continent, at Bathurst, 140 miles from

Sidney, and since that time it has rivalled California, and, in some respects, surpassed it. The most productive mines are at Ballarat. The gold has been found in remarkable lumps, or nuggets, some weighing from 10 to 27 pounds of pure gold, and even upwards, and others, less pure, producing 50 to 160 pounds of gold. The first year the yield was about \$17,000,000, and it has increased from that to nearly or quite \$60,000,000 in some years. Copper is also found in large quantities, and the mines (at Burra-Burra, in New South Wales) were producing 20,000 tons or more, annually, when the discoveries of gold diverted the labor and capital almost wholly. Tin, manganese, iron, coal, &c., are found. New South Wales is a good agricultural country, and yields large quantities of wool and tallow.

The native Australians are a distinct race from that inhabiting the Indian Archipelago. They are black, or dark brown, with curly but not crisp hair. They are barbarous, and inclined to cannibalism. The different tribes are constantly engaged in feuds. The highest estimate of their numbers is 80,000, which is probably much more than the actual number.

The population of Australia, in 1857, was about 1,043,000. The population of the colony of Victoria, in which the gold region, as at present known, lies, has rapidly increased. In 1850, it was about 50,000; in 1857, it was 414,000.

The chief towns are, —

Sidney, the capital of New South Wales; population, about	100,000
Melbourne, the capital of Victoria; population, about	50,000
Adelaide, the capital of South Australia; population,	20,000
Perth, the capital of West Australia,	
Gulong,	
Brisbane,	

Van Diemen's Land, or *Tasmania*, an island containing an area of 24,000 square miles, south of Australia, from which it is separated by Bass Strait. It belongs to Great Britain, and a penal colony of that country is established here. The interior is mountainous, some of the peaks being snow-capped even in summer, and rising to the height of 7,000 or 8,000 feet. Coal, lead, and iron are found, of excellent quality. It is well watered, and the valleys are fertile. The population is about 80,000, of whom nearly one third are convicts.

The chief town is Hobart-Town, the capital, in the south-eastern part of the island. Population, about 25,000.

New Zealand comprises three islands, New Ulster, New Munster, and New Leinster, together with some smaller islands, situated south-east of Australia, and belonging to Great Britain. The area of all is about 105,000 square miles, and the population about 150,000, of whom about 27,000 are whites. The interior of the islands is rugged and mountainous. In New Ulster are Mount Edgecomb, 10,000 feet high, and Mount Egmout, 8,300 feet high. The island is well watered and fertile. The principal settlements of the English are at Auckland, the capital, New Plymouth, and Wel-

lington, in New Ulster, and at Nelson and Canterbury, in New Munster.

Papua, or *New Guinea*, north of Australia, contains an area of 250,000 square miles. It is inhabited by a mixed Malay and Papuan race, and has no European settlements. But little is known of its interior.

Admiralty Isles, a group of about 30 fertile islands, north of Papua. The largest, Great Admiralty Island, is about 60 miles in length.

New Ireland, a long, narrow island, south-east of the last, about 200 miles in length and 20 wide, covered with luxuriant forests.

New Britain, two large islands south-west from the last, and east of Papua, well wooded and fertile.

Solomon Isles, a group east of Papua and New Britain, of which little is known.

Louisiade Isles, a group of small islands south-east of Papua, 80 of which are known, and it is believed that others remain to be discovered and explored. Some of these islands are fertile, and inhabited by savages of a dark copper color.

New Hebrides, a group of about 20 islands, south-east of the Solomon Isles. Espiritu Santo is the largest, and is about 65 miles in length by 20 wide. They are inhabited by the Papuan race, and abound in tropical trees and fruits.

Norfolk, a solitary island, about 1,000 miles east of Australia, comprising an area of 14 square miles. It belongs to Great Britain, and is used as a penal establishment.

MALAYSIA, or the *Asiatic Archipelago*, is the general name given to the large islands lying south-east of Asia. They are also sometimes called the East Indies. Malaysia comprises the following islands: —

Philippine Isles, a group consisting of about 1,200 islands, the most northern in the Indian Archipelago. The estimated area of the whole is about 120,000 square miles. They mostly belong to Spain, and are a valuable colonial possession to that kingdom. The principal islands are Luzon, Mindanao, Palawan, Mindoro, Samar, Leyte, Negros, &c. Population, estimated at about 5,000,000, of whom 1,000,000 belong to the Papuan race, 3,700,000 are Malay Indians, 55,000 half-castes and Chinese, and 245,000 whites. The chief town is Manilla, which has an extensive foreign trade. Population of the city and suburbs, 140,000. The town has many times suffered from earthquakes, the last severe one of which was in 1852, when great damage was done.

Borneo. — This island contains an area of about 290,000 square miles, and is more than three times as large as the island of Great Britain, and larger than the Eastern and Middle States of the United States.

Population, estimated at 2,000,000, of whom about 1,400,000 are Dyaks, the aboriginal tribes, 140,000 Chinese, 400,000 Malays, 100,000 Boogis from Celebes. The western and southern coasts, and a part of the eastern, are subject to the Dutch, who have settlements at Banjarmassin and Pontianale. The northern coast, including Borneo Proper, is now under the protection of Great Britain, with a native sovereign. Under this protection piracy has become less frequent, and com-

merce more prosperous. Borneo is the chief town of this part of the island; population, 22,000.

Celebes, an irregular-shaped island, east of Borneo. Area, about 70,000 square miles. Population, estimated at 2,000,000, of whom the Boogis are the most numerous, and are one of the finest races in Oceania in appearance. The island is under native rule, though the Dutch have heretofore claimed authority over some portions, and still hold the settlement of Macassar.

Moluccas, or *Spice Islands*, a general name of islands between Celebes and Papua, the largest of which are Gilolo, Ceram, Booro, and Amboyna. Area, estimated at 38,000 square miles. They are subject to the Dutch, who have a settlement at Amboyna.

Timor, an island south of the Spice Islands, about 300 miles long and 40 wide. It is claimed partly by the Portuguese and partly by the Dutch, each of whom have some small settlements. Population, about 200,000.

Sunda Isles, consisting of Sumatra, Java, Sumbawa, Flores, and Sandalwood, together with some smaller islands.

Sumatra, south-west of the Malayan peninsula, a large island directly under the equator. Area, about 140,000 square miles. Population, according to the most reliable estimates, about 4,500,000, and composed of mixed races. The Dutch have long had settlements there, and have gradually extended their dominion over a large part of the island.

Java, south-east of Sumatra, has an area of about 50,000 square miles. It belongs to the Dutch, and is the centre of their power in the East Indies. It has a governor-general, and is divided into 22 residencies, with local governors. Batavia, Samarang, and Sourabaya are places of much commercial importance, especially the first, which is the capital, and the centre of the Dutch East India trade. Population of the island, (1845,) 9,560,380, of whom 16,000 were Europeans or their descendants. Population of Batavia, 118,300, of whom 2,800 are Europeans.

Flores, next to Java, the largest of the Sunda Isles, is about 200 miles long and 35 wide. It has several high volcanic peaks.

Sandalwood, south of Flores, about 120 miles in length and 30 in average breadth. The Dutch have settlements there.

Sumbawa, west of Flores, about 160 miles in length. It is divided into several native states, which are generally under the protection of the Dutch.

BOOK LIX.

AFRICA.

This great division of the globe, though the seat of the most ancient civilization, is the least known, and has been the least explored of any of the grand divisions. It has an area of 11,236,000 square statute miles. Its length is estimated at 4,968 statute miles, and its breadth at 4,692 statute miles. It has a coast line of about 16,000 miles, a great part of which has never been accurately surveyed, and much is very im-

perfectly known. Of the interior, vast regions are unexplored; and though Dr. Livingstone has within a few years penetrated and explored some distance in Southern Africa, and Dr. Barth in Central Africa, and have added much to the knowledge of those portions of the continent, yet the geographical knowledge of the country is limited. These recent explorations, however, have met with such success as to lead to further expeditions, which will, in the course of a few years, probably afford a better knowledge of this vast extent of territory, and, in the process of time, open it to civilization. The population is variously estimated from 60,000,000 to 110,000,000, composed of numerous savage and degraded tribes, mostly black, except where a branch of the Caucasian race has extended along the northern part and along the eastern coast. These tribes speak innumerable languages or dialects, and are in other respects very dissimilar, while some of those of the southern portion appear to be almost a distinct race.

Mountains. — The Mountains of the Moon is a name applied to a range commencing near the western coast, in latitude 9° north, and longitude 9° 20' west, and thence running, it was supposed, across the continent. It has been discovered, however, that this range does not run across the continent, where it was once laid down on the maps. Whether any such range exists, as supposed, future explorations may show. The name given to the western part of the range is Kong Mountains. The name of Mountains of the Moon is also sometimes given to a range north-west of Zanguebar. North of the Kong Mountains are other lofty ranges running north. The Atlas range, in Morocco and Algiers, is an extensive range, the highest known peak of which, Mount Mitsun, is 11,380 feet high. A lofty mountain has been recently discovered in Eastern Africa, called Killimandjaro, which rises to a height of 20,000 feet or upwards, and though within four degrees of the equator, its summit is covered with perpetual snow. The Black Mountains, north of the great desert, and a range west of Mozambique, are extensive ranges, as also are the Red Mountains, in Madagascar.

Rivers. — The principal and most noted rivers are the Niger and the Nile, the sources of which, and the mouth of the former, were long the subjects of geographical speculation. The outlet of the Niger was finally ascertained to be in the Bight of Benin, in the eastern part of Upper Guinea. The sources of the Nile have not yet been reached, though long supposed to be in the Mountains of the Moon. The following are the principal rivers: —

	Miles in Length.
Nile, (running into the Mediterranean,) about .	3,000
Niger, (in West Africa, emptying into the Atlantic,)	2,500
Senegal, “ “ “ “ “	1,000
Gambia, “ “ “ “ “	1,000
Congo, “ “ “ “ “	“
Coanza, “ “ “ “ “	500
Orange, “ “ “ “ “	1,000
Geba, “ “ “ “ “	“
Rio Grande, “ “ “ “ “	“
Sierra Leone, “ “ “ “ “	“
In East Africa, Zambeze, Juba, or Fumbo, and Liowma.	

Lakes.—Tchad, in Central Africa, explored by Barth, and stated to be about 220 miles in length and 140 in breadth. Lake Nyassi, north-west of Mozambique, unexplored. Lake Ngami, discovered and explored by Livingstone, in the central part of South Africa, about 70 miles in length. Lake Dembra, in Abyssinia. Lake Lowdeah, in Tunis.

The chief political divisions of Africa at present, are as follows:—

BOOK LXV.

BARBARY STATES.

Morocco, (empire of,) the largest of the Barbary States, in North-Western Africa. Area, 223,000 square miles; population, 8,500,000 Moors, or Arabs, Berbus, and Jews.

The chief towns are, —

	Population.
Morocco, the capital,	80,000
Mequinez,	60,000
Tangier, a seaport on the Strait of Gibraltar,	7,000
Fez, an interior town,	90,000
Mogador, on the Atlantic,	17,000

Algeria, or *Algiers*, one of the Barbary States, between Morocco and Tunis, now belonging to France. Area, about 90,000 square miles; population, 2,500,000. The population is chiefly composed of Moors, Turks, Berbers, Jews, &c., with some French settlers. Under French rule (since 1831) the resources of the country are being somewhat developed, its agriculture improved, good roads constructed, &c.

The chief towns are, —

Algiers, the capital, on the Mediterranean; population 94,600, of whom about one half are Europeans. Constantine, population, 20,000.

Tunis, another of the Barbary States, east of Algeria. Area, about 70,000 square miles; population, 2,500,000. The inhabitants are like the last, without the European element.

The chief towns are, —

Tunis, the capital, population, 130,000. Kairwan, an interior town, estimated population at 50,000.

Tripoli, another of the Barbary States, south-east of Tunis. Area, about 140,000; population estimated at 1,500,000. *Barca*, on the east, and *Ferran*, on the south of Tripoli, are dependent or tributary provinces of Tripoli. The population of Barca is estimated at about 1,000,000, mostly Bedouin Arabs. The inhabitants of Ferran are a mixed race, and number about 100,000. The chief town of Tripoli is Tripoli. Population, about 15,000. Moorzouk, in Ferran, a seat of caravan trade. Population, 3,500.

BOOKS LX. — LXII.

EGYPT.

Area, 224,000 square miles; population, 2,896,000. More than 2,000,000 of the inhabitants are Fellahs, of Arabic descent, and the remainder Copts, Turks, Greeks, &c.

Egypt is in many respects an independent kingdom, though a fief of the Ottoman Empire, which has main-

tained its power only through the interference of the great powers, and the government is a despotism; though under Mohammed Ali, it has advanced the prosperity of the country.

The chief towns are, —

	Population.
Cairo, the capital, the largest city in Africa,	250,000
Alexandria,	60,000
Damietta,	28,000

Suez, on the Red Sea, though numbering but two or three thousand permanent inhabitants, is a place of importance, as being one of the stations of the "overland route" to the East. A railroad is being constructed to connect it with Cairo and Alexandria, which places are already connected by railroad.

BOOK LXIII.

NUBIA, ABYSSINIA, &c.

Nubia, south of Egypt, and under the dominion of that kingdom. Area, 320,500 square miles. Population, 500,000. The chief towns are, —

	Population.
Khartown, the residence of the viceroy,	15,000
Sonakin, on the Red Sea,	8,000

Abyssinia, south-east of Nubia. Area, 280,000 square miles; population, estimated at 3,000,000.

The country is little known. It is divided into several states, or provinces, and the inhabitants embrace many tribes, most of whom are in a state of barbarism. The Gallas, a savage tribe on the west of Nubia, have overrun much of the country.

Gondar and Ankobar are the chief towns.

BOOKS LXXI., LXXII.

EASTERN AFRICA

Includes the following countries:—

Somauli Territory, consisting of the districts of Adel and Ajan, south-east of Abyssinia, and south of the Straits of Babel Mandeb.

The inhabitants are divided into numerous tribes, some of whom carry on considerable trade at Berbera, the chief town.

Zanguebar, between the Somauli Territory and Mozambique, belongs in part to the Sultan of Muscat, a sovereign of a district in Arabia, and in part to native princes. Considerable trade is carried on by the Arabs, the centre of which is at Zanzibar, the chief town, on Zanzibar Island. Population of the island, 150,000; of the town, 80,000. Other towns are Magadoxa, Juba, Melinda, Quiloa.

Mozambique, a country extending along the coast from Cape Delgado, the southern limit of Zanguebar, to the Zoolu country, and stretching indefinitely into the interior. On the coast are three Portuguese settlements—at Mozambique, Quilimane, and Sofala,—and that nation claims the whole country, though it is not occupied by them. The population of the first named town is about 6,000; the others are inconsiderable places, the channels of trade being now turned

towards Zanzibar. The Portuguese tenure of the country, except in the towns, is altogether uncertain.

BOOK LXX.

SOUTHERN AFRICA

Includes the following countries:—

Zoolu Country, inhabited by a tribe of the Caffre race, lies between Mozambique and the Natal Colony of Great Britain.

Natal Colony, a territory of about 18,000 square miles; population, about 120,000, most of whom are Caffres, acknowledging allegiance to the British, who possess the country as a dependency of Cape Colony. The chief towns are Pietermaritzburg, the capital, and Port Natal, the latter containing about 1,000 inhabitants.

Cape Colony occupies the entire south of Africa, from the ocean on the south to Orange River, including a portion of the Hottentot Country and Caffraria, though a part of the Caffres have almost constantly resisted the dominion of the British. Area, about 110,000 square miles; population, 166,000, 70,000 of whom are of the native races. The chief towns are Cape Town, population 23,000; King William's Town.

Hottentot Country lies north of Cape Colony, on the coast. In the interior, north of Cape Colony, is

Country of the Bechuanas, an extensive region, inhabited by offshoots of the Caffres and Hottentots. This region has been explored to some extent of late years, especially by Dr. Livingstone, some distance north of Lake Ngami, and from the west coast into the interior of Mozambique. It proves to be a more fertile country than was supposed, tolerably well watered in some parts, and quite productive. Further explorations, which are progressing, and efforts to gain the good will of the various native tribes, it is hoped will result in opening a considerable trade with the interior. Sugar-cane and cotton are both produced, wild and cultivated, as well as wheat, &c. Gold is found, and extensive beds of coal have been discovered.

BOOKS LXVI.—LXIX.

WESTERN AFRICA

Includes the various countries extending from the Hottentot Country to the Great Desert.

Country of the Cimbebas and Damaras, north of the Hottentot Country, inhabited by savage tribes, and but little known. North of this country is

Lower Guinea, extending from 17° south to 10° north of the equator, near the mouth of the River Niger. It is divided into several states, the chief of which are Benguela, Angola, Congo, Loango, Biafra. They are inhabited by various negro tribes. The Portuguese have some small settlements, the chief of which is Loanda. The interior of the country is productive, and the explorations of Livingstone show that it might produce large quantities of cotton, &c.

Upper Guinea lies north of the Gulf of Guinea, extending westward along the coast from the northern part of Lower Guinea. It is also subdivided into Benin, Abomey, Coomassie, &c. The British have a

few small settlements, of which Cape Coast Castle is capital.

Liberia, a republic, established as a colony by the American Colonization Society, for free negroes from the United States. It became an independent republic in 1847. It is situated in the western part of Upper Guinea, extending about 320 miles along the coast, and 80 into the interior. Some thousands of the natives have placed themselves under the government of Liberia. The country is productive, yielding cotton, sugar-cane, and coffee abundantly, and tropical fruits, &c. Population, 250,000. The chief town is Monrovia, the capital; population, 2,500.

Sierra Leone, a British colony, north-west of Liberia, and in the southern part of Senegambia, comprises an area of 232 square miles. The chief town is Freetown; population, 18,000.

Senegambia occupies the most western part of Africa, south of the Great Desert. It is divided into several states, all of native government. The inhabitants are chiefly negroes, of various tribes, the most important of which are the Foulahs, Jaloofoos, and Mandingoes. The French, English, and Portuguese have some small settlements on the rivers Senegal, Gambia, and Nunez.

Sahara, or *The Great Desert*, occupies a large part of northern Central Africa. Its length is about 2,500 miles, and its breadth from 600 to 900 miles, its area being about 1,300,000 square geographical miles. Oases, of greater or less extent, relieve this barren region in the east, and some are found in the central and western parts, the latter of which is the most desolate. Although so desolate, Sahara is inhabited by Moors, Tuariks, and Tibboos. Explorations of late years have added but little geographical knowledge of this region more than is given in the text, except in limited portions of it.

BOOK LXVII.

CENTRAL AFRICA

Is the general name applied to a vast region extending from the Great Desert, indefinitely, south to the country of the Bechuanas. It comprises numerous states, or kingdoms, and is inhabited by many distinct tribes of negroes and mixed races. The great division is Soudan, which comprises the states of Bournou, Houssa, Kanem, Bergoo, Darfur, Begharmi, Adamana, Yarriba, Upper and Lower Bambarra, and Kordofan and the Galla country are sometimes included in it, besides many smaller states. The northern part of this territory is sometimes known as Nigritia, and is so applied indefinitely in the text.

Lake Tsad, or Tehad, is situated in the northern central part of Soudan, between Bournou and Kanem. It is about 130 miles long and 60 to 80 wide. This region has been explored to some extent recently by Drs. Barth and Overweg, and their explorations will add something to the geographical knowledge of the country, but the expeditions now in progress will probably in a short time accomplish more.

The country south of Soudan is sometimes called Ethiopia, but it is as properly, perhaps, included under

the name Soudan, and is probably made up of numerous states and kingdoms, of which little is known, though enterprising explorers are gradually opening the whole of this vast region to our knowledge.

BOOKS LXXIII., LXXIV.

ISLANDS OF AFRICA.

Socotra, in the Indian Ocean, 120 miles east of Cape Guardafin.

Seychelle Isles, a group of about 30 small islands, in the Indian Ocean, belonging to Great Britain

Amirante Isles, a smaller group, south west of the preceding.

Comoro Isles, near the north end of Mozambique channel.

Madagascar, a large island, 1,000 miles long, and 240 in average breadth, containing a territory nearly as large as that of France, east of Africa, and separated from the continent by the Mozambique channel. The people have relapsed from the civilization which was encouraged under one of their princes, who was educated in Europe, in the early part of this century, and who conquered the whole island by organizing a powerful army. They have returned to their old practices of paganism and cruelty. Population, estimated at 4,700,000. The capital and chief town is Tananarivo.

Mauritius, east of Madagascar, belongs to Great Britain. Population, 162,000. Chief town, Port Louis; population, 35,000.

Bourbon, between Mauritius and Madagascar, belongs to France. Population, 108,000. Chief town, St. Denis; population, 20,000.

St. Helena, about 1,200 miles from the west coast of South Africa, in the Atlantic, belonging to Great Britain. It contains 48 square miles; population, 5,000.

Ascension, about 800 miles north-west of St. Helena, belonging to Great Britain. Its area is 35 square miles.

Cape Verde Isles, a group of 14 islands in the Atlantic, 320 miles west of Cape Verde. The names of the ten larger ones are Sal, Bonavista, Mayo, Santiago, Fogo, Brava, Grande, Rombo, St. Nicholas, and Santa Luzia. They belong to the Portuguese. They comprise an area of 1,680 square miles; population, 86,700.

Canary Isles, a group of seven large and several smaller islands, about 60 to 80 miles west of the coast of Sahara and Morocco. They belong to Spain. Area, about 3,000 square miles; population, 258,000.

Madeira Isles, consisting of Madeira and Porto Santo, with a few small islands, west of Morocco. They belong to Portugal. Area, about 400 square miles; population, 110,000. Chief town, Funchal; population, 25,000.

Azores, or *Western Isles*, consist of 9 islands north-west of Madeira, belonging to Portugal. They are in three groups, the north-western being 114 miles, and the south-eastern being 70 miles from the central group. The islands are, —

	Population.		Population.
Terceira, . . .	40,000	Flores, . . .	14,000
Pico, . . .	24,000	Gracioza, . . .	7,800

Corvo, . . .	700	St. George, . .	10,000
St. Michael, . .	80,000	Santa Maria, . .	5,000
Fayal, . . .	22,000		—
Total, . . .			203,500

BOOK LXXV.

AMERICA.

The area of the American Continent is stated, by good authority, as follows:—

	Square Miles.
North America,	7,400,000
South America,	6,500,000
Islands,	150,000
Greenland and islands N. of Hudson's Strait,	900,000

Total, 14,950,000

The length of the entire continent is about 10,500 miles. Its greatest breadth north of the equator is at about the parallel of 45°, where it is 3,100 miles wide; its greatest breadth south of the equator is between 4° and 7° south, where it is 3,250 miles wide.

The area of North America is sometimes stated larger than that given above, the United States census of 1850 making it 8,373,648 square miles, including Central America.

BOOKS LXXVI. — LXXXV.

NORTH AMERICA.

The great changes which have taken place in the political geography of North America, the extension of settlements, and the more thorough exploration of the country, render it impossible to follow precisely the order of the text, and a brief description of the chief features of the continent and of the several countries is given, independent, for the most part, of the text.

Since Malte-Brun's time, arctic explorations have added something to the knowledge of the northern regions of America. The expeditions of Sir John Franklin, Sir John Ross, Captains Beechey, Clavering, Scoresby, Back, Sir Edward Belcher, McClure, Kellett, Bellot, De Haven, Dr. Kane, and others, have explored the northern seas extensively, but, it must be confessed, without many practical results. The attempts to discover the north-west passage, which was the object of some of these expeditions, at last resulted more favorably than Malte-Brun anticipated; for Captain McClure, of the British ship Investigator, after long struggles with the ice, succeeded, in 1850, in sailing from Behring's Strait to a point 73° 10' north, and 117° 10' west longitude, about 30 miles from the series of straits, Melville, Barrow, and Lancaster, which communicate with Baffin's Bay, leaving an extensive region at the north. Obstructed by ice, McClure left his ship, and continued his explorations along the shore, and discovered that there was a passage into those straits, and thus connected his explorations on the west with those of Parry on the east. The passage, however, was obstructed by ice, and impassable on that account. Subsequently, McClure was reached by another expedition, which had sailed up through Baffin's Bay as far as the ice would permit, and then sent on a party by

sledges. McClure's party returned with this expedition, abandoning their ship, but verifying the north-west passage, though frozen and impassable for vessels.

Dr. Kane's expedition penetrated through Smith's Sound, which is north of Lancaster Sound, directly towards the pole from Baffin's Bay, and his party reached, by sledge and foot journeys beyond his vessel, latitude 81° 22' north. At this point, which was reached by two of the doctor's companions, an open channel was discovered, extending into what appeared to be an open polar sea. Seals and bears were numerous, and a variety of birds were abundant. This exploration showed that Greenland was separated from Grinnell Land and other land on the west of Smith's Sound, as Parry's and McClure's expeditions showed that it was separated from the continent of North America; and that the regions north of Melville and Barrow's Straits are one or more large islands, known as Melville Land, Grinnell Land, &c.

Mountains.—The mountains of North America comprise two principal systems, the Rocky Mountains on the west, and the Appalachian Mountains on the east. The Rocky Mountains are a continuation of the Andes of South America, and extend, under different names, from the Isthmus of Panama to the Arctic Ocean. In Central America the mountains increase in height as they recede from the Isthmus, and there are, within a limited space, some 30 volcanoes. The Volcan d'Agua, which emits water and stones instead of fire, is 14,450 feet high. In Mexico, the same mountain chain, called Cordilleras, spread into high table land, from Durango to Puebla, from 6,000 to 9,000 feet high, and from 100 to 300 miles wide. Near the tropic the chain divides into three, one running to the east, and terminating near the coast, and the other to the west, and sinking in the same manner. The central chain runs north into the territory of the United States, and so on to the Arctic Ocean. The highest peaks in this chain are as follows:—

In Mexico.—Popocatepetl, 17,720 feet; Orizaba, 17,380 feet, both volcanoes, but the latter extinct; Iztacihuatl, 15,705 feet; Nevado de Toluca, 15,250 feet.

In United States.—Fremont's Peak, 13,570 feet; Long's Peak, 13,575 feet; and Pike's Peak, 11,497 feet.

In British America.—Mount Brown, 15,990 feet; Mount Hooker, 15,700 feet.

A range, sometimes considered a part of the same system, extends between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific from the Russian Possessions to the peninsula of California, and is called the Cascade Range and Sierra Nevada. The range widens into high table land in some places, or branches into other ranges, and is not altogether a well-defined range in the northern part. Mount St. Elias, in Russian America, is considered as belonging to this range, and is 17,900 feet high. Mount Shaste and Mount Hood, in Oregon, are about 14,000 feet high; other peaks reach the height of 10,000 feet. Another range, less lofty, extends along the sea-coast, called the Coast Range.

The Appalachian chain, beginning in the north-eastern part of the United States, extends to Alabama, at

a distance of 100 to 300 miles from the coast. There are numerous branches or spurs, and even distinct ranges, which may properly be considered a part of this chain, as the Blue Ridge, Alleghany Mountains, Cumberland Mountains, &c. The highest peaks in the range are Mount Clingman, in North Carolina, 6,941 feet high, and Mount Mitchell, in the same state, 6,732 feet high. The mean height is about 2,400 feet.

There are several smaller ranges, as the Adirondack Mountains, in New York, and the Green, in Vermont and Massachusetts, which more properly belong to the Appalachian range, the White Mountains, in New Hampshire, &c. The highest of these are Mount Marcy, of the Adirondack, 5,460 feet, and Mount Washington, of the White, 6,234 feet. The Ozark Mountains, in Arkansas and Missouri, are a low range. The Humboldt River Mountains, and other short ranges, are found between the Rocky and Cascade ranges. The Black Hills are a range running north-east from the Rocky Mountains, at about the forty-third parallel.

Between the two great systems of mountains lies the great plain, extending from the Gulf of Mexico to the Arctic regions, including the great lakes and the mighty rivers of North America. This plain is the largest in the world, except the Desert of Sahara, and it is so plentifully watered that all that lies south of the Arctic regions is fertile and habitable. That portion south of the forty-fifth parallel, comprising an area of about 1,500,000 square miles, is a region of almost unexampled fertility.

Between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada, or Cascade Mountains, is a great plain, or basin, which is sometimes called Fremont's Basin, which is not abundantly watered, and is not fertile, except in small portions. The greater part is rugged and sterile.

Lakes.—North America has some of the largest inland seas, or lakes, on the earth, and the chain of great lakes, between British America and the United States, form a remarkable extent of inland navigation. The following are the principal lakes:—

	Area in Sq. Miles
Lake Superior, between Canada and U. S.,	32,000
“ Huron, “ “ “ “	20,400
“ Erie, “ “ “ “	9,600
“ Ontario, “ “ “ “	6,300
“ Michigan, in United States,	22,000

These are connected with each other by straits, or channels, or artificial canals, and by means of the St. Lawrence, open the commerce of a vast region to the Atlantic. Other lakes are,—

	Length in Miles.
Great Slave Lake, in British America,	300
Great Bear, “ “ “	240
Winnipeg, “ “ “	125
Winnepagoos, “ “ “	200
Athabasca, “ “ “	126
Champlain, in United States,	75
Great Salt, “ “	40
Seneca, “ “	40
Pontchartrain, “ “	40
George, “ “	36

Moosehead, in United States,	40
Winnepiseogee, " "	23
Utah, " "	30
Terminos, in Mexico,	70
Tczeuco, "	15
Nicaragua, in Central America,	90

There are numerous smaller sheets of water, especially in the northern part of the great plain between the Rocky and Appalachian chains.

Rivers.—The rivers of North America may be divided, generally, into four classes: 1. Those which flow into Hudson's Bay, the Arctic Ocean, and the waters connected therewith, being all those in British America, north of the St. Lawrence. 2. Those that flow into the Atlantic, mostly from the eastern side or slope of the Appalachian chain. 3. Those which flow into the Gulf of Mexico, either directly or by the Mississippi. 4. Those west of the Rocky Mountains, which flow into the Pacific. Besides these, there are a few rivers, not very large or important, which flow into the great lakes, and a few in the basin between the Rocky and Cascade Mountains, which flow into the lakes of that region, which have no outlet to the ocean.

The following are the principal rivers in North America:—

RIVERS IN BRITISH AMERICA.

Flowing into Hudson's Bay and Arctic Ocean,—

Length in Miles.	Length in Miles.
Albany, 340	Great Whale,
Athabasca, 550	Mackenzie's, 900
Assiniboia, 480	Nelson, 300
Coppermine, 250	Peace, 1,100
East Main, 400	Saskatchewan, 1,300
Great Fish,	

Flowing into the Atlantic,—

Ottawa, 600	Restigouche, 200
St. Lawrence, 770	St. Maurice, 140
Saguenay, 100	St. John's, 320

Flowing into the Pacific—Fraser's.

RIVERS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Flowing into the Atlantic, directly or indirectly,—

Length in Miles.	Length in Miles.
Androscoggin, 140	Altamaha, 140
Connecticut, 410	Cape Fear, 300
Delaware, 300	Great Pedee, 450
Hudson, 300	James, 500
Kennebec, 200	Merrimac, 110
Penobscot, 275	Potomac, 550
Roanoke, 260	Schuylkill, 140
Susquehanna, 450	Shenandoah, 170
Savannah, 450	

Flowing into the Gulf of Mexico, directly or indirectly,—

Length in Miles.	Length in Miles.
Alabama, 380	Kansas, 1,200
Arkansas, 2,000	Alleghany, 400
Chattahoochee, 550	Big Horn, 400
Colorado, 600	Cumberland, 600
Des Moines, 400	Canadian, 900
Great Kanawha, 400	Green, 300
Iowa, 300	Illinois, 400

Kentucky, 260	Minnesota, 450
Mississippi, 3,160	Nucce, 350
Monongahela, 300	Osage, 600
Missouri, 3,096	Red, 1,200
Ohio, 950	" { including } 2,100
Platte, 800	{ So. Fork, }
Rio Grande, 2,000	Sabine, 300
Sioux, 300	St. Francis, 450
Tombigbee, 500	Tennessee, 1,200
Trinity, 450	White, 800
Wisconsin, 360	Wabash, 550
Washita, 500	Yellow Stone, 700

Flowing into the Pacific,—

Length in Miles.	Length in Miles.
Big Black, 400	Brazos, 950
Columbia, 750	Clarke's, 500
Green,	Grand, 300
Gila, 450	Klamath, 250
Lewis, or Snake, 520	Rio Colorado, 800
Sacramento, 370	San Joaquin, 350
Humboldt River flows into Humboldt Lake, 350	

The Mississippi and Missouri are navigable for boats for the distance of about 3,900 miles, measuring by the stream, and their numerous tributaries are also navigable to a great extent, affording facilities of transportation for many thousands of miles. The area of the basin drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries is estimated to be about 1,350,000 square miles.

BOOK LXXVI.

RUSSIAN AMERICA.

Area, about 450,000 square miles; population, estimated at 61,000. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians and Esquimaux, and the Russian Possession is but little else than a fur-trading establishment.

The chief town is Sitka, or New Archangel.

BOOK LXXVII.

DANISH AMERICA

Consists of Greenland and Iceland, neither of which belongs to the American continent, though usually included under the name.

Greenland.—The area of this country is unknown. Its climate and rugged soil has prevented any extensive settlement. The Danish settlements are mostly on the west coast, and of these Upernavik is the northernmost. The population, in 1851, was 9,400, of whom but 250 were Europeans.

Iceland.—Area, about 40,000 square miles; population, in 1851, 60,000.

Chief towns, Reykjavik, the capital, population, 900, and Skalholt.

Spitzbergen, which, in the text, is considered as belonging to America, is now classed with European islands, and is claimed by Russia.

BOOKS LXXVII., LXXVIII.

BRITISH AMERICA.

Hudson's Bay Territory.—Area, 2,190,000 square miles; population, 180,000. This territory is usually

considered as comprising all the territory of North America north of Canada and the United States, except the Russian territory in the north-west, and extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific Oceans, and is bounded by the Arctic Ocean on the north. Labrador, which is attached to the colony of Newfoundland, forms its eastern limit. There are no settlements in the northern and eastern parts, except the fur-trading posts. West of the Rocky Mountains, the government has now resumed control of the territory, and the colony of British Columbia is established there. The fisheries on the east coast of Labrador are profitable, and give employment to hundreds of vessels from the British Provinces and the United States.

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

This colony was established in 1858, the British government resuming the jurisdiction, which it had granted for a term to the Hudson's Bay Company. It extends from the northern boundary of the United States (49th parallel) to Simpson's River, about the 55th parallel, and from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific. Including Queen Charlotte's Island, which is attached to the colony, the area is about 200,000 square miles. The colony was established in consequence of the discovery of gold, and the great influx of population occasioned thereby.

The gold region, so far as known, is confined to a portion of the course of Fraser River and its tributaries. Hostile Indians have prevented extensive explorations or mining, and the quantity of gold yet produced is not large. But it is believed that rich placers will be found on the table land between the Fraser and Columbia Rivers, and that rich auriferous quartz will be found upon further exploration. Gold has been discovered in Queen Charlotte's Island, but the hostility of the Indians has prevented any prosecution of mining there. It is also said to exist in Vancouver's Island, which lies west of the southern part of the colony, but, though under the same administration, is not called a part of Columbia. The present organization and limits of the colony, it is probable, will soon be changed.

Though far to the north, the climate of Columbia is not so severe as it is east of the Rocky Mountains, and much of the soil is well adapted to agriculture. A considerable portion is well adapted for settlements, and wheat, barley, potatoes, &c., can be grown, while apples and some other fruits will ripen. There is an abundance of timber, and coal exists in extensive fields.

The population is uncertain and fluctuating. The first discovery of gold brought from twenty to thirty thousand immigrants the first year, but many left. The immigration has continued, however, more moderately.

The principal town is Victoria, which has grown up suddenly in consequence of the gold discovery.

CANADA.

Area, (estimated,) 357,822 square miles; population, 2,506,755.

Canada extends along the north of the United States and the great lakes and New Brunswick, from

Labrador and the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to longitude 90° 30' west; its extreme length is about 1,300 miles, and its average width is something less than 300 miles.

Mountains.—The surface of Canada is not much broken by hills and mountain ranges, and Canada West has no elevations that attain to the dignity of mountains, that province being, for the most part, of a level or gently undulating surface, scarcely ever rugged. In Canada East are the Green Mountains, (so called from the thick forests which cover them,) extending from the vicinity of Quebec to the mouth of the St. Lawrence, on the south side of the river, following the course of the river. A similar range rises on the north side of the St. Lawrence. These hills sometimes approach the great river; and form high precipices, overhanging its waters. Farther north are other mountains, as the Mealy Mountains, about 1,500 feet high, and generally covered with snow, and the Watchish Mountains.

Rivers.—Besides the St. Lawrence, which flows from the great lakes through Canada, the principal rivers are the Ottawa, which divides the two provinces, about 750 miles in length, the Saguenay, which runs through the most grand and beautiful scenery, the St. Maurice, the Batiscau, the Chaudiere, and St. Francis. There are numerous smaller rivers, and the country is dotted over with lakes of more or less magnitude.

Canada was formerly divided into two colonies, Canada West, or Upper Canada, and Canada East, or Lower Canada. They are now united under one colonial government, though each retains some of its peculiar laws and customs, and the inhabitants differ in many respects.

Canada West.—Area, 147,822, square miles; population, (1861,) 1,396,091.

Canada West is rapidly progressing in population and wealth. It contains some excellent agricultural country, and the facilities for commerce are excellent. The country about the St. Lawrence and the lakes is being rapidly settled.

Canada East.—Area, 210,000 square miles; population, (1861,) 1,110,664.

This portion of Canada has been longer settled than the upper province, being the territory which was chiefly settled by the French when the country belonged to France; but its progress has not been so rapid as that of Canada West, and it does not offer the agricultural advantages which the latter possesses.

In Canada West the population is principally of English or Irish origin, while in Canada East a majority of the people are of French origin. Protestantism predominates in the former, while the Roman Catholic is the prevailing religion of the latter.

Agriculture is the chief employment of the population, and lumbering next. The forests yield vast quantities of timber. Ship-building, also, is an important branch of industry. Of minerals, gold has been found on the Chaudiere River, and more recently discoveries of it in other places have been reported. Copper is found in the western part, and abounds about Lakes Superior and Huron, where considerable quantities have been mined, and iron, of excellent quality, is found in some localities, but the mines yield

but a small proportion of the products of the country. In 1857, the agricultural products, including animals, were valued at about \$10,000,000; products of the forest, at about \$11,500,000; manufactures, at about \$400,000, and products of the mines, at about \$280,000. There are indications of coal, but no mines are worked.

Education is encouraged, and a common school system is established, supported partly by legislative grant, and partly by local taxation and contribution. In 1856, the amount expended for common schools in Canada West was about \$1,225,000, and in Canada East, about \$1,000,000.

The chief towns are, —

Ottawa, the capital, (selected by the queen, to settle the differences arising from the claims of various cities,) situated on the Ottawa River, formerly called By-town. Population, 14,669.

	Population, (1861.)
Montreal, in Canada East,	90,323
Quebec, " "	51,109
Three Rivers, " "	6,058
Sherbrooke,	5,899
Toronto, in Canada West,	44,821
Hamilton, " "	19,096
Kingston, " "	13,743
London, " "	11,555

The following is the population of Canada by counties, (in addition to the foregoing cities,) according to the census of 1861:—

CANADA EAST, OR LOWER CANADA.

Population.	Population.
Assumption, 17,355	Maskinongé, 14,790
Argenteuil, 12,897	Mégantic, 17,889
Arthabaska, 13,473	Missisquoi, 18,608
Bagot, 18,841	Montcalm, 14,724
Beauce, 20,416	Montmagny, 13,386
Beauharnois, 15,742	Montmorency, 11,136
Bellechasse, 16,062	Napierville, 14,513
Berthier, 19,608	Nicolet, 21,563
Bonaventure, 13,092	Outaouais, 27,757
Brome, 12,732	Pontiac, 13,257
Chambly, 13,132	Portneuf, 21,291
Champlain, 20,008	Quebec, 27,893
Charlevoix, 15,223	Richelieu, 19,070
Chateauguay, 17,837	Richmond, 8,884
Chicoutimi, 10,478	Rimouski, 20,854
Compton, 10,210	Rouville, 18,227
Dorchester, 16,195	Saguenay, 6,101
Drummond, 12,356	Shefford, 17,779
Gaspé and Madeleine	Soulanges, 12,221
Isles, 14,077	St. Hyacinthe, 18,877
Hochelaga, 16,474	St. Jean, 14,853
Huntingdon, 17,491	St. Maurice, 11,100
Iberville, 16,891	Stanstead, 12,258
Islet, 12,300	Témiscouata, 18,561
Jacques Cartier, 11,218	Terrebonne, 19,460
Joliette, 21,198	Deux-Montagnes, 18,408
Kamouraska, 21,058	Vaudreuil, 12,282
Laprairie, 14,475	Verchères, 15,485
Laval, 10,507	Wolfe, 6,548
Lévis, 22,091	Yamaska, 16,045
Lotbinière, 20,018	
Total, including cities,	1,110,664

CANADA WEST, OR UPPER CANADA.

Population.	Population.
Brant, 30,338	Norfolk, 28,590
Bruce, 27,499	Northumberland, 40,592
Carleton, 29,620	Ontario, 41,604
Dundas, 18,777	Oxford, 46,226
Durham, 39,115	Peel, 27,240
Elgin, 32,050	Perth, 38,083
Essex, 25,211	Peterborough, 24,651
Frontenac, 27,347	Prescott, 15,499
Glengary, 21,187	Prince Edward, 20,869
Greenville, 24,191	Renfrew, 20,325
Grey, 37,750	Russell, 6,824
Haldimand, 23,708	Simcoe, 44,720
Halton, 22,794	Stormont, 18,129
Hastings, 44,970	Victoria, 23,039
Huron, 51,954	Waterloo, 38,750
Kent, 31,183	Welland, 24,988
Lambton, 24,916	Wellington, 49,200
Lanark, 31,639	Wentworth, 31,832
Leeds, 35,700	York, 59,674
Lennox and Addington, 28,002	Algoma, District, 4,916
Lincoln, 27,625	Nipissing, District, 2,094
Middlesex, 48,736	

Total, including cities before given, 1,396,091

Railroad facilities are rapidly multiplying in Canada, and there are now upwards of 2,000 miles in operation and under construction. These railroads open communication, not only with the interior of Canada, but with the North-Western States of the Union, and connecting with the similar works in the United States, connect Canada with the Atlantic at Portland, Boston, and New York. Similar communication with Halifax, Nova Scotia, is in progress.

Not less important to the interests of Canada are the numerous canals, which greatly facilitate commerce. The most important of these are the Rideau and Welland Canals. The Rideau Canal extends from Lake Ontario, at Kingston, to the Ottawa, at Chaudiere, 135 miles, and is capable of receiving vessels of 120 tons burden. The Welland Canal connects Lake Erie with Lake Ontario, around Niagara Falls. It is of sufficient capacity to float vessels of considerable size, and some of the largest lake steamers pass through it. By means of these canals vessels have passed from the lake ports in the Western States to the Atlantic, and one or more have sailed from Europe to Chicago, in Illinois. The amount of tonnage which passes through the Welland Canal is very large. Various other canals facilitate navigation around the rapids of the St. Lawrence and other rivers.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

Area, 27,700 square miles; population, (1851,) 193,800.

New Brunswick is indented by numerous bays, the principal of which is the Bay of Chaleur, 90 miles in length and 15 to 30 miles in width. There are also numerous rivers and creeks, which afford facilities for transportation. The soil in the valleys of the rivers is very fertile, and the country is capable of great agricultural products. The quantity of land under cultivation, in 1851, was 644,000 acres.

The chief products of New Brunswick are from the

fisheries, agriculture, the forest, and mining. Coal is abundant, the coal fields occupying an extent of 10,000 square miles. Iron, copper, plumbago, and manganese also abound.

The chief towns are, —

	Population.
Frederickton, the capital,	4,500
St. Johns,	22,800
St. Andrews,	8,000
Bathurst,	2,000
Liverpool,	

New Brunswick is divided into 14 counties. Internal improvements and railroad facilities are increasing, and several important railroads are already in operation.

NOVA SCOTIA.

Area, (including Cape Breton,) 18,746 square miles; population, (1861,) 530,699.

Nova Scotia is indented with numerous bays, and it abounds in small lakes, while there are also several rivers navigable for some miles. The most remarkable bay is Mines Bay, the eastern arm of the Bay of Fundy, penetrating 60 miles inland. The tides rush into these bays with great impetuosity, and in Mines Bay it sometimes rises from 50 to 70 feet.

Agriculture flourishes, though a considerable portion of the soil is not fertile. In 1851 there were about 540,000 acres under cultivation, 40,000 acres of which was diked land. The chief mineral product is coal, excellent bituminous coal abounding in several parts of the province. In 1850, the quantity of coal produced was about 115,000 chaldrons, and the quantity has gradually increased. Iron ore of excellent quality is also abundant. Native copper and silver are also found in the mountains of the northern part. Large quantities of gypsum are also found.

Gold has been found recently (1861) in Nova Scotia. The first discoveries were in the neighborhood of Tangier. The following is from the report of Mr. Howe, the Provincial Secretary: —

“The Tangier River is a stream of no great magnitude, taking its rise not very far from the sources of the Musquodoboit, flowing through a chain of lakes, which drain, for many miles on either side, a rugged and wilderness country, and falling into the Atlantic about 40 miles to the eastward of Halifax. In this region from 600 to 800 persons have been employed the present summer.

“The lowest depth yet reached is 45 feet, and the largest nugget found is valued at \$300. The gold is got in quartz veins, running through slate or earth, resting upon granite, in the form of scales, jagged and torn bits, like shot or bullets fired against a wall. It is sometimes globular, but seldom completely round. The veins run east and west.

“In June, gold was discovered in the county of Lunenburg, about 60 miles to the westward of Halifax. A peninsula, which forms the western side of Lunenburg harbor, and which stretches from the shire town of that name for five miles into the Atlantic, terminates in a bluff promontory about 40 feet high, with steep cliffs on the eastern side, but on the western

sloping down to a stretch of level land with another bay beyond.

“The quartz veins run in all directions through the promontory, and are visible to the naked eye without labor.”

Gold has also been discovered in other places, though but little that is tangible in regard to the product is given to us.

Nova Scotia is divided in 18 counties. The chief towns are, —

Population, (1851.)	Population, (1851.)
Halifax, capital, 26,000	Annapolis, . . . 1,200
Pictou, . . . 2,000	Ariehat, . . . 1,200
Antigonish, . . . 1,500	

Pictou, Windsor, Digby, and Sidney, population each about 1,000.

Cape Breton, an island north-east of Nova Scotia, forms a part of the province. Area, 3,122 square miles; population, about 55,000. Sidney and Ariehat are on the island.

ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

Area, 57,000 square miles; population, (1851,) 101,600.

The climate and soil of Newfoundland are not favorable to agriculture, and the chief employment of the inhabitants is in the fisheries. Large quantities of fish and of seal skins are exported.

Chief town, St. John's; population, (1852,) 21,000.

Trinity Bay, on the eastern shore of the island, is the place of the western terminus of the Atlantic telegraph cable, by which communication was had for a short time with Europe, by way of Ireland, from which this part of the island is about 1,650 miles distant.

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.

Area, 2,100 square miles; population, (1854,) 90,000.

This island, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, east of New Brunswick and north of Nova Scotia, has a climate milder than that of the main land, and the soil is excellent, rendering it a fine agricultural country. It has no valuable minerals. It is sometimes considered as a dependency of Canada, but has a separate government. The principal town is Charlottetown, the capital; population, 4,800.

OTHER BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN ISLANDS.

Anticosti, a desert island, at the mouth of the St. Lawrence. Area, 2,600 square miles.

Magdalen Isles, a chain of small islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Population, 2,000.

Bermuda Isles. About 300 small islands, containing an area of about 20 square miles, situated in the Atlantic Ocean, 600 miles east of South Carolina. Many of the islands are not habitable. Others produce fruits and vegetables, of both tropical and temperate regions, in abundance.

Vancouver's Island, west of British Columbia, in the Pacific, contains an area of 16,000 square miles. It has some small settlements, and from its position and natural advantages will grow with that new colony.

BOOKS LXXIX.—LXXXII.

THE UNITED STATES.

The United States comprise the central portion of North America, extending from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific, and from the Gulf of Mexico to the great lakes, or from latitude 24° 30' to latitude 49°. The average length of the territory, from east to west, is about 2,400 miles, and the average breadth, from north to south, is 1,300 miles. The greatest length is 2,700 miles, and greatest breadth 1,600 miles. The area is 2,936,166 square miles. All this territory lies within the temperate zone, and has a variety of climate, from the almost tropical heat of the southern portion, to the more rigorous but not unpropitious climate of the north. It is greatly diversified in its surface, and affords a great variety of soil.

Topographically, the territory of the United States is divided, by the Appalachian chain and the Rocky Mountains, into three grand sections, viz., the Atlantic slope, the Pacific slope, and the Mississippi valley. The Atlantic slope, lying between the Appalachian chain and the Atlantic Ocean, extends from Maine to Alabama, and varies from 75 to nearly 300 miles in width. The Pacific slope, lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean, extends through the whole territory from north to south, and is from 600 to 1,000 miles in breadth. This slope is, however, broken and divided by several mountain ranges, as the Coast Range, and the chain called Sierra Nevada, in California, and Cascade Mountains, in Oregon and Washington Territory. The Mississippi valley comprises all the vast territory lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Appalachian chain, which is drained chiefly by the Mississippi and its tributaries, and extends through 18 degrees of latitude, and from 800 to 1,600 miles in breadth. On the north, this section rises to a table land, of an average elevation of about 1,500 feet above the sea, varying from 800 to 1,900 feet. From this table land the waters flow, in various directions, towards the Great Lakes and Hudson's Bay, but chiefly towards the great valley of the Mississippi. In some parts of the great valley are chains of low mountains and ridges, sufficient to diversify the surface, but not dividing it into distinct topographical sections. Towards the west, the valley rises almost imperceptibly towards the Rocky Mountains, at the base of which it is about 7,500 feet above the sea. The southern portion of the valley is low, and towards the Gulf it is for the most part a vast swamp or marsh.

Mountains.—The Rocky Mountains form the most extensive range in the United States, extending through the country, from north to south. Near the Pacific coast is a chain of mountains stretching from the Straits of Juan de Fuca to about the 34th degree of north latitude, where it joins the Sierra Nevada, in the south part of California. As a range, they run parallel to the Pacific. East of this is a lofty chain, bearing the name of the Cascade Range, in Washington and Oregon Territories, and Sierra Nevada, in California. The greatest ascertained heights in the United States are in this chain. Mount Shaste, Mount St.

Helen's, Mount Hood, and Mount Rainier rise to heights varying from 12,000 to 14,000 feet. This chain extends from Russian America to the southern extremity of Old California, at an average distance from the sea of 100 to 150 miles, and has a mean elevation of 5,000 or 6,000 feet. Between the Cascade and Rocky Mountains are several groups, called Blue, Humboldt, and Wahsatch Mountains. The Rocky Mountains also run parallel to the Pacific, at distances varying from 450 to 850 miles, within the territory of the United States, and attain, in Fremont's Peak, (the highest known summit,) an elevation of 13,570 feet. The great Appalachian range extends, with some breaks, from Maine to Alabama. This is not a high range, though Mount Katahdin in Maine, Mount Washington in New Hampshire, Mount Mansfield in Vermont, and Mount Marcy in New York, reach severally the heights of 5,000, 6,234, 4,280, and 5,460 feet. South of New York, this range and its outlying ridges are mostly within an elevation of 2,000 feet, though the peaks of Otter and White Top, in the southern part of Virginia, and Black Mountain, or Mount Mitchel, in North Carolina, (the highest land east of the Mississippi) rise from 4,000 to 6,476 feet, but in no case do the summits reach the line of perpetual snow.

Rivers.—Through the middle of the territory of the United States, from the summit of the great table-land of Minnesota, runs the Mississippi for 3,000 miles, "like the trunk of a vast tree, with its roots in the Gulf of Mexico, and its branches extending east to the Alleghanies, and west to the Rocky Mountains, receiving the tributes, of perhaps, 100 important affluents," some of which, such as the Missouri, Arkansas, and Red Rivers (including South Fork) from the west, and the Ohio from the east, are streams of the first class in point of magnitude and volume of water.

These rivers are severally, in the order named, about 2,900, 2,000, 2,000, and 1,000 miles in length, and many of the secondary tributaries have courses of from 300 to 1,000 miles. The country drained by the Mississippi reaches from Western New York and Pennsylvania on the east, to the summits of the Rocky Mountains on the west, and from the 49th parallel of north latitude to the Gulf of Mexico. The rivers of the Alleghany slope of the most importance, are, beginning in Maine, the Penobscot, Kennebec, Connecticut, Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac, Chowan, Roanoke, Pamlico, or Tar River, Neuse, Cape Fear, Great Pedee, Santee, Savannah, and Altamaha. These are rivers of at least 300, and some 600, miles in length, and are more or less navigable, some for vessels of the largest class 100 miles or more, all of them flowing directly into the Atlantic, or into bays opening into that ocean. The southern slope, towards the Gulf of Mexico, has also several large rivers, independent of the Mississippi, as the Appalachian and Mobile, with their large tributaries on the east of the Mississippi, and the Sabine, Trinity, Brazos, Colorado, and Rio Grande del Norte, west of that river. These streams vary in length, including their main affluents, from 300 to 1,800 miles, and are navigable by steamboats from 100 to nearly 500 miles. The Rio Grande forms the boundary between Texas and Mexico.

The Pacific slope has but one great river flowing through the Cascade Mountains into the ocean. This is the Columbia, a river of 1,500 miles in length, and with several important affluents from 300 to 800 miles in length. There is but one other great opening into the territory of the United States from the Pacific, viz., the channel, or strait, from one to two miles in width, leading into the Bay of San Francisco, which receives the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers, each about 300 miles in length. The Colorado of the West, entering the Gulf of California, drains the eastern and south-eastern portions of the great basin between the Rocky and Sierra Nevada Mountains.

Lakes.—The whole of the United States, north of the 42d parallel of latitude, is dotted over with sheets of water, from a few miles circuit, to those inland seas which separate British America from the United States. There are five of these, viz., Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, Superior, and Michigan, the latter only being wholly within the limits of the United States. These vast lakes are navigated by steamers of the highest tonnage, and by sailing vessels of large capacity, affording a continuous navigation of 1,100 miles, and, by aid of the Welland Canal around the Falls of Niagara, and that around the Saut St. Mary, (recently completed,) furnish an inland ship navigation of 1,600 miles. These lakes cover areas of from 6,300 to 32,000 square miles each, or a total of 90,000 square miles.

The United States consist of thirty-four States, composing the Federal Union, to which belong the outlying territories, not yet formed into states, but organized as seven territories, and the District of Columbia. The limits of this Appendix will not admit of a detailed account of each State, but statistics of the more important subjects will be found succinctly given in the following tables.

According to geographical situation, the States are usually arranged as follows:—

NEW ENGLAND, OR EASTERN STATES.

	Area in Sq. Miles.	Total Population.	Pop. to Sq. Mile.	No. of Counties.
Maine, . . .	30,000	628,279	20.94	16
New Hampshire, . . .	9,280	326,073	35.14	10
Vermont, . . .	9,056	315,098	34.79	14
Massachusetts, . . .	7,800	1,231,066	157.83	14
Rhode Island, . . .	1,306	174,620	133.71	5
Connecticut, . . .	4,674	460,147	98.45	8

NORTHERN, OR MIDDLE STATES.

New York, . . .	46,000	3,880,735	84.36	60
New Jersey, . . .	8,320	672,035	80.77	21
Pennsylvania, . . .	46,000	2,906,115	63.18	65
Delaware, . . .	2,120	112,216	52.93	3

SOUTHERN STATES.

Maryland, . . .	9,356	687,049	73.43	22
Virginia, . . .	61,352	1,596,318	26.02	148
North Carolina, . . .	45,000	992,622	22.06	87
South Carolina, . . .	24,500	703,708	28.72	30
Georgia, . . .	58,000	1,057,286	18.23	137
Florida, . . .	59,268	140,425	2.37	37
Alabama, . . .	50,722	964,201	19.01	52

	Area in Sq. Miles.	Total Population.	Pop. to Sq. Mile.	No. of Counties.
Mississippi, . . .	47,156	791,305	16.78	60
Louisiana, . . .	46,431	708,002	15.25	48
Texas, . . .	237,321	604,215	2.55	151

WESTERN STATES.

Ohio,	39,964	2,339,502	58.54	88
Indiana,	33,809	1,350,428	39.93	72
Illinois,	55,405	1,711,951	30.90	103
Michigan,	56,243	749,113	13.32	62
Wisconsin,	53,924	775,881	14.39	58
Iowa,	55,045	674,948	12.26	99
Minnesota,	83,531	173,855	2.08	64
Kansas,	uncertain	107,206	41
Kentucky,	37,680	1,155,684	30.67	109
Tennessee,	45,600	1,109,801	24.34	84
Missouri,	67,380	1,182,012	17.54	113
Arkansas,	52,198	435,450	8.34	54

PACIFIC STATES.

California,	188,982	379,994	2.01	44
Oregon,	95,274	52,465	.55	19

Principal cities and towns, and population. Capital cities in Italics.

MAINE.

	Population.
<i>Augusta</i> , on the Kennebec River,	7,609
Portland, (chief seaport,) on Casco Bay,	26,341
Bangor, on the Penobscot River,	16,407
Bath, on the Kennebec,	8,076
Eastport, on Passamaquoddy Bay,	

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

<i>Concord</i> , on the Merrimack,	12,000
Manchester, manufacturing town, on the Merrimack,	20,109
Portsmouth, only seaport, on the Piscataqua,	9,335
Dover, manufacturing town, on the Cochecho,	8,502
Nashua, " " on Merrimack,	10,065

VERMONT.

<i>Montpelier</i> ,	2,411
Burlington, on Lake Champlain,	7,714
Brattleboro', on the Connecticut,	3,855
Windsor, " "	1,669

MASSACHUSETTS.

<i>Boston</i> , on Massachusetts Bay,	177,818
Cambridge, ^a near Boston,	26,060
Charlestown, ^a " "	25,063
Chelsea, ^a " "	13,395
Roxbury, ^a " "	25,137
Lowell, manufacturing, on the Merrimack,	36,827
Lawrence, " " "	17,639
Lynn, shoe manufacturing, near Salem,	19,083
Newburyport, commercial and manufacturing, near the mouth of the Merrimack,	13,401
Salem, commercial, on Massachusetts Bay,	22,252
Worcester, in the central part,	24,960
Springfield, on the Connecticut,	15,199

^a These four cities (Cambridge, Charlestown, Chelsea, and Roxbury) might properly be considered a part of Boston, with which they are joined (except Chelsea) as closely as if they were but one continuous city. The combined population would be 267,467.

	Population.
New Bedford, commercial,	22,300
Fall River, " and manufacturing,	14,026
Taunton, manufacturing,	15,376
Fitchburg, "	7,805
Dorchester, near Boston,	9,761
Gloucester,	10,904

RHODE ISLAND.

<i>Providence</i> ,	50,666	<i>Bristol</i> ,	5,271
<i>Newport</i> ,	10,508		

CONNECTICUT.

<i>Hartford</i> ,	29,154	<i>Norwich</i> ,	14,048
<i>New Haven</i> ,	39,267	<i>New London</i> ,	10,115
<i>Bridgeport</i> ,	13,299	<i>Middletown</i> ,	5,182

NEW YORK.

<i>Albany</i> ,	62,367	<i>Oswego</i> ,	16,816
<i>New York</i> ,	805,651	<i>Poughkeepsie</i> ,	14,726
<i>Brooklyn</i> ,	266,661	<i>Rochester</i> ,	48,204
<i>Buffalo</i> ,	81,129	<i>Rome</i> ,	6,246
<i>Elmira</i> ,	8,682	<i>Schenectady</i> ,	9,579
<i>Kingston</i> ,	16,640	<i>Syracuse</i> ,	28,119
<i>Lockport</i> ,	13,523	<i>Troy</i> ,	39,232
<i>Newburg</i> ,	15,196	<i>Utica</i> ,	22,529
<i>Ogdensburg</i> ,	7,409		

NEW JERSEY.

<i>Trenton</i> ,	17,228	<i>Newark</i> ,	71,914
<i>Camden</i> ,	14,358	<i>New Brunswick</i> ,	11,256
<i>Jersey City</i> ,	29,226	<i>Patterson</i> ,	19,588

PENNSYLVANIA.

<i>Harrisburg</i> ,	13,405	<i>Lancaster</i> ,	17,603
<i>Alleghany</i> ,	28,702	<i>Philadelphia</i> ,	562,529
<i>Carbondale</i> ,	5,575	<i>Pittsburg</i> ,	49,217
<i>Chambersburg</i> ,	5,255	<i>Pottsville</i> ,	9,444
<i>Easton</i> ,	8,944	<i>Reading</i> ,	23,161

DELAWARE.

<i>Dover</i> ,	1,289	<i>Wilmington</i> ,	13,979
<i>Milford</i> ,	1,179		

MARYLAND.

<i>Annapolis</i> ,	4,529	<i>Hagerstown</i> *,	3,879
<i>Baltimore</i> ,	212,418	<i>Havre de Grace</i> *,	1,335
<i>Frederick City</i> ,	8,143	<i>Williamsport</i> *,	1,091

VIRGINIA.

<i>Richmond</i> ,	37,910	<i>Norfolk</i> ,	15,611
<i>Alexandria</i> ,	12,652	<i>Petersburg</i> ,	18,266
<i>Fredericksburg</i> ,	5,022	<i>Portsmouth</i> ,	9,502
<i>Harper's Ferry</i> ,	1,339	<i>Wheeling</i> ,	14,083
<i>Lynchburg</i> ,	6,853	<i>Winchester</i> ,	4,392
<i>Leesburg</i> *,	1,691		

NORTH CAROLINA.

<i>Raleigh</i> ,	4,780	<i>Newbern</i> ,	5,432
<i>Beaufort</i> ,	1,610	<i>Wilmington</i> ,	9,552
<i>Fayetteville</i> ,	4,790	<i>Washington</i> *,	2,015
<i>Goldsborough</i> ,	885		

SOUTH CAROLINA.

<i>Columbia</i> ,	8,059	<i>Charleston</i> ,	40,578
<i>Beaufort</i> *,		<i>Camden</i> ,	1,621

GEORGIA.

	Population.		Population.
<i>Milledgeville</i> ,	2,480	<i>Columbus</i> ,	9,621
<i>Atlanta</i> ,	9,554	<i>Macon</i> ,	8,247
<i>Augusta</i> ,	12,493	<i>Rome</i> ,	4,010
<i>Athens</i> ,	3,848	<i>Savannah</i> ,	22,292

FLORIDA.

<i>Tallahassee</i> ,	1,932	<i>Pensacola</i> ,	2,876
<i>Key West</i> ,	2,832	<i>St. Augustine</i> ,	1,914

ALABAMA.

<i>Montgomery</i> ,	35,902	<i>Tuscaloosa</i> ,	3,989
<i>Huntsville</i> ,	3,634	<i>Wetumpka</i> *,	
<i>Mobile</i> ,	29,258		

MISSISSIPPI.

<i>Jackson</i> ,	3,199	<i>Holly Springs</i> ,	2,987
<i>Aberdeen</i> *,		<i>Natchez</i> ,	6,612
<i>Bolivar</i> *,		<i>Vicksburg</i> ,	4,591
<i>Columbus</i> ,	3,308		

LOUISIANA.

<i>Baton Rouge</i> ,	5,428	<i>Natchitoches</i> *,	1,261
<i>New Orleans</i> ,	168,675	<i>Opelousas</i> *,	
<i>Carrollton</i> *,	1,470	<i>Shreveport</i> ,	1,728

TEXAS.

<i>Austin</i> ,	3,494	<i>Houston</i> ,	4,845
<i>Brownsville</i> ,	2,734	<i>Matagorda</i> *,	
<i>Galveston</i> ,	7,307	<i>San Antonio</i> ,	8,235

OHIO.

<i>Columbus</i> ,	18,554	<i>Portsmouth</i> ,	6,268
<i>Cincinnati</i> ,	161,044	<i>Sandusky</i> ,	8,408
<i>Cleveland</i> ,	43,417	<i>Steubenville</i> ,	6,154
<i>Dayton</i> ,	20,081	<i>Springfield</i> ,	7,002
<i>Hamilton</i> ,	7,223	<i>Toledo</i> ,	13,768
<i>Newark</i> ,	4,675	<i>Zanesville</i> ,	9,229
<i>Piqua</i> ,	4,616	<i>Xenia</i> ,	4,658

INDIANA.

<i>Indianapolis</i> ,	18,611	<i>Madison</i> ,	8,130
<i>Cannelton</i> ,	2,155	<i>New Albany</i> ,	12,647
<i>Evansville</i> ,	11,484	<i>Richmond</i> ,	6,603
<i>La Fayette</i> ,	9,387	<i>Terre Haute</i> ,	8,594
<i>Lawrenceburg</i> ,	3,599		

ILLINOIS.

<i>Springfield</i> ,	9,320	<i>Joliet</i> ,	7,104
<i>Chicago</i> ,	109,260	<i>Peoria</i> ,	14,045
<i>Alton</i> ,	7,338	<i>Quincy</i> ,	13,632
<i>Bloomington</i> ,	7,075	<i>Rockford</i> ,	6,979
<i>Galena</i> ,	8,193	<i>Rock Island</i> ,	5,130

MICHIGAN.

<i>Lansing</i> ,	3,074	<i>Grand Rapids</i> ,	8,085
<i>Adrian</i> ,	6,213	<i>Kalamazoo</i> ,	6,070
<i>Ann Arbor</i> ,	4,483	<i>Pontiac</i> ,	2,575
<i>Detroit</i> ,	45,619	<i>Ypsilanti</i> ,	3,955

WISCONSIN.

<i>Madison</i> ,	6,611	<i>Mineral Point</i> ,	2,389
<i>Beloit</i> ,	4,098	<i>Racine</i> ,	7,822
<i>Fond du Lac</i> ,	5,450	<i>Sheboygan</i> ,	4,262
<i>Milwaukee</i> ,	45,246	<i>Watertown</i> ,	5,302

* Not returned. The population given is that of 1850.

IOWA.

	Population.		Population.
<i>Iowa City</i> , . . .	5,214	Davenport, . . .	11,267
Burlington, . . .	6,706	Fort Madison, . . .	1,886
Des Moines, . . .	3,965	Keokuk, . . .	29,226
Dubuque, . . .	13,000	Muscatine, . . .	5,324

MINNESOTA.

<i>St. Paul</i> , . . .	10,401	Stillwater, . . .	2,380
Fort Snelling,* . . .			

KANSAS.

Lawrence, . . .	1,645	Leavenworth, . . .	7,429
Lecompton, . . .	917		

KENTUCKY.

<i>Frankfort</i> , . . .	3,702	Lexington, . . .	9,321
Bowling Green,* . . .		Louisville, . . .	68,033
Covington, . . .	16,471	Maysville, . . .	4,106
Danville, . . .	4,962	Newport, . . .	10,046
Hickman, . . .	1,006	Paducah, . . .	4,590

TENNESSEE.

<i>Nashville</i> , . . .	16,988	Clarksville,* . . .	
Chattanooga,* . . .		Knoxville, . . .	2,076

	Population.		Population
Memphis, . . .	22,623	Shelbyville, . . .	1,615
Murfreesboro', . . .	2,861		

MISSOURI.

<i>Jefferson City</i> , . . .	3,082	Lexington, . . .	4,122
Booneville, . . .	2,596	St. Louis, . . .	160,773
Hannibal, . . .	6,505	Weston, . . .	1,816
Independence, . . .	3,164		

ARKANSAS.

<i>Little Rock</i> , . . .	3,727	Fort Smith, . . .	1,530
Batesville, . . .	670	Van Buren, . . .	969
Helena,* . . .			

CALIFORNIA.

Sacramento City, . . .	13,785	San Francisco, . . .	56,802
Benicia, . . .	1,470	Sonora,* . . .	
Marysville, . . .	4,740	Stockton,* . . .	
Placerville, . . .	1,754		

OREGON.

Oregon City, . . .	889	Salem,* . . .	
Portland,* . . .			

Population of the States and Territories, &c. — 1860.

STATES.	Census of 1850.				Census of 1850.	Ratio of Increase from 1850 to 1860.	Representative Population.	Representation under the Apportionment.			Representation as increased by the Law of March 4, 1862, in 38th Congress.
	White.	Free Colored.	Slave.	Total.				In the 38th Congress.	Loss.	Gain.	
Alabama,	526,431	2,690	435,080	964,201	771,623	24.96	790,169	6	1		6
Arkansas,	324,191	144	111,115	435,450	209,897	107.46	391,004	3		1	3
California,	361,353	4,086		365,439	92,597	310.37	365,439	3		1	3
Connecticut,	451,520	8,627		460,147	370,792	24.10	460,147	4			4
Delaware,	90,589	19,829	1,798	112,216	91,532	22.60	111,496	1			1
Florida,	77,748	932	61,745	140,425	87,445	60.59	115,727	1			1
Georgia,	591,588	3,500	462,198	1,057,286	906,185	16.67	872,406	7	1		7
Illinois,	1,704,323	7,628		1,711,951	851,470	191.06	1,711,951	13		4	14
Indiana,	1,339,000	11,428		1,350,428	988,416	36.63	1,350,428	11			11
Iowa,	673,844	1,069		674,913	192,214	251.14	674,913	5		3	6
Kansas,	106,579	625	2	107,206			107,206	1			1
Kentucky,	919,517	10,684	225,483	1,155,684	982,405	17.64	1,065,490	8	2		9
Louisiana,	357,629	18,647	331,726	708,002	517,762	36.74	575,311	5		1	5
Maine,	626,952	1,327		628,279	583,169	7.74	628,279	5	1		6
Maryland,	515,918	83,942	87,189	687,049	583,034	17.84	652,173	5	1		5
Massachusetts,	1,221,464	9,602		1,231,066	994,514	23.79	1,231,066	10	1		10
Michigan,	742,314	6,799		749,113	397,654	88.38	749,113	6		2	6
Minnesota,	171,864	759		172,123	6,077	2,760.87	172,123	1	1		2
Mississippi,	353,901	273	436,631	791,305	606,526	30.47	616,652	5			5
Missouri,	1,063,509	3,572	114,931	1,182,012	682,044	73.30	1,136,039	9		2	9
New Hampshire,	325,579	494		326,073	317,976	2.55	326,073	3			3
New Jersey,	646,699	25,318	18	672,035	489,555	37.27	672,027	5			5
New York,	3,831,730	49,005		3,880,735	3,097,394	25.29	3,880,735	31	2		31
North Carolina,	631,100	30,463	331,059	992,622	869,039	14.20	860,198	7	1		7
Ohio,	2,302,838	36,673		2,339,511	1,980,329	18.14	2,339,511	18	3		19
Oregon,	52,337	128		52,465	13,294	294.65	52,465	1			1
Pennsylvania,	2,849,266	56,849		2,906,115	2,311,786	25.71	2,906,115	23	2		24
Rhode Island,	170,668	3,952		174,620	147,545	18.35	174,620	1	1		2
South Carolina,	291,388	9,914	402,406	703,708	668,507	5.27	542,745	4	2		4
Tennessee,	826,782	7,300	275,719	1,109,801	1,002,717	10.68	999,513	8	2		8
Texas,	421,294	355	182,566	604,215	212,592	184.22	531,188	4		2	4
Vermont,	314,389	709		315,098	314,120	0.31	315,098	2	1		3
Virginia,	1,047,411	58,042	490,865	1,596,318	1,421,661	12.29	1,399,972	11	2		11
Wisconsin,	774,710	1,171		775,881	305,391	154.06	775,881	6		3	6
	26,706,425	476,536	3,950,531	31,148,047	23,067,262	35.04	29,553,273	233			241
TERRITORIES.											
Colorado,	34,231	46		34,277							
Dacotah,	2,576			2,576							
Nbraska,	28,759	67	15	28,841							
Nevada,	6,812	45		6,857							
New Mexico,	82,924	85		83,009	61,547	51.94					
Utah,	40,214	30	29	40,273	11,380	253.89					
Washington,	11,138	30		11,168							
District of Columbia,	60,764	11,131	3,185	75,080	51,687	45.26					
	26,973,843	487,970	3,953,760	31,443,322	23,191,876	35.59					

* Not returned. The population given is that of 1850.

† Indians.

MINERAL PRODUCTS IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1860.

	Value.
Iron ore mined, . . . 2,514,282 tons, ^a	\$19,487,790
Copper, 14,432 "	3,316,516
Lead,	977,281
Zinc, 11,800 tons,	72,600
Nickel,	28,176
Coal, Anthracite, . . . 9,398,332 tons.	
" Bituminous, . . . 5,775,077 "	
Aggregate, 15,173,409 "	
Aggregate value,	19,365,765

Gold, the production of the United States, deposited at the U. S. Mint and its branches, during the year ending June, 1861, \$34,216,889 52

Of this, \$31,800,000 was from California, and \$2,000,000 from Kansas or Nevada.

Silver, the production of the United States, deposited at the mint and its branches during the same period, \$610,011 20

These statistics do not show the real product of the precious metals produced in the United States, nor does the foregoing statement relative to other metals appear to be complete, though taken from the preliminary report on the eighth census.

Statistics of Coal produced in the United States during the year ending June 1, 1860.

STATES.	Bituminous.		Anthracite.	
	Bushels.	Value.	Tons.	Value.
Rhode Island,	95,000	\$28,500	1,000	\$5,000
Pennsylvania,	66,994,295	2,833,859	9,397,332	11,869,574
Maryland,	14,200,000	464,338		
Ohio,	28,339,900	1,539,713		
Indiana,	379,035	27,000		
Illinois,	14,258,120	964,187		
Iowa,	72,500	6,500		
Missouri,	97,000	8,200		
Kentucky,	6,732,000	476,800		
Virginia,	9,542,627	690,188		
Georgia,	48,000	4,800		
Alabama,	10,000	1,200		
Tennessee,	3,474,100	413,662		
Washington Territory,	134,350	32,244		
	144,376,927	7,491,191	9,398,332	11,874,574
Anthracite — tons,		9,398,332		\$11,874,574
Bituminous — tons,		5,775,077		7,491,191
Aggregate tons,	15,173,409			\$19,365,765
Value of coal mined in 1850,				7,173,750
Increase, (169.9 per cent.,)				12,192,015

^a Of the whole quantity of iron, Pennsylvania produced 62.5 per cent. Pennsylvania also produced the whole of the nickel and zinc given above. That state also produced 75.9 per cent of all the coal, in value.

LEADING AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE, 1860.

Indian Corn,	830,451,707 bushels.
Wheat,	171,183,381 "
Oats,	172,554,688 "
Rye,	20,976,286 "
Buckwheat,	17,664,914 "
Barley,	15,635,119 "
Rice,	187,140,173 "
Peas and Beans,	15,188,013 "
Potatoes, (Irish,)	110,571,201 "
" (Sweet,)	41,606,302 "
Tobacco,	429,390,771 pounds.
Hops,	11,010,012 "
Wool,	60,511,343 "
Flax,	3,783,000 "
Hemp,	17,300 tons.
Hay,	19,129,128 "
Butter,	460,509,854 pounds.
Cheese,	105,875,135 "
Orchard products, (value,)	19,759,361 dollars.
Market garden "	15,300,885 "
Cotton, (ginned,)	5,198,077 bales, of 400 lbs. ea.
Sugar, (cane,)	302,205 hhd., 1,000 lbs. "
" (maple,)	38,863,884 pounds.
Molasses, (all kinds,)	25,516,699 gallons

Lands improved,	163,261,389 acres.
Cash value of farms,	6,650,872,507 dollars.
Value of farming implements and machinery,	247,027,496 "
Value of live stock,	1,107,490,216 "
Value of animals slaughtered,	212,032,055 "

Of the agricultural productions above named, it will be seen by the following table (page 692) that the state of Illinois is by far the greatest producer of Indian corn and wheat, the quantity produced in 1860 being upwards of 115,000,000 bushels of Indian corn, and 24,000,000 bushels of wheat. Wisconsin, Indiana, and Ohio are the next largest producers of wheat, and Missouri, Ohio, and Indiana the next largest producers of Indian corn.

South Carolina and Florida produce the greater part of the rice, the former producing more than 119,000,000 bushels, and the latter upwards of 52,000,000 pounds. Virginia and Kentucky are much the largest producers of tobacco. The largest cotton-growing states are Mississippi, producing nearly 1,200,000 bales, (of 400 lbs. each;) Alabama, producing nearly 1,000,000 bales; Louisiana, producing more than 722,000 bales, and Georgia producing about 702,000 bales. Ohio, New York, and Pennsylvania are the largest wool-growing states, but other states at the west are likely soon to surpass them. California is very rapidly developing as a wool-growing state, as well as a large producer of other agricultural products.

TABLE — Exhibiting some of the Productions of Agriculture for 1860.

STATES.	Wheat.	Rye.	Indian Corn.	Oats.	Rice.	Tobacco.	Ginned Cotton.	Wool.	Peas and Beans.	Irish Potatoes.	Sweet Potatoes.	Barley.	Buckwheat.	Value of Orchard Products.
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Bales. ^a	Pounds.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Dollars.
Alabama.	1,922,487	73,942	32,761,194	716,435	499,559	221,254	997,978	681,404	1,483,609	5,420,987	5,420,987	14,703	1,334	213,323
Arkansas.	855,298	77,869	17,758,665	597,866	215	999,757	367,485	418,090	4,312	1,462,714	1,462,714	3,079	488	56,230
California.	5,946,619	618,702	524,897	1,522,218	1,800	3,150	.	2,681,922	184,962	1,647,293	158,001	4,307,775	36,486	607,459
Connecticut.	52,401	27,209	2,059,885	4,467,779	.	6,000,133	.	335,986	25,864	1,833,148	2,710	20,813	309,107	908,848
Delaware.	912,941	27,209	3,892,337	4,467,779	.	9,699	.	58,201	7,438	377,931	1,421,213	3,646	16,355	114,225
Florida.	2,808	21,314	2,824,538	46,779	223,209	758,015	63,322	50,594	364,738	377,931	1,213,493	15	.	21,716
Georgia.	2,544,913	115,532	30,776,293	1,231,817	223,209	758,015	63,322	50,594	1,765,214	5,799,964	6,508,541	14,682	2,023	176,048
Illinois.	24,159,900	981,322	115,296,779	15,336,072	52,507,652	7,014,230	701,840	946,229	1,765,214	5,799,964	341,443	1,175,651	345,069	1,145,936
Indiana.	15,219,120	400,226	69,641,591	5,038,755	.	7,246,132	6	2,466,264	77,701	3,873,130	284,304	296,374	367,797	1,212,142
Iowa.	8,433,205	176,055	41,116,994	5,879,653	1,219	312,919	.	653,036	45,570	2,700,115	50,928	454,116	216,524	131,234
Kansas.	168,527	3,928	5,678,834	80,744	24,407	16,978	.	22,593	10,167	283,968	9,221	4,128	36,799	724
Kentucky.	7,394,811	1,055,262	64,043,633	4,617,929	24,407	108,102,433	4,092	283,349	1,986,558	1,756,532	1,057,558	270,685	18,929	604,851
Louisiana.	29,283	12,789	16,205,856	65,845	6,455,017	40,610	722,218	296,187	430,410	332,725	2,070,901	144	160	110,923
Maine.	233,877	123,290	1,546,071	2,988,939	.	1,583	.	1,495,063	246,918	6,374,617	1,435	802,109	339,520	501,767
Maryland.	6,103,480	518,901	13,444,922	3,959,298	.	38,410,965	.	34,407	34,407	1,254,429	23,744	17,350	212,338	252,196
Massachusetts.	119,783	388,085	2,157,063	1,180,075	.	3,233,198	.	377,267	45,346	3,201,901	616	134,891	123,202	925,519
Michigan.	8,313,185	494,197	12,182,110	4,073,098	.	120,621	.	4,062,858	182,195	5,264,733	36,285	805,914	600,435	1,137,678
Minnesota.	2,195,812	124,259	2,987,570	2,202,050	.	38,510	1,195,699	22,740	18,802	2,027,945	781	125,130	27,677	298
Mississippi.	579,452	41,260	29,563,735	121,033	657,293	127,736	1,195,699	637,729	1,986,558	4,011,804	4,348,491	1,506	1,740	259,380
Missouri.	4,227,586	293,262	72,892,157	3,680,870	9,767	25,086,196	100	2,069,778	107,999	1,990,850	335,102	228,502	182,292	810,375
New Hampshire.	238,966	128,248	1,414,628	1,329,213	.	21,281	.	1,160,212	79,455	4,137,543	161	121,103	89,996	567,934
New Jersey.	1,763,128	1,439,497	9,723,336	4,329,132	.	149,485	.	349,250	27,675	4,171,690	1,034,832	24,915	877,386	429,402
New York.	8,681,100	4,786,905	20,061,048	35,173,133	1,120	5,764,582	.	9,454,473	1,609,334	26,447,389	7,523	4,186,067	5,126,305	3,726,380
North Carolina.	4,743,706	436,856	30,078,564	2,781,860	7,593,976	32,853,250	145,514	883,473	1,932,204	8,752,873	6,140,039	3,445	643,688	643,688
Ohio.	14,352,370	656,146	70,637,140	15,479,133	.	25,928,972	.	10,648,161	105,219	8,752,873	297,908	1,601,082	2,327,005	1,858,873
Oregon.	822,408	2,714	74,566	900,204	.	215	.	208,943	34,616	311,700	835	26,463	2,682	474,333
Pennsylvania.	13,045,231	5,474,792	28,196,821	27,387,149	.	3,181,586	.	4,752,523	123,094	11,687,468	103,190	530,716	5,572,026	1,479,338
Rhode Island.	1,131	28,259	458,912	234,453	.	705	.	90,699	7,699	542,909	946	40,993	3,573	83,691
South Carolina.	1,285,631	89,091	15,065,606	936,974	119,100,528	104,412	353,413	427,102	1,728,074	2,226,735	4,115,698	11,490	602	213,989
Texas.	5,409,863	265,344	50,748,266	2,343,122	38,931,277	38,931,277	227,450	1,400,508	550,913	1,174,647	2,014,558	23,489	14,421	314,269
Tennessee.	1,464,273	95,012	16,521,593	988,812	25,670	98,016	405,100	1,497,748	359,560	1,68,937	1,853,306	38,905	1,612	46,802
Texas.	431,127	130,376	1,463,020	3,511,605	.	12,153	.	2,975,544	68,912	5,147,908	623	75,232	215,821	198,427
Virginia.	13,129,180	944,024	38,360,704	10,184,865	8,225	123,967,757	12,727	2,509,443	515,001	2,292,118	1,960,808	68,759	477,808	800,659
Wisconsin.	15,812,625	888,534	7,565,290	11,059,270	.	87,595	.	1,011,915	99,804	3,838,505	2,345	678,992	67,622	70,096
Total States.	170,176,027	20,965,046	827,694,528	179,089,095	187,140,173	429,364,751	5,196,944	59,932,328	15,099,746	110,023,139	41,601,750	15,613,604	17,651,061	19,696,345
TERRITORIES.														
Columbia, Dist. of.	12,760	6,989	80,840	29,548	.	15,200	.	100	3,749	31,738	4,191	175	445	9,980
Dacotah.	945	700	20,296	2,540	286	9,489	.	.	.	115
Nebraska.	72,268	1,185	1,846,785	79,977	.	3,801	.	3,312	4,508	169,762	.	1,243	12,329	161
New Mexico.	446,075	1,800	710,605	7,491	.	6,999	.	479,245	38,584	5,354	180	6,099	6	19,701
Utah.	382,697	872	93,861	188,036	.	10	1,133	75,638	3,135	140,370	.	1,715	96	9,289
Washington.	92,609	244	4,792	168,001	.	10	.	20,720	38,005	191,354	.	18	977	23,776
Total Territories.	1,007,354	11,240	2,757,179	465,593	.	26,020	1,133	579,015	88,267	548,062	4,552	21,515	13,853	63,016
Aggregate.	171,183,381	20,976,286	830,451,707	172,554,688	187,140,173	429,390,771	5,198,077	60,511,343	15,188,013	110,571,201	41,606,302	15,635,119	17,664,914	19,759,361

^a Of 400 pounds each.

LEADING MANUFACTURES, AND THE VALUE OF PRODUCT OF EACH, FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 1, 1860.

	Value, in Round Numbers.
Flour and meal,	\$224,000,000
Cotton goods,	115,000,000
Lumber,	96,000,000
Boots and shoes,	90,000,000
Leather, including morocco and patent leather,	72,000,000
Clothing,	70,000,000
Woolen goods,	69,000,000
Machinery, steam engines, &c.	47,000,000
Printing — book, job, and newspaper,	42,000,000
Sugar refining,	38,500,000
Iron founding,	28,500,000
Spirituos liquors,	25,000,000
Cabinet furniture,	24,000,000
Bar and other rolled iron,	22,000,000
Pig iron,	19,500,000
Malt liquors,	18,000,000
Agricultural implements,	17,800,000
Paper,	17,500,000
Soap and candles,	17,000,000

Value of Sawed and Planed Lumber produced during the year ending June 1, 1860.

NEW ENGLAND STATES.

Maine,	\$6,784,981	Massachusetts,	2,288,419
New Hampshire,	1,226,784	Rhode Island,	172,174
Vermont,	1,065,886	Connecticut,	531,651
Total,	\$12,069,895		

MIDDLE STATES.

New York,	\$12,485,418	Delaware,	261,172
Pennsylvania,	11,311,149	Maryland,	724,122
New Jersey,	1,602,319	District of Columbia,	70,825
Total,	\$26,455,005		

WESTERN STATES.

Ohio,	\$5,600,045	Iowa,	2,378,529
Indiana,	3,169,843	Missouri,	3,702,992
Michigan,	7,033,427	Kentucky,	2,200,674
Illinois,	2,275,124	Kansas,	945,088
Wisconsin,	4,836,159	Nebraska,	316,104
Minnesota,	816,808		
Total,	\$33,274,793		

SOUTHERN STATES.

Virginia,	\$2,537,130	Louisiana,	1,018,554
North Carolina,	1,073,968	Texas,	1,612,829
South Carolina,	1,077,712	Mississippi,	2,055,396
Georgia,	2,064,026	Arkansas,	1,033,185
Florida,	1,475,240	Tennessee,	1,975,481
Alabama,	2,017,641		
Total,	\$17,941,162		

PACIFIC STATES.

New Mexico,	\$65,150	Oregon,	586,600
Utah,	132,565	Washington,	1,172,520
California,	4,214,596		
Total,	\$6,171,431		

Aggregate in the United States, \$95,912,286

Value of Flour and Meal produced during the Year ending June 1, 1860.

NEW ENGLAND STATES.

Maine,	\$1,576,863	Massachusetts,	4,196,710
New Hampshire,	1,486,981	Rhode Island,	515,699
Vermont,	1,659,898	Connecticut,	1,719,294
Total,	\$11,155,445		

MIDDLE STATES.

New York,	\$35,064,906	Delaware,	1,844,919
Pennsylvania,	26,572,261	Maryland,	8,020,122
New Jersey,	6,399,610	District of Columbia,	1,184,593
Total,	\$79,086,411		

WESTERN STATES.

Ohio,	\$27,129,405	Iowa,	6,950,949
Indiana,	11,292,665	Missouri,	8,997,083
Michigan,	8,663,288	Kentucky,	5,034,745
Illinois,	18,104,804	Kansas,	284,281
Wisconsin,	8,161,183	Nebraska,	110,391
Minnesota,	1,310,000		
Total,	\$96,038,794		

SOUTHERN STATES.

Virginia,	\$15,212,060	Louisiana,	11,694
North Carolina,	3,185,251	Texas,	2,179,610
South Carolina,	876,250	Mississippi,	541,994
Georgia,	3,323,730	Arkansas,	453,999
Florida,	355,066	Tennessee,	3,820,301
Alabama,	807,502		
Total,	\$30,767,457		

PACIFIC STATES.

New Mexico,	\$374,190	Oregon,	1,074,828
Utah,	237,635	Washington,	73,800
California,	4,335,809		
Total,	\$6,096,262		

Aggregate in the United States, \$223,144,369

Cotton Goods produced during the Year ending June 1, 1860.

STATES	No. of Establishments.	Capital Invested.	Pounds of Cotton.	Value of Raw Material.	Number of		Average Number of Hands Employed.		Annual Cost of Labor.	Product in 1860.
					Spindles.	Looms.	Male.	Female.		
Maine,	19	\$6,108,325	23,438,723	\$3,000,000	300,000	6,000	1,908	4,342	\$1,244,938	\$6,636,623
New Hampshire,	44	13,878,000	39,212,644	9,758,921	669,885	17,015	6,300	13,859	4,574,520	16,661,531
Vermont,	10	321,000	1,057,250	133,000	19,712	424	142	225	78,468	357,400
Massachusetts,	200	33,300,000	126,666,089	14,778,344	1,739,700	44,978	12,635	22,353	7,221,156	36,745,864
Rhode Island,	135	11,500,000	38,521,608	5,281,000	706,000	26,000	5,474	6,615	2,417,640	12,258,657
Connecticut,	64	6,000,000	15,799,140	4,000,000	464,000	8,787	3,314	4,275	1,453,128	7,641,460
Total in New England States,	472	71,107,325	244,695,454	36,951,265	3,959,297	103,204	29,773	51,669	16,989,840	80,301,535
New York,	70	5,427,079	25,910,876	2,988,270	328,816	7,511	3,043	4,288	1,271,592	7,471,961
Pennsylvania,	151	8,253,640	32,855,669	6,732,275	358,578	10,678	5,350	7,370	2,265,912	11,759,000
New Jersey,	29	1,845,000	2,257,885	1,693,663	96,112	1,181	853	1,371	435,684	3,250,770
Delaware,	11	572,000	2,717,000	521,492	25,704	494	486	521	202,884	919,103
Maryland,	19	2,214,500	12,020,119	1,641,913	49,891	1,520	947	1,568	464,112	2,796,877
District of Columbia,	1	45,000	294,117	47,403	2,560	82	70	25	19,800	74,400
Total in Middle States,	281	18,357,219	76,055,666	13,625,016	861,661	21,466	10,749	15,143	4,659,984	26,272,111
Virginia,	13	1,325,243	7,302,797	770,977	28,700	524	741	952	262,440	1,063,611
North Carolina,	36	1,049,750	5,152,750	564,612	30,144	479	416	1,210	168,840	930,567
South Carolina,	17	827,825	3,845,811	419,500	16,461	931	372	584	132,180	588,950
Georgia,	32	1,854,603	12,977,904	1,689,075	44,312	1,058	1,376	1,909	482,520	2,215,636
Florida,	1	30,000	200,000	22,000	40	25	7,872	40,000
Alabama,	11	1,306,500	4,389,641	623,963	28,540	663	567	765	206,124	917,105
Louisiana,	2	1,075,000	1,995,700	283,900	4,225	150	70	70	24,000	509,700
Texas,	1	500,000	588,000	78,920	2,700	100	160	36,480	99,241
Mississippi,	4	350,000	534,400	163,419	1,844	28	155	155	33,996	261,135
Arkansas,	1	55,000	60,000	6,750	20	10	7,200	13,000
Tennessee,	25	930,000	3,172,000	283,838	7,914	80	244	437	109,764	533,348
Total in Southern States,	143	9,303,921	40,219,003	4,906,954	164,840	4,013	4,161	6,117	1,471,416	7,172,293
Ohio,	7	250,000	1,815,000	250,000	15,000	400	270	340	112,400	629,500
Indiana,	2	250,000	800,000	100,000	11,000	375	176	190	72,468	349,000
Illinois,	3	10,000	40,000	8,000	8	8	1,980	15,987
Missouri,	3	169,000	100,000	14,500	14,500	85	85	31,080	230,000
Kentucky,	4	104,000	311,000	139,000	9,500	93	53	21,000	167,500
Total in Western States,	19	783,000	3,066,000	511,500	50,000	775	632	676	238,928	1,391,987
Aggregate,	915	99,551,465	364,036,123	55,994,735	5,035,798	129,458	45,315	73,605	23,360,168	115,137,926

Boots and Shoes manufactured in the following States during the Year ending June 1, 1860.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Number of Establishments.	Capital invested in Real and Personal Estate.	Value of Raw Material, including Fuel.	Average No. of Hands employed.		Cost of Labor.	Value of Products in 1860.
				Male.	Female.		
Maine,	295	\$420,984	\$879,031	1,820	702	\$592,032	\$1,661,915
New Hampshire,	337	583,285	2,497,471	3,479	1,365	1,077,048	3,863,866
Vermont,	148	133,962	210,595	484	58	169,224	440,366
Massachusetts,	1,497	11,169,277	24,497,344	47,353	22,045	17,226,408	46,440,209
Rhode Island,	66	104,495	155,937	382	31	86,028	315,959
Connecticut,	211	510,400	839,435	2,521	777	831,108	2,044,762
Total in N. England States,	2,554	12,922,403	29,079,813	56,039	24,978	19,981,848	54,767,077
New York,	2,276	3,212,423	4,848,877	11,838	2,028	3,567,636	10,878,797
Pennsylvania,	2,178	2,823,672	3,127,628	10,826	2,344	3,102,128	8,178,935
New Jersey,	373	574,055	814,926	2,357	482	761,976	1,850,137
Maryland,	453	333,955	515,254	1,577	292	1,244,167
Delaware,	53	85,026	98,107	263	58	80,664	226,470
District of Columbia,	56	67,505	96,549	273	20	209,785
Total in Middle States,	5,389	7,096,636	9,501,341	27,134	5,224	7,512,404	22,588,291
Ohio,	950	\$1,115,476	1,455,686	4,259	342	1,340,712	3,623,827
Michigan,	273	339,167	380,676	976	58	295,392	863,315
Indiana,	461	347,370	428,614	1,148	51	381,516	1,034,341
Illinois,	321	378,110	400,348	1,047	27	292,292	963,052
Wisconsin,	217	266,065	431,175	917	50	204,964	901,944
Minnesota,	60	45,980	59,578	120	20	133,395
Iowa,	118	125,377	141,922	336	10	109,404	325,296
Missouri,	277	291,680	326,699	904	43	331,704	868,768
Kentucky,	264	218,215	290,766	828	29	255,840	685,783
Utah,	13	4,520	17,535	28	15,480	36,833
Nbraska,	9	9,950	9,824	33	1	12,072	28,651
Total in Western States,	2,963	3,141,910	3,942,823	10,596	631	3,239,376	9,465,205

Boots and Shoes manufactured in the following States during the Year ending June 1, 1860. -- Continued.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Number of Establishments.	Capital invested in Real and Personal Estate.	Value of Raw Material, including Fuel.	Average No. of Hands employed.		Cost of Labor.	Value of Products in 1860.
				Male.	Female.		
Virginia,	250	\$263,547	\$265,113	879	116	\$258,768	\$718,591
Louisiana,	497	388,440	547,001	1,137	170	382,572	1,391,121
Tennessee,	94	84,617	111,681	153	11	72,684	262,348
Georgia,	117	153,430	173,666	349	10	92,904	357,267
Tot. in four Southern States,	958	890,034	1,097,461	2,518	307	806,928	2,729,327
Aggregate,	11,864	24,050,983	43,621,438	96,287	31,140	31,540,556	89,549,900

Approximate Statistics of the Products of Industry for the Year ending June 1, 1860.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Number of Establishments.	Capital invested in Real and Personal Estate.	Value of Raw Material used, including Fuel.	Average No. of Hands employed.		Value of Annual Products.
				Male.	Female.	
Maine,	3,582	\$22,000,000	\$20,861,452	25,000	14,710	\$36,075,498
New Hampshire,	2,582	25,900,000	24,400,000	19,200	16,900	45,500,000
Vermont,	1,501	9,500,000	8,110,000	8,940	1,860	16,000,000
Massachusetts,	7,766	133,000,000	141,000,000	148,800	68,300	266,000,000
Rhode Island,	1,160	23,300,000	23,400,000	21,200	12,000	47,500,000
Connecticut,	2,923	45,720,000	40,140,000	44,160	21,620	83,000,000
Total in N. England States,	19,514	259,420,000	257,911,452	267,300	135,390	494,075,498
New York,	23,236	175,449,206	209,899,890	174,059	47,422	379,623,560
Pennsylvania,	21,100	189,000,000	145,300,000	185,141	38,000	285,500,000
New Jersey,	4,060	40,000,000	42,600,000	114,660	13,060	81,000,000
Delaware,	564	5,360,000	5,375,000	5,332	860	9,920,000
Maryland,	2,980	51,800,000	21,900,000	20,800	20,100	42,576,000
District of Columbia,	424	2,650,000	2,801,000	2,556	387	5,512,000
Total in Middle States,	52,364	464,259,206	427,875,890	502,548	119,829	804,131,560
Ohio,	10,710	58,000,000	70,000,000	69,800	11,400	125,000,000
Indiana,	5,120	18,875,000	27,360,000	20,600	710	43,250,000
Michigan,	2,530	24,000,000	19,000,000	22,860	1,260	35,200,000
Illinois,	4,100	27,700,000	33,800,000	23,500	870	56,750,000
Wisconsin,	3,120	16,580,000	17,250,000	16,320	770	28,500,000
Minnesota,	565	2,400,000	2,060,000	2,215	15	3,600,000
Iowa,	1,790	7,500,000	8,500,000	6,475	102	14,900,000
Missouri,	2,800	20,500,000	24,000,000	20,130	1,200	43,500,000
Kentucky,	3,160	20,000,000	21,380,000	20,580	1,460	36,330,000
Kansas,	299	1,063,000	669,269	1,719	2,800,000
Nebraska,	107	271,475	238,225	331	8	581,942
Total in Western States,	34,301	196,889,475	224,257,494	204,530	17,795	390,411,942
Virginia,	4,890	26,640,000	30,880,000	33,050	3,540	51,300,000
North Carolina,	2,790	9,310,000	9,860,000	11,760	2,130	14,450,000
South Carolina,	1,050	5,610,000	3,620,000	6,000	800	6,800,000
Georgia,	1,724	11,160,000	10,000,000	9,910	2,180	13,700,000
Florida,	180	6,675,000	965,000	2,310	170	2,700,000
Alabama,	1,117	8,260,000	4,400,000	6,620	1,140	9,400,000
Louisiana,	1,710	7,110,000	7,380,000	7,610	80	15,500,000
Texas,	910	3,850,000	2,770,000	3,360	110	6,250,000
Mississippi,	860	3,740,000	2,460,000	4,540	150	6,000,000
Arkansas,	375	1,040,000	909,000	1,520	35	2,150,000
Tennessee,	2,420	17,270,000	9,365,000	11,960	1,135	17,100,000
Total in Southern States,	18,026	100,665,000	82,609,000	98,640	11,470	145,350,000
Utah,	152	412,126	398,528	348	9	823,000
California,	3,505	23,682,593	16,558,636	23,803	463	59,500,000
Oregon,	300	1,293,000	1,452,000	996	10	3,138,000
Washington,	52	1,296,700	505,000	886	4	1,405,000
New Mexico,	86	2,081,900	432,000	949	30	1,165,000
Total in Pacific States,	4,095	28,766,319	19,346,164	26,982	516	66,031,000
Aggregate in United States,	128,300	1,050,000,000	1,012,000,000	1,100,000	285,000	1,900,000,000

Railroads of the United States.

RECAPITULATION.

STATES.	Mileage.		Cost of Construction, &c.	
	1850.	1860.	1850.	1860.
Maine,	245.59	472.17	\$6,999,894	\$16,576,385
New Hampshire,	465.32	656.59	14,774,133	23,268,659
Vermont,	279.57	556.75	10,800,901	23,336,215
Massachusetts,	1,035.74	1,272.96	47,886,905	58,882,328
Rhode Island,	68.00	107.92	2,802,594	4,318,827
Connecticut,	413.26	603.00	13,989,774	21,984,100
New England States,	2,507.48	3,669.39	97,254,201	148,366,514
New York,	1,403.10	2,701.84	65,456,123	131,320,542
New Jersey,	205.93	559.90	9,348,495	28,997,033
Pennsylvania,	822.34	2,542.49	41,683,054	143,471,710
Delaware,	39.19	136.69	2,281,690	4,351,789
Maryland,	253.40	380.30	11,580,808	21,387,157
Middle Atlantic States,	2,723.96	6,321.22	130,350,170	329,528,231
Virginia,	515.15	1,771.16	12,585,312	64,958,807
North Carolina,	248.50	889.42	3,281,623	16,709,793
South Carolina,	289.00	987.97	7,525,981	22,385,287
Georgia,	643.72	1,404.22	13,272,540	29,057,742
Florida,	21.00	401.50	210,000	8,628,000
Southern Atlantic States,	1,717.37	5,454.27	36,875,456	141,739,629
Alabama,	132.50	743.16	1,946,209	17,591,188
Mississippi,	75.00	872.30	2,020,000	24,100,009
Louisiana,	79.50	334.75	1,320,000	12,020,204
Texas,	306.00	11,232,345
Gulf States,	287.00	2,256.21	5,286,209	64,943,746
Arkansas,	38.50	1,155,000
Tennessee,	1,197.92	29,537,722
Kentucky,	78.21	569.93	1,830,541	19,068,477
Interior States, South,	78.21	1,806.35	1,830,541	49,761,199
Ohio,	575.27	2,999.45	10,684,400	111,896,351
Indiana,	228.00	2,125.90	3,380,533	70,295,148
Michigan,	342.00	799.30	8,945,749	31,012,399
Illinois,	110.50	2,867.90	1,440,507	104,944,561
Wisconsin,	20.00	922.61	612,382	33,555,606
Minnesota,
Iowa,	679.77	19,494,633
Missouri,	817.45	42,342,812
Kansas,
Interior States, North,	1,275.77	11,212.38	25,063,571	413,541,510
California,	70.05	3,600,000
Oregon,	3.80	80,000
Pacific States,	73.85	3,680,000
New England States,	2,507.48	3,669.39	97,254,201	148,366,514
Middle Atlantic States,	2,723.96	6,321.22	130,350,170	329,528,231
Southern Atlantic States,	1,717.37	5,454.27	36,875,456	141,739,629
Gulf States,	287.00	2,256.21	5,286,209	64,943,746
Interior States, South,	78.21	1,806.35	1,830,541	49,761,199
Interior States, North,	1,275.77	11,212.38	25,063,571	413,541,510
Pacific States,	73.85	3,680,000
Total United States,	8,589.79	30,793.67	296,660,148	1,151,560,829
City Railroads in 1860,	402.57	14,862,840
Total,	31,196½	1,166,422,729

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The following table shows the value of the imports into the United States, and the value of the exports of domestic produce and foreign merchandise, for the year ending June 30, 1860.

COUNTRIES.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.		
		Foreign Merchandise.	Domestic Produce.	Total.
Great Britain—England,	\$133,064,713	\$5,831,248	\$187,095,952	\$192,927,200
Scotland,	4,607,187	137,206	4,867,218	5,004,424
Ireland,	923,726	111,711	4,297,586	4,409,297
Total Great Britain,	138,595,626	6,080,165	196,260,756	202,340,921
France,	43,218,094	3,158,047	58,048,231	61,206,278
British East Indies,	10,692,342	128,953	1,111,697	1,240,650
Philippine Islands,	2,886,166	73,265	368,209	441,474
Cuba,	34,032,277	634,956	11,747,913	12,382,869
Porto Rico,	4,512,188	263,913	1,517,837	1,781,750
Two Sicilies,	2,384,577	26,458	484,190	510,648
Hayti,	2,062,723	231,777	2,441,905	2,673,682
New Granada,	3,843,568	152,699	1,642,800	1,795,499
Venezuela,	2,883,464	91,650	1,056,250	1,147,900
Brazil,	21,214,803	335,020	5,945,235	6,280,255
China,	13,566,587	1,735,334	7,170,784	8,906,118
All other countries,	82,271,526	14,020,785	85,393,467	99,414,252
Total,	362,163,941	26,933,022	373,189,274	400,122,296

Of the exports in the year named, the following were the principal :—

Products of agriculture, (value,)	\$48,451,894
“ the forest,	13,738,559
“ manufactures,	39,803,080
Cotton,	191,806,555
Tobacco,	15,906,547
Specie and bullion,	23,799,870

For the year ending June 30, 1861, the exports of cotton fell to \$34,051,483, and the exports of agricultural produce rose to \$101,655,833.

Tonnage of the merchant marine of the United States, for the year ending June, 1861, —

Registered sail tonnage,	2,540,020
“ steam tonnage,	102,608
Enrolled and licensed sail tonnage,	2,122,589
“ “ steam tonnage,	774,596

Total tonnage, 5,539,813
Estimated value of aggregate tonnage, \$221,592,520

BOOKS LXXXIII. — LXXXV.

MEXICO.

Area, 834,140 square miles; population, (1854,) 7,853,394.

The republic of Mexico is now composed of 22 states, 5 territories, and the federal district of Mexico, as follows :—

States or Departments and Territories.	Population.	Capitals.	Population.
Agascalientes,	81,727	Agascalientes,	81,727
Chihuahua,	147,600	Chihuahua,	14,000
Chiapa,	161,914	Ciudad-Real,	6,500
Cinaloa,	160,000	Villa del Fuerte,	12,000
Cohahuila,	66,228	Saltillo,	19,898
Durango,	187,593	Durango,	22,000
Guanajuato,	718,775	Guanajuato,	48,954
Guerrero,	270,000	Tixtla,	4,500
Jalisco,	774,461	Guadalajara,	63,000
Mexico,	1,001,875	Toluca,	12,000

States or Departments and Territories.	Population.	Capitals.	Population.
Michoacan,	491,679	Valladolid,	18,000
New Leon,	133,361	Monterey,	13,534
Oajaca,	489,969	Oajaca,	25,000
Puebla,	683,725	Puebla,	71,631
Queretaro,	132,124	Queretaro,	29,702
San Luis Potosi, . .	394,592	San Luis,	40,000
Sonora,	147,133	Ures,	7,000
Tabasco,	63,580	San Juan Bautista,	4,000
Tamaulipas,	100,064	Victoria,	5,500
Vera Cruz,	274,686	Vera Cruz,	8,228
Yucatan,	668,623	Merida,	40,000
Zacatecas,	305,551	Zacatecas,	25,005
Fed'l Dist., Mexico,	200,000	Mexico,	170,000
Tlaxcala, Terri'y of,	80,171	Tlaxcala,	3,463
Colima, " " "	61,243	Colima,	31,774
Tehuantepec, " " "	82,395		
L. California, " " "	12,000	La Paz,	500
Isla de Carmen, " "	12,325		
Total population,	7,853,394	Total population,	703,189

Of the population, about four sevenths are Indians, two sevenths of mixed origin, and one seventh native whites or creoles.

Mexico is sparingly watered, and has no navigable rivers of importance. Along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico there are scarcely any indentations, and the Gulf Stream sweeps near the shore, causing a constant change of the sands, creating bars and filling channels, so that on the whole coast there is no safe and commodious harbor.

The mines, which were once considered the great source of the wealth of Mexico, have become of less importance. Those which were once the richest are now exhausted. Silver is most abundant, though gold is found to some extent. The disturbed political condition of the country has seriously interfered with mining enterprise, but within the last ten years the yield of the mines has increased, and but for the greater temptation offered to miners in California, would have increased still more. The amount of gold coined in 1850, was \$1,351,400, and of silver, \$27,003,989. In 1850, valuable quicksilver mines were discovered in Sonora.

New Mexico and Upper California, as well as Texas, which are included in Mexico in the text, now belong to the United States. The extent of territory thus lost to Mexico was, New Mexico and California, 530,000 square miles, Texas, 325,000 square miles. Yucatan separated from Mexico in 1846, but has since rejoined the confederation. The Central American states, which are also included in Mexico in the text, are independent republics.

BOOK LXXXV.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

The Central American states are Guatemala, San Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica.

Guatemala.—Area, 44,500 square miles; population, estimated at 1,000,000, only 7,000 or 8,000 of whom are whites, the remainder being Indians and

Mestizos. One of the most important articles now produced in Guatemala is cochineal, of which the quantity produced is nearly equal to the entire consumption of that article. Cocoa, tobacco, indigo, and cotton are also produced.

The capital and chief town is New Guatemala. Population, estimated at 35,000 to 50,000.

San Salvador.—Area, 7,500 square miles. Population, 280,000. This state is well watered, and the soil is fertile. The productions are coffee, tobacco, cotton, sugar, and indigo, the last of which is the most important crop. Excellent iron ore was formerly mined and smelted, but the mines are no longer worked.

The chief town and capital is San Salvador, the population of which, previous to 1854, was about 18,000, but in that year the town was almost wholly destroyed by an earthquake.

Honduras.—Area, about 33,000 square miles; population, about 350,000. It has some extensive forests of fine timber, including cedar and mahogany, but it is not an agricultural country. Gold, silver, lead, and copper are found, the two former often combined. Its mineral wealth was formerly better developed than now.

The chief towns are Comayagua, the capital, population, estimated, 12,000, and Truxillo, the principal port, population, 4,000.

Nicaragua.—Area, about 39,000 square miles; population, 235,000. Much of the soil of Nicaragua is well adapted for agriculture, but the unsettled condition of the people, by reason of revolutions and civil wars, has rendered its agriculture of little account. Cotton of superior quality has been grown here, but its culture is now almost wholly neglected. Coffee, cocoa, and sugar are also produced. Gold, silver, and copper are said to exist in some quantities, but they are not mined or explored. A route for travel from the Atlantic to the Pacific has been opened via Lake Nicaragua, and a canal has been contemplated, but political troubles have prevented the prosecution of such enterprises.

The chief towns are Leon, the capital, population, 30,000, formerly one of the finest towns in Central America, but greatly damaged by civil commotions; Nicaragua, population, about 8,000.

Costa Rica.—Area, about 16,500 square miles; population, 150,000. The climate of Costa Rica, except on the seacoast, is fine and healthy. The country produces some of the fruits and vegetables of both the temperate and the tropical regions, and the soil is excellent. Coffee is now grown to a considerable extent, from 50,000 to 60,000 quintals being exported annually, but the country is capable of vastly greater agricultural products.

Costa Rica contains some rich gold mines, but they are worked but little. Silver and copper are also found there, but the product of these is of little account.

The chief towns are San Jose, the capital, population, 18,000, and Puntas Arenas, the principal port.

Belize, or British Honduras.—Area, about 15,000 square miles; population, 10,000. The greater part of the population are blacks and Indians.

The chief town and capital is Balize, on a small river of the same name. The exports are mahogany, cochineal, sarsaparilla, and cocoa-nuts.

BOOK LXXXVI.
SOUTH AMERICA.

Area, 6,500,000 square miles; population, about 17,000,000. The greatest length of South America is 4,550 miles, and its greatest breadth 3,250 miles. About three fourths of the entire peninsula are within the tropics, and the remainder in the southern temperate zone. It may be divided into five distinct physical regions, as follows: 1. The extensive plains of the basin of the Orinoco, which are generally destitute of wood, but covered with tall herbage for a part of the year, and excessively hot in the dry season. 2. The basin of the Amazon, covering an area of about 2,000,000 square miles, covered with dense forests of luxuriant growth, and very fertile, but thinly inhabited. 3. That part of Brazil east of the Parana and Araguay Rivers, covered with wood on the Atlantic side, and opening into plains or steppes in the interior, and traversed to some extent by mountain ranges. 4. The plains watered by the Rio de la Plata, an extensive region abounding in steppes, and affording sustenance for innumerable herds of cattle and horses. 5. The low country between the Andes and the Pacific, stretching the whole length of the peninsula, and from 50 to 100 miles in width, the extremities of which are fertile, and the middle a desert.

Mountains.—The great physical feature of South America is its succession of mountain ranges, stretching from its southern extremity to its northern limit, and connecting, through the Isthmus of Panama and Central America, with the Cordilleras and Rocky Mountains of North America. These mountains extend over 4,500 miles, bearing the general name of the Andes, though composed of successive ranges, with numerous lateral chains. Between 6 and 33 degrees south, the Andes spread to a width of 200 to 300 miles; north of the sixth parallel they are narrower, and form elevated plateaus, one of which is known as the Desert of Asuay, which is 13,000 feet above the sea, and covers an area of 50 square miles. On another plateau, 9,500 feet high, is built the city of Quito. North of this, the mountains divide into three distinct and diverging ranges. One of these, the Cordilleras of the coast, finally turns to the east, and runs about 700 miles to the vicinity of the Gulf of Pavia. Another transverse range starts from the Andes, between three and four degrees north, and extends to French Guiana, near the mouth of the Amazon. The mean height of both of these ranges is about 4,000 feet, though some peaks rise to a much greater height. A third transverse range extends across the continent, between 12 and 18 degrees south, and connects with the Brazilian Mountains, dividing the basin of the Amazon from that of La Plata. The Brazilian Mountains extend parallel to the coast, from 5 degrees to 25 degrees south. They are a series of ridges and plateaus, with a few elevated summits, and spread to a width of nearly or quite a thousand miles.

The mean height of the Andes is, in Peru, about 12,000 feet; in Chili, about 8,000 feet; in Patagonia the height is unknown. Some of the highest peaks are as follows:—

In New Grenada. Feet high.
Tolima, 18,270

In Ecuador. Feet high. Feet high.
Chimborazo, 21,440 Cayamba, 19,535
Antisana (volcano), 19,150 Cotopaxi (volcano), 18,890
Illinica, 17,380 Tanguragua, . . . 16,424
Cutacache, 16,380 Sangay, 16,138

In Peru.
Chuguibamba, . . . 21,000 Omati, or } (volc.), 20,320
Asquipa, }

In Bolivia.
Lahama, 22,350 (By other author- { 21,149
Gualateiri (volc.), . 22,000 ity,) { 21,060
Sorata, 25,300 Parinacota, 22,030
(By other authority,) 21,286 Pomarape, 21,700
Two summits of Il- { 24,450 Huayna, 20,260
limani, } 24,200 Chachacomani, . . . 20,235
Chipicani, 19,740

In Chili.
Aconcagua (volcano), 23,200 ft., the highest volcano known.
Antuco (volcano), . 16,000 Maypu (volcano), 15,000 ft.

Other peaks are from 13,000 to 18,000 feet high. The highest summits in the Cordilleras of the coast are Sierra de Merida, 15,300 feet high, and Silla de Caracas, 8,400 feet high. The highest summit of the Brazilian Mountains is Itacolumi, 5,710 feet in height. It is supposed that there are at least 30 volcanoes in South America, all in the Andes, the highest of which are given above, and are the highest volcanoes in the world.

Lakes are few in South America. The largest is Lake Titicaca, on the borders of Peru and Bolivia, 12,800 feet above the sea, and covering an area of 4,000 square miles.

Rivers.—South America rivals North America in rivers. They all flow into the Atlantic Ocean and Caribbean Sea, there being no river of any consequence west of the Andes. The two great river systems are those of the Amazon and the La Plata, which, with their tributaries, water the greater part of the continent, and afford means of transportation through thousands of miles. It is stated that the greater part of the Amazon, from the Andes to the Atlantic, is uninterrupted by any cataract or serious rapid. Some of the principal rivers, with their length, are as follows:—

RIVERS IN SOUTH AMERICA.	
	Miles.
Amazon,	4,000
Araguay,	1,000
Beni,	2,000
Caqueta,	1,200
Essequibo,	500
Jutay,	700
Magdalena,	800
Medeira,	1,000
Negro,	1,200
Orinoco,	1,600
Parnahiba,	700
Parana,	2,000
Paraguay,	1,600
Pilcomayo,	1,000
Putumayo,	700
Rio Negro,	1,000

Miles.	Miles.
Rio de la Plata, (from the mouth of the Paraguay to Monte Vidco.)	700
St. Francisco,	1,400
Tocantius,	1,100
Ucayle,	500
Uruguay,	800
Vermejo,	750
Xingu,	1,300
Yapura,	1,000

The present political divisions of South America differ somewhat from those given in the text. They are the republics of New Grenada, Ecuador, and Venezuela, French, English, and Dutch Guiana, the empire of Brazil, the republics of Peru, Chili, Bolivia, the Argentine Republic, the republics of Paraguay and Uruguay, Patagonia; and to these may be added Terra del Fuogo and the Falkland Islands.

BOOK LXXXVII.

NEW GRENADA.

Area, estimated at 480,000 square miles; population, (1853,) 2,363,054. Of the population, about one fourth are whites, more than one half of mixed races, and the remainder Indians and negroes.

New Grenada joins Costa Rica in Central America, and includes the Isthmus of Panama. It borders on the Caribbean Sea on the north, and the Pacific Ocean on the west. It is diversified in its surface, soil, and climate, and though the lower country is hot and unhealthy, there are higher regions more temperate, but fertile, and producing the vegetables of the temperate zone. The resources of the country are as yet but little developed, and the more healthy regions but little improved or settled. In minerals, the country is said to be rich, platina, gold, and silver existing there, and on the Isthmus of Panama, iron and copper, but the mining is not pursued with any enterprise. The agriculture and manufactures of the country are also limited, the former being confined chiefly to raising cattle and horses, immense herds of which are pastured on the llanos, or plains.

The chief towns are, —

Population.	Population.
Bogota, the capital, 45,000	Santa Martha, . . . 8,000
Popayan, . . . 20,000	Panama, 6,000
Carthagena, . . . 18,000	Aspinwall, 2,500

The last two are connected by the only railroad in the country, which forms the connecting link between the Atlantic and Pacific. Aspinwall is essentially an Anglo-Saxon town, being founded chiefly by citizens of the United States.

ECUADOR.

Area, 240,000 square miles; population, 500,000. The Indians form a large part of the population.

This state embraces every variety of climate, which ranges from the insufferably hot, on the low tract, to the temperate on the table lands and valleys between the mountain ranges, and the cold on the still higher mountain regions, where may be found perpetual snow. In Ecuador the Andes branch into two distinct ranges, each of which has many lofty peaks. Chimborazo, Cayambe, Antisana, Cotopaxi, and other lofty

mountains, are within the limits of Ecuador. The cultivated land lies chiefly in the valley which extends between the two mountain ranges, and its average height is about 9,000 feet above the sea, though at its southern extremity it is not more than 2,000 feet above the sea. Gold and silver have been found in some parts of the country, but little attention is given to mining, except iron and copper, which are mined to a moderate extent.

The agricultural products are wheat, which attains the greatest perfection in the high valleys, maize, cotton, sugar cane, rice, and pepper. The cocoa tree flourishes in some parts of the state, and on the low lands are vast forests, and a variety of tropical fruits.

The chief towns are, —

Population.	Population.
Quito, the capital, 70,000	Cuenca, 20,000
Guayaquil, the chief port, 20,000	Ibarra, 12,000
Riobamba, near the site of a former town of the same name, which was destroyed by a flood caused by a volcanic eruption.	

VENEZUELA.

Area, 420,000 square miles; population, (1854,) 1,419,289.

The whites compose about one fourth part of the population, the remainder being Indians, negroes, and mixed races. The domesticated Indians form about one sixth part. Included in the above number are about 50,000 independent Indians.

The mountains do not form so important a feature in this state as in the two preceding. The east range of the Andes, sometimes also considered a part of the coast range of the Cordilleras, stretches transversely to the main direction of the chain, and runs about 300 miles into Venezuela, forming a rugged mass of rocks. The highest peak is the Nevado de Merida, 15,300 feet high. There are other mountains, unexplored, in the southern part of the state.

The llanos or plains of Venezuela cover about 150,000 square miles. In the wet season large portions of them are flooded by the rivers, and in the dry season they are a parched and barren desert.

Venezuela is well watered by navigable rivers, the Orinoco and its tributaries affording extraordinary facilities for communication and transportation. Much of the country in the valleys of these rivers is fertile, and abounds in sources of wealth.

Gold was formerly found in considerable quantities, but the old mines appear exhausted. Silver has been found, but the mines have not been fully explored. Copper mines have proved more productive and profitable. There are also extensive beds of excellent bituminous coal in the coast districts, and an abundance of petroleum.

The lower regions of Venezuela abound with tropical vegetation and fruits, and in the higher regions the cereals of the temperate zone flourish. One of the chief productions is cocoa, or cacao. Cotton, coffee, sugar cane, and indigo are also extensively cultivated. Large herds of cattle are raised, and hides, with the pro-

ductions above named, form the chief articles of export.

The chief towns are, —

Population, (1853.)	Population, (1853.)
Caracas, the capital, 63,000	Angostura, . . . 8,000
Maracaybo, . . . 8,500	Barcelona, . . . 15,000
La Guayra, . . . 8,000	Valencia, . . . 17,000
Cumana, . . . 6,500, (once 30,000.)	

BOOK LXXXVIII.

PERU.

Area, 370,000 square miles; population, (1851,) 2,279,085. About one fourth of the population are white, one half Indians, and the remainder of mixed races.

The present republic of Peru comprises but a part of the territory which formerly went under that name, the republic of Bolivia having been set off, as also parts of the present republics of Chili, Ecuador, and the Argentine Republic.

The Andes are estimated to occupy nearly 200,000 square miles of the area of Peru. Between the mountains and the coast only some of the transverse valleys are really habitable, the greater part of the country being rugged and barren. The region which is most inhabited is the higher sierras or table lands of the mountain region. East of the mountains are boundless plains, watered by the tributaries of the Amazon, and but little known. The average height of the western, or coast range, of the Andes, is 15,000 feet, and of the eastern range, or Andes proper, 17,000 feet. Chuquibamba and Omati are the highest peaks. Between the two ranges are the sierras, or table lands, from 8,000 to 14,000 feet above the sea, where the fruits and cereals of the temperate zone flourish. In the lower valleys and east of the mountains, the tropical fruits and plants grow in great perfection. Agriculture, however, is in a very low condition.

The gold and silver mines of Peru were formerly considered inexhaustible, and capital and intelligent labor would probably make them very productive. The gold mines or diggings are of little consequence compared with California or Australia, and the silver mines are so situated among the mountains that they cannot well be worked by machinery. The annual produce of silver is five or six million dollars. Coal is found at a great height.

Political commotions and revolutions, as well as the character of the people, retard the development of the agricultural and mineral resources of the country.

The *Chincha Islands*, lying off the coast of Peru, about 150 miles from Lima, have of late years afforded the most valuable article of export from Peru, viz., guano, large quantities of which have been shipped for manure to Europe and the United States.

The chief towns are, —

Population, (1850.)	Population, (1850.)
Lima, the capital, 100,000	Cuzco, 41,152
Arequipa, . . . 35,000	Huanta, . . . 26,300
Callao, 8,135	Pasco, 10,000

BOLIVIA.

Area, 374,000 square miles; population, 1,030,000. Hardly one third of the population is white, the remainder being Indians and Mestizos.

The republic of Bolivia is almost wholly in the interior of South America, and mostly east of the Andes; having Brazil on the south and east, La Plata on the south, and Peru on the west, except for a space of about 250 miles, where it bounds on the Pacific Ocean. It was formerly called Upper Peru.

Bolivia possesses the greatest variety of soil and climate, from tropical heat to the temperature of perpetual snow, and from the most luxuriant vegetation to barren deserts. The western part is a region of immense mountains, the Andes attaining their greatest height in Bolivia. Among the highest peaks here are Sorata, Illimani, Lahama, Gualateira, Parinacota, Huayna, and Pomarapi. Between the ranges of the Andes is a great plateau, in which is Lake Titicaca, 12,000 feet above the sea. In the eastern part are valleys and plains, covered with the richest of vegetation. On the sierras, the fruits and grains of Europe are grown; on the lower plains, coffee, cacao, cotton, indigo, tobacco, &c.

The minerals of Bolivia are gold and silver, in moderate quantities, rich mines of tin, and pure copper. The difficulty of transportation to the coast prevents the exportation of the latter ores.

The chief towns are, —

Population.	Population.
Chuquisaca, or La Plata, the capital, 12,000	Cochabamba, . . 30,000
Potosi, 16,700	La Paz, 20,000

BOOK LXXXIX.

CHILI.

Area, 170,000 square miles; population, 1,080,000.

Chili extends along the Pacific 1,150 miles, with a breadth of 88 to 130 miles, its eastern boundary being marked by the Andes. The greater part of the country is rugged, but there are some fertile valleys. In the southern part, the country is very picturesque and pleasant, but in the northern part it is rugged and barren. The climate is very healthy. The productions are similar to those of the northern temperate zone, but agriculture is in a backward state.

Chili is rich in minerals, especially in the northern part, where are found gold, silver, iron, copper, lead, quicksilver, antimony, arsenic, &c. Bituminous coal is also found. The product of the silver and copper mines is very considerable, but the rugged nature of the country and want of water are great impediments to mining. The business, aided by foreign capital, is pursued with more enterprise than in the other countries of the Andes, and the inhabitants generally exhibit more energy and industry than the other Spanish South Americans. The foreign commerce of Chili is considerable.

The chief towns are, —

Population.	Population.
Santiago, the cap., 80,000	Coquimbo, . . . 8,000
Valparaiso, . . . 60,000	Quillota, . . . 8,000
San Felipe, . . . 12,500	Ballenar, . . . 7,000

LA PLATA, OR THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

Area, estimated at 820,000 square miles; population, estimated from 600,000 to 2,000,000; about 800,000 is probably more nearly correct, exclusive of the independent Indians.

From the Andes, which form the western boundary of La Plata, there are lateral ranges of mountains extending into the great plains from 100 to 200 miles; in the eastern part, around the River Paraguay, the country is hilly, and in the south-western part, are ranges of hills. But the greater part of the territory opens into vast plains or pampas, which afford pasturage to immense numbers of cattle and horses. The cultivated land is along the banks of the rivers, but agriculture is in a backward condition. In some portions of the northern country cotton, rice, sugar-cane, and tobacco are grown, and in the south, wheat, maize, and other grains. The principal wealth of the country is its herds, and upwards of 3,000,000 hides of horned cattle, and 250,000 horse hides are exported annually. The river La Plata and its tributaries afford thousands of miles of navigable waters, and supply the only facilities for transportation. The main rivers are open to the commerce of the world.

In the mountainous districts, gold, silver, copper, and iron are found, but are not extensively mined, though some of the ores are said to be very rich. Coal is said to be abundant in the south-western provinces.

The number of states or provinces is 13. The chief towns are,—

Population, (1854.)	Population, (1854.)
Buenos Ayres, the capital, . . . 85,000	Corrientes, . . . 12,000
of which number one fifth are foreigners.	Cordova, . . . 15,000
Santiago, . . . 5,000	Mendoza, . . . 12,000
	Tucuman, . . . 12,000
	Salta, . . . 10,000

Civil wars and dissensions for a long time have prevented the improvement and development of this fine country; but it is hoped that a new era has commenced.

URUGUAY.

Area, 75,000 square miles; population, 250,000.

The republic of Uruguay lies north of the River La Plata, and between the River Uruguay and the Atlantic, being bounded north by Brazil. The territory is a vast undulating plain, with the central parts somewhat elevated and broken by ridges and hills of moderate height. The climate is humid, but temperate and healthy. The extensive plains are covered with rich pasturage, and are roamed over by vast herds of cattle and horses, which form the chief source of the wealth of the country. The soil, where cultivated, is good, and wheat and other cereals, maize and other products of the temperate zone, flourish, but the agriculture is rude and limited. Wars with Buenos Ayres and the Argentine Republic have prevented the development of the resources of the country, but the prospect is now more encouraging; and as the laws offer liberal inducements to immigration, Uruguay

may become a rich and thriving country, and Monte Video the commercial emporium of the River Plata.

The chief towns are,—

Population.	Population.
Monte Video, the capital, . . . 15,000	La Colonia, . . . 2,500
	Maldonado, . . .

PATAGONIA.

Area, including islands near the western coast, 350,000 square miles. The population, composed of savages, is unknown, and there are no sufficient data on which to estimate it.

Patagonia comprises all the territory south of the Rio Negro, the southern boundary of La Plata. The Andes extend through Patagonia to the Strait of Magellan, (or Magalhaens,) and among them are several volcanoes. The highest peak known is 8,030 feet high. The eastern part of the country is generally low and level, but there are vast pampas, or table lands, elevated above the lowest plains. There are no settlements of whites.

Terra del Fuego.—This is a large group of islands at the southern extremity of South America, from which they are separated by the Strait of Magellan. They are barren and inhospitable islands, inhabited by savages.

Falkland Islands.—A group of nearly two hundred islands, east of the southern extremity of South America. Only two are of considerable size. The islands are not attractive in appearance, and are destitute of trees, but have a variety of flowering shrubs and plants, and grass. There are numerous herds of wild cattle and horses, the progeny of animals carried there by early Spanish expeditions. The islands belong to the British, who have a settlement in East Falkland, called Stanley.

BOOK XCI.

BRAZIL.

Area, 3,004,460 square miles, or, by other authority, 3,956,800 square miles; population, 6,065,000. In this number are included 3,500,000 slaves, 500,000 free persons of color, and the savage tribes are not included.

The surface of Brazil is about equally divided into upland and lowland, the former comprising the hilly districts and table lands of the eastern, southern, and central parts, and the latter comprising the woody districts of the Amazon and the llanos or plains of the northern and north-eastern parts. There are several mountain ranges of moderate elevation, the principal of which is nearly parallel to the Atlantic coast. The highest mountain peak is the isolated mountain of Itambe, which is estimated to be 8,426 feet high. The river system is hardly equalled in any other country, and affords great facilities for communication and transportation. Steam navigation is now introduced on some of the most important rivers.

Brazil has been famous for its gold and diamonds, being richer in the latter than any other country. The amount of gold found has greatly diminished of late years, the auriferous sands being mostly exhausted.

The most valuable products are the agricultural, coffee and sugar being produced in large quantities; and in the different parts of the country various fruits and grains of the tropics and temperate zones yielding abundantly. The quantity of coffee annually produced is now about 500,000,000 pounds, and is constantly increasing. In 1857, nearly 200,000,000 pounds were exported to the United States, and a little more than that to Europe. The total export of sugar is about 300,000,000 pounds.

The government of Brazil is an empire, but it is a representative and constitutional monarchy, and exceedingly liberal. Education is cared for, internal improvements fostered, the general interests of commerce promoted, the freedom of the press secured, and the elective franchise enjoyed to some extent. Slavery exists, but manumission is easy, and the emancipated slave finds all positions and offices open to him. The stability of the government and its internal peace have given advantages to Brazil not enjoyed by the other South American states, and it is by far the most prosperous and important.

The chief towns are, —

Population, (1850.)	Population, (1850.)
Rio Janeiro, the capital, . . . 170,000	San Paulo, . . . 22,000
sometimes estimated at . . . 400,000	Villa Bella, . . . 15,000
Bahia, . . . 120,000	Para, . . . 10,000
Pernambuco, . . . 38,000	Parahiba, . . . 15,000
Maranhã, . . . 30,000	Villa Rica, . . . 10,000
	Santarem, . . . 10,000

BOOK XCII.

GUIANA.

Area, estimated at 94,000 square miles, (sometimes much larger,) but the boundaries are so uncertain that an accurate estimate is impossible. A portion of what was formerly called Guiana is now comprised within the limits of Brazil. The coast is low and flat, and for a distance varying from 40 to 70 miles the country preserves the same low and flat surface, its average elevation being scarcely above high water, and in some places dikes being necessary to keep out the sea. Beyond that there are low hills, and then an elevated plateau, and occasional ridges and hills, succeeded by another low plain, and in the south-west a chain of mountains of moderate height. The soil is very fertile, and the low lands are covered with water during the rainy season, which leaves a rich deposit. The climate is equable, and not excessively hot, and, except in some localities, is healthy and pleasant. Vegetation is luxuriant, and there is a magnificent growth of timber, much of which is very valuable. The cultivated crops are sugar-cane, tobacco, rice, indigo, maize, coffee, &c. The culture of cotton is now nearly abandoned. Among the native fruits are pine-apples, guavas, cacao, &c.

Guiana is divided into the three colonies of British, Dutch, and French Guiana.

British Guiana, or Demerara. — Area, about 50,000 square miles; population, (1851,) 135,994; of whom 96,467 are whites, 7,682 coolies, and 14,251 negroes, the Indian tribes not being included. The European settlements extend along the coast, and about 50 miles inland on the rivers Demerara, Berbia, and Corentyn. The productions are sugar, molasses, rum, coffee, timber, dyestuffs, &c.

The colony is divided into three counties, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbia.

The chief towns are, —

Population.	Population.
Georgetown, the cap., 25,508	New Amsterdam, 5,000

Dutch Guiana, or Surinam. — Area, about 30,000 square miles; population, (1856,) 52,533, of whom five sixths are negroes. The productions are similar to those of British Guiana.

The chief town is, —

Paramaribo, the capital, population, 20,000

Slavery was abolished in Dutch Guiana in 1851, but the negroes were required to work as apprentices till 1863.

French Guiana, or Cayenne. — Area, 14,000 square miles; population, (1851,) 17,625; a large decrease since 1836, and a decrease of 2,170 since 1846. The soil and general character of the country is like those of the last two, but the climate is not so healthy as that of British Guiana, and the productions are the same, with the addition of pepper and spices. Since 1848 the colony has been a penal settlement.

The chief town is, —

Cayenne, the capital, population, (1853,) 3,000

BOOK XCIII.

WEST INDIA ISLANDS, OR "COLUMBIAN ARCHIPELAGO."

This Archipelago is divided into three groups, the Bahama Isles, the Greater Antilles, and the Lesser Antilles, or Caribbean Isles. Besides these there are several islands along the coast of South America, which are sometimes called the Lesser Antilles. The entire area, including the small islands, is about 90,000 square miles; population, about 3,590,000.

The islands are mostly in the possession of European powers, the extent of whose colonial possessions here on the inhabited islands is as follows: —

	Area in Square Miles.	Population.
British,	13,000	800,000
Spanish,	38,500	1,600,000
French,	1,026	250,500
Dutch,	450	27,000
Danish,	195	41,000
Swedish,	35	18,000

The following table shows the area, population, and dominion of the principal islands: —

BAHAMA ISLANDS.

	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Dominion.
Abaco, Great and Little,	United area about 5,000	United pop. about 26,500	British.
Andros,			
Crooked Isles,			
Eleuthera,			
Exuma, Great and Little,			
Great Bahama,			
Great Key,			
Inague, Great and Little,			
Long Island,			
Mariguana,			
New Providence,			
Providenciales,			
St. Salvador,			
Watting Islands,			

GREATER ANTILLES.

Caymanbrack, }			
Little Cayman, }		200	British.
Great Cayman, }			
Cuba,	34,800	1,096,963	Spanish.
Isle of Pines,	27,600	943,000	Independent.
Hayti,	600	1,400	Spanish.
Jamaica,	4,256	377,433	British.
Porto Rico,	3,000	500,000	Spanish.

LESSER ANTILLES.

Windward, or South Caribbee Islands.

Barbadoes,	166	122,198	British.
Grenada,	125	32,671	
Grenadines,			
St. Lucia,	270	24,318	
St. Vincent,	132	30,128	
Tobago,	970	14,794	
Trinidad,	2,400	68,645	French.
Martinique,	380	121,478	

Leeward, or North Caribbee Islands.

Anguilla,	35	2,934	British.
Antigua,	108	36,405	
Barbuda,	75	1,600	
Dominica,	275	22,200	
Montserrat,	47	7,365	
Nevis,	20	10,200	
Saba,	15	1,617	
St. Christopher,	68	23,133	
St. Eustatius,	190	1,903	French.
Deseadu,			
Guadeloupe,	534	129,050	
Marie Galante,	60	12,749	
Les Saintes,	5	1,100	
St. Martin,	30	7,773	
Santa Cruz,	110	25,600	Danish.

Virgin Islands.

Anegada,	13		British.
Bieque, (Vieque),		211	
Tortola,		8,500	
Virgin Gorda,	20		Danish.
St. Jan,	42	2,560	
St. Thomas,	45	12,800	
Culebra,	18	300	
			Spanish.

SOUTH AMERICAN COAST ISLANDS.

Buenos Ayres,	80	1,955	Dutch.
Curaçoa,	250	15,164	
Omba,			
Tortuga,			
Coche,			
Cubagua, (Cuagua),			Venezuela.
Margarita,	540	15,000	

BAHAMA ISLES.

These number some 500 in all, but many are mere coral rocks. They are the least productive and valuable of the great groups. The chief articles of export are salt, (from Turk's Island, principally,) sponge, dyewoods, mahogany, and a little cotton. Nassau, on the island of New Providence, is the capital; population, 7,000.

GREATER ANTILLES.

Cuba is the largest and richest of the West India Islands. The latest estimates of its area are from 42,383 to 45,277 square miles. A range of mountains extends longitudinally through the island, spreading at the eastern end so as to occupy the greater part of the surface, and reaching an altitude of about 8,000 feet. From the bases of the mountains, or highlands, the country opens into extensive plains and meadows, every where covered with the most luxuriant vegetation of the tropics.

Cuba is not deficient in mineral wealth, though its resources in this respect have not been developed or explored. Copper is mined in considerable quantities, and coal has been found near Havana, but not yet mined to any extent. The climate is equable and generally healthy, the thermometer seldom rising above 82° in summer, or sinking below 55° in winter. The forests abound in valuable timber trees, such as mahogany, cedar, and ebony. The principal cereal crop is the indigenous maize, of which two crops are raised annually. Rice is also grown extensively. The principal crops for export are sugar, coffee, tobacco, with some cotton, indigo, and cocoa. Cattle are also raised in the higher portions of the island. Oranges and other tropical fruits are abundant

In 1852, there were on the island 7,979 tobacco plantations, 1,560 sugar plantations, 1,218 coffee plantations, 5,128 cattle farms, 224 cotton plantations, 34 cocoa plantations, &c.

From 1853 to 1858, the yearly exports of sugars were from 700,000,000 to 750,000,000 pounds. The cultivation of coffee is not so extensive as formerly.

In 1857, there were 397 miles of railroad in *Cuba*, and steamboats ply between the different ports. The electric telegraph extends between the principal towns.

The population of *Cuba*, in 1857, was 1,096,943, of whom 549,674 were whites, 174,810 free colored, and 374,549 slaves. To this may be added 5,240 emancipados, and 5,308 coolies. It is supposed that the census is not complete, the number not reported being chiefly slaves.

The government is vested in a viceroy, who is the head of all departments, civil and military, and is responsible only to the Spanish government.

The chief towns are, —

	Population, (1853.)	Population, (1853.)
Havana,	134,225	Santiago de Cuba, 24,253
Puerto Principe,	26,684	Trinidad, 14,119
Matanzas,	26,000	Guanabucoa, 8,100

Porto Rico, the other principal island belonging to Spain, is the fourth in size of the Greater Antilles. It lies east of Hayti, from which it is separated by the

Mona passage. A range of wooded mountains runs through the island from east to west, the highest peak of which is 3,678 feet high. In the interior are extensive savannas, on which numerous herds are pastured. On the north side are numerous navigable lagoons, but few safe harbors. The soil is every where fertile, though but a small proportion of it is under cultivation, and the climate is more salubrious than in the other islands of the Antilles. Gold is found in some of the streams flowing from the mountains, and copper, iron, lead, and coal have been found, but are not mined in any quantity. The agricultural products are sugar, rum, molasses, coffee, tobacco, rice, hides, dyewoods, timber, &c.

The island is governed by a captain-general, with powers similar to those of the captain-general of Cuba.

The population, by recent estimates, is about 500,000, of whom 50,000 are slaves.

The chief towns are, —

Population.	Population.
San Juan, the capital, (on a small island off the N. coast)	12,000
Guayamas,	5,000
Mayaguez,	

Hayti, or *St. Domingo*. — The second in size of the Greater Antilles, lying south-east of Cuba, from which it is separated by the Windward Passage. The island is very irregular in form, and the numerous indentations of the coast afford many excellent harbors.

There are three chains of mountains connected by transverse chains, and between them are extensive savannas, the principal of which is the Vega Real, or Royal Valley, 130 miles long, and watered by the rivers Yagui and Yuma. The highest mountain peak is in the central chain, and is 7,200 feet high. There are numerous rivers, mostly flowing west, south, or east. Most of them are obstructed by sand bars, and are not navigable. There are many lakes in the island, two of which are salt. The minerals are gold, silver, platinum, mercury, copper, iron, tin, sulphur, manganese, antimony, &c. The gold mines have been abandoned, and but little is done with the other minerals for want of capital and machinery.

The climate is hot and moist, but generally salubrious. The soil is fertile over the entire island. The mountains are covered with the most valuable timber, — mahogany, cedar, lignum-vitæ, &c., — and on the lower grounds are great varieties of tropical fruits, vegetables, and flowering plants. The staple articles of agriculture are coffee, cacao, sugar, indigo, cotton, and tobacco, but the production is not so great as formerly, the natural products of the island being now exported to a greater extent. The island is capable of producing great quantities of all the above articles, but agriculture is in a primitive state, and is pursued without vigor or enterprise.

Hayti has been subject to destructive earthquakes, the last most serious one of which was in 1842, when many towns were destroyed, and thousands of lives were lost.

The island is politically divided into two republics, the black republic of Hayti in the west, and the Dominican republic in the east, corresponding mainly

to the territory of the French and Spanish colonies respectively.

The republic of Hayti contains about 10,000 square miles, and a population estimated at 550,000 to 572,000. The annual value of exports is stated at about \$6,000,000.

The chief towns are, —

Population.	Population.
Port au Prince, the capital,	25,000
Cape Haytien,	6,000
Gonaives,	
Jacmel,	6,000
Jeremie,	5,000

The Dominican republic comprises nearly three fifths of the island, or an area of 17,500 square miles. The population is about 136,000, of whom one tenth claim to be whites, the remainder being of African and mixed descent. The agricultural resources of the republic are very great, and the mineral resources are considerable, but neither are developed. Political disturbances and revolutions have retarded its progress. The most recent is the renewal of the sovereignty of Spain, which has recently been brought about, (1861.)

The chief towns are, —

Population.
San Domingo, the capital,
Santiago de los Caballeros,

Jamaica. — The third in size of the Greater Antilles, and the largest of the British West India Islands, lies south of Cuba. There is a range of mountains, called Blue Mountains, extending through the island, the highest of which are Blue Mountain Peak, 7,770 feet high, and Portland Gap Ridge, 6,501. According to other authorities the highest peaks are 8,184 and 7,656 feet high. From these mountains more than 200 streams flow into the sea, the largest of which, Black River, is navigable for small vessels about 30 miles.

Lead is found in some quantities, and copper, silver, zinc, antimony, iron, and some gold have been found, but, with the exception of copper, are not mined. But the vegetable productions form the chief source of the wealth of the island. The forests furnish quantities of the most valuable timber, as rosewood, satinwood, mahogany, lignum-vitæ, ebony, cedar, logwood, &c. Coffee is cultivated on the high grounds; the low grounds yield abundantly the sugar-cane, cacao, pimento, ginger, indigo, tobacco, plantain, banana, yam, &c., while the pine-apple, orange, lemon, fig, and a variety of other tropical fruits are plentiful; and the grape and apple are also grown in some parts of the island. Sugar, rum, ginger, pimento, and coffee are the principal articles of export, but none of these, except pimento, is exported so extensively as before the emancipation of the slaves, in 1833.

The climate is very hot on the low lands, but among the mountains it is much cooler, and ice is sometimes formed on the highest peaks. On the low lands it is unhealthy, fever and ague prevailing in some parts, and the yellow fever and cholera are sometimes very destructive.

By the census of 1844, (the last previous to 1861,) the population was 377,433, of whom 15,776 are whites, and the remainder negroes and mulattoes. In 1849, Governor Grey estimated the population at

400,000. Between 1840 and 1856, about 18,000 coolies and other emigrants were brought into the island, while in 1850 and 1851 nearly 40,000 persons died of cholera and small pox.

There is a railway from Kingston to Spanish Town, and communication by steam with England semi-monthly. The island is divided into three counties.

The chief towns are, —

	Population.		Population.
Spanish Town, the capital, . . .	7,000	Montego Bay, . . .	4,000
Kingston, . . .	32,000	Falmouth, . . .	
		Port Royal, . . .	

LESSER ANTILLES.

Of the Lesser Antilles, the principal islands of the Windward group belong to the British, with the exception of Martinique, which belongs to the French.

Trinidad is the largest, and is the southernmost of the Lesser Antilles, being at the mouth of the Gulf of Paria, in South America. Much of the island is rugged and mountainous, some of the peaks being 3,000 feet high, but there are extensive plains and savannas. In the south-western part are several mud volcanoes. The island is covered with a perpetual verdure, is well watered, and seldom subject to droughts. The climate is healthy, and the soil is generally very fertile. The mountains are covered with timber of the most valuable kinds, and in the open lands sugar-cane, cocoa, or cacao, coffee, and cotton are grown. The population, in 1851, was 68,645.

The chief town is, —

Port of Spain, the capital, and a beautiful town; pop., 11,700.

Barbadoes is the oldest British colony in the West Indies, and is the residence of the governor of the British possessions in the Windward Islands. Its chief mineral is bituminous coal. It is healthy, and the soil is very fertile. Of 106,470 acres, which the island contains, 100,000 are cultivated, and 40,000 are planted with sugar-cane, of which the yield is abundant, and the export has increased, while in other islands it has decreased. It is very densely populated, and in a flourishing condition.

The chief town is, —

Bridgetown, the capital; population, 25,000

Of the other British islands of the Windward group, —

Tobago is for the most part rocky and rugged, with some fertile valleys, and lowlands and plains in the southern part. The climate is unhealthy. The principal product is sugar. The chief town and capital is Scarborough.

Saint Lucia is of volcanic origin, and has several mountain peaks, which were evidently volcanoes. The soil is very fertile, but the climate is insalubrious. The principal product is sugar. The chief town is Castine, the capital.

Saint Vincent is also of volcanic origin, and has a chain of mountains running through it from north to south, with lateral branches. The low land is very fertile, the principal product being sugar. The chief town is Kingstown, the capital.

Grenada is another volcanic island, with a chain of

mountains extending through it. It is a beautiful island, with a rich soil, well watered and wooded. The principal production is sugar, though cotton was formerly cultivated.

Martinique belongs to the French. It is a volcanic island, with high mountains, and valleys of great fertility. The highest peak is 4,450 feet high, and there are six extinct volcanoes on the island. The principal productions are sugar, coffee, cocoa, and cotton. The chief town is St. Pierre.

In the Leeward Islands the British possess nine. Of these, the most important are as follows: —

Antigua, which has rugged coasts and a diversified interior, with a climate of remarkable dryness. It produces sugar and grain. Chief town and capital, St. John's.

St. Christopher, or *St. Kitts*, an island of volcanic origin, with a high peak in the central part, from which the land slopes on all sides to the sea. The climate is dry and healthy, and the soil fertile and highly cultivated, the principal production being sugar.

Dominica, the most elevated of the Lesser Antilles, the highest peak being 5,314 feet. It has fertile valleys, and abounds in valuable timber. The products are sugar, coffee, cocoa, &c. The other British islands of this group are of less importance.

The French possess four, and part of another in this group. The most important of these is, —

Guadaloupe, which is composed of two distinct islands, separated by Salt River, a narrow stream or strait. The surface is rugged in that part called Guadaloupe Proper, which is of volcanic origin, and there are high mountains, the most prominent of which is La Souffriere, which is 5,108 feet high. The other part is low and flat. The climate is hot and unhealthy; the soil of the valleys is fertile and well cultivated, and in the mountainous parts are fine forests. The chief product is Tahiti and sugar-cane. The island is subject to destructive hurricanes. A severe earthquake took place here in 1843, when Point à Petre, an important seaport, was destroyed, and other places damaged.

St. Martin belongs to the French, and south part to the Dutch. It is a hilly island, and the climate is tolerably healthy. The French portion is the most fertile, sugar being a chief product. Many cattle are also reared. The population of the two colonies is about equal. The other French islands are of little importance.

St. Bartholomew, the only Swedish colony in America, is a small island, quite fertile, but destitute of fresh water. Its products are sugar, cotton, tobacco, and cocoa.

The Danish West India possessions consist of three islands, belonging to the Virgin group, the largest of which is, —

Santa Cruz, or *St. Croix*. — This island is generally flat, and is well watered and fertile. A large proportion of the soil is under cultivation, the principal crop being sugar-cane, though some indigo, coffee, and cotton are raised. Christianstadt is the chief town and capital.

The other Danish islands, *St. John* and *St. Thomas*,

are not very productive, but St. Thomas is a place of great commercial importance, having a free harbor, and being the centre of trade for some of the other islands.

Tortola, the principal British island of the Virgin group, is a hilly island, fertile but unhealthy. The other British islands are of little importance.

The islands on the South American coast are sometimes called the Lesser Antilles, while the Windward and Leeward groups are called the Caribbee Islands. There are seven principal islands, of which the Dutch possess four, and three belong to Venezuela. The only two of importance are *Curaçoa*, (Dutch,) and *Margarita*, (Venezuelan.) *Curaçoa* is somewhat rugged and hilly. Iron and copper are found there, but not mined. The soil is not rich, and is destitute of water, though some sugar, indigo, and cotton are raised. The chief article of export is salt, which is of the finest quality. *Margarita* is arid and barren on the coast, but the interior is fertile, producing maize, sugar, coffee, cotton, &c. There are some minor manufactures, and considerable trade is carried on with some of the West India islands.

BOOK XCIV.

EUROPE.

Area, 3,830,000 square miles; population, about 270,000,000.

The general description of Europe, which is the most fully known of all the grand divisions of the earth, its physical geography, &c., are fully given in the text. The present condition of its political geography is as follows, in the order of the text:—

BOOKS XCVII. — C.

EUROPEAN TURKEY.

Area, including Wallachia, Servia, and Moldavia, 203,628 square miles; population, 15,500,000.

Of the inhabitants, 3,800,000 are Mohammedans.
 11,370,000 Greeks and Armenians.
 260,000 Roman Catholics.
 70,000 Jews.

The tenure of the Ottoman empire in the Danubian provinces is somewhat uncertain, and is still a matter of dispute among the great powers of Europe. It is most probable that the European part of the Ottoman empire, which is not its most important part, and contains but a small proportion of Mohammedans, the natural supporters of the empire, will gradually diminish under its native weakness and the jealousy and influence of the great powers. The present sultan (1862) is, however, introducing reforms which will strengthen his empire.

The chief towns and population are, —

Constantinople; pop., (including suburbs,) about . 800,000

The suburbs of Constantinople, 15 in number, are like independent cities in some respects. About one half the population are Mussulman.

	Population.		Population.
Adrianople, . . .	160,000	Rodosto,	40,000
Salonica,	75,000	Galatz,	36,000
of whom 30,000		Scutari,	40,000
are Jews.		Yaniva,	36,000
Bucharest,	60,700	Belgrade,	30,000
Bosna Serai, . . .	60,000	Shumla,	21,000
Sophia,	50,000	Widin,	25,000

BOOKS CI. — CIII.

HUNGARY. — See AUSTRIA.

BOOKS CIV. — CXII.

RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

Area, 2,142,504 square miles; population, 60,098,821.

Russia is divided as follows, for administrative purposes:—

	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population, (1851.)
Great Russia,	893,913	20,700,497
Little Russia,	81,213	6,046,467
South Russia,	176,329	4,234,329
West Russia,	162,757	8,021,510
Baltic Provinces,	57,809	2,216,936
Finland,	146,489	1,636,915
Kezan,	250,480	6,990,580
Astrakhan,	323,420	5,939,532
Poland,	49,734	4,852,055
Total,	2,142,504	60,098,821

The government of Russia is an absolute monarchy, the supreme power being vested in the czar. Although sometimes termed a despotism, under the late emperors the despotic power has been somewhat relaxed, and the present czar, Alexander II., has taken steps for the emancipation of the serfs. The military power of Russia is greater than that of any other country, the army numbering nearly 800,000 men; and the navy, notwithstanding the limited seacoast and commerce, numbers 60 ships of the line, 37 frigates, 70 corvettes and small vessels, and 40 steamers, the whole carrying 9,000 guns, 42,000 seamen, and 200,000 marines and artillerists.

BOOKS CXIII., CXIV.

POLAND.

This kingdom has been divided between Russia, Austria, and Prussia. Successive partitions occurred from 1772 to 1795, which nominal protectorates finally resulted in the absolute partition, and the parts are now incorporated into the dominions of the above-named powers. The attempt of the Poles to establish their independence in 1830, had the effect to bind the chains more tightly, and the country was then made integral parts of Russia, Austria, and Prussia. The republic of Cracow, established by the allied powers in 1815, existed till 1846, when it was seized by Austria, and incorporated with her portion of Poland, the kingdom of Galicia. A new insurrection has recently occurred, (1863.)

BOOKS CXV., CXVII., CXX.

PRUSSIA.

(Partly included under the head of Germany in the text.)

Area, 109,314 square miles; population, (1852,) 16,935,420.

The principal provinces of Prussia are Prussia Proper, Posen, Brandenburg, Pomerania, Silicia, Saxony, Westphalia, Rhine. The principalities of Hohenzollern have lately been added to Prussia. Of the population, about 10,000,000 are Protestants.

In education, Prussia has taken the lead of the European nations. In 1849, the number of schools established by government was, —

	Teachers.
Elementary schools,	24,201 30,865
Higher schools,	505 2,269
Upper female schools,	385 1,918
Gymnasia,	117 1,664

Pupils attending, 2,605,408; Universities, 7; Normal seminaries, 46.

The army, (regular,) on a peace footing, numbers about 250,000; the Landwehr, or provincial army, numbers about 350,000. The navy consists of about 60 vessels, with 300 guns.

BOOKS CXVI. — CXXIX.

GERMANY.

The area of the states, kingdoms, and principalities of the Germanic Confederation is about 235,000 square miles, and the population about 42,000,000.

The confederation comprises a third part of Austria, nearly all of Prussia, a part of Denmark, (the duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg,) the duchy of Luxemburg, besides twenty-nine independent states and four free cities. The confederation is for defensive purposes and the regulation of commerce, to some extent, and its head is the Emperor of Austria, though there has long been a rivalry between Austria and Prussia for a controlling influence in the confederation. Those parts of the confederation belonging to Austria, Prussia, &c., are more properly comprised under those countries. The twenty-nine independent states and four free cities compose

GERMANY PROPER.

Area, about 90,000 square miles; population, about 16,000,000.

The states of Germany Proper are as follows: —

	Population.
Grand Duchy of Oldenburg,	283,665
Kingdom of Hanover,	1,819,253
Grand Duchies of Mecklenberg Schwerin,	541,450
“ “ “ Strelitz,	99,628
Duchy of Brunswick,	271,208
Kingdom of Saxony,	1,987,832
Duchy of Anhalt Dessau,	90,000
“ “ “ Bernberg,	72,000

	Population.
Principalities Schwarzberg Sondershausen,	60,847
“ “ Rudolstadt,	60,038
Reuss Principalities, old line,	35,159
“ “ new line,	79,824
Kingdom of Bavaria,	4,559,452
Saxon Duchies: Saxe Altenberg,	132,850
“ “ Weimar,	262,524
“ “ Coburg-Gotha,	150,412
“ “ Meiningen,	166,364
Principality of Leichtenstein,	7,360
Kingdom of Wirtemberg,	1,815,686
Principalities of Hohenzollern, (annexed to Prussia,)	65,574
Grand Duchy of Baden,	1,356,943
Hessian States: Hesse Darmstadt,	854,319
“ “ Cassel,	759,751
“ “ Homberg,	24,921
Duchy of Nassau,	429,341
Principality of Waldeck,	59,697
“ “ Lippe Detmold,	106,615
“ “ Lippe Schaumberg,	30,226
Free Cities: Bremen,	74,000
“ “ Hamburg,	200,690
“ “ Frankfort,	77,970
“ “ Lubec,	55,500

The chief towns of Germany are, —

Dresden, capital of Saxonia,	94,092
Hamburg,	161,390
Munich, capital of Bavaria,	95,531
Bremen, the city alone,	53,156
Frankfort,	62,511
Leipsic,	65,370
Nuremberg,	45,381
Hanover, capital of Hanover,	42,484
Brunswick, capital of Brunswick,	42,000
Cassel, capital of Hesse Cassel,	34,547
Stuttgard, capital of Wirtemberg,	30,000
Mayence, or Mentz,	31,345
Darmstadt, of Darmstadt,	27,000
Carlsruhe, capital of Baden,	25,700
Lubec, the city alone,	27,000
Wurzburg,	26,814
Ratisbon,	23,000
Heidelberg,	12,048

BOOKS CXXV. — CXXIX.

AUSTRIA.

Area, about 250,000 square miles; population, about 34,000,000.

The provinces of Austria are, —

Lower Austria,	Silicia,
Upper Austria,	Galicia,
Salzburg,	Bukowina,
Styria,	Dalmatia,
Carinthia,	Venetia,
Carniola,	Hungary,
Littorale,	Servia,
Tyrol and Vorarlburg,	Croatia and Slavonia,
Bohemia,	Transylvania,
Moravia,	Military Frontier.

Lombardy was included in the Austrian empire till 1859, when it was liberated from Austrian rule, and

forms a part of the new kingdom of Italy, reducing the area of Austria about 8,000 square miles, and the population about 2,700,000. Of the population, 7,000,000 are Germans, 15,000,000 Slavonians, 6,000,000 Magyars, 5,000,000 Italians, and the remainder Jews, Gypsies, Tartars, and Greeks.

The army of Austria consists of about 450,000 men in time of peace, which may be increased to 650,000 in time of war. The navy consists of 100 vessels, (mostly small,) with 700 guns.

BOOKS CL.—CIII.

HUNGARY,

Though named as a separate political division, is a part of the Austrian empire, and after the unsuccessful attempt at revolution, in 1848, the Hungarian constitution was abrogated, and it has been made less independent than before. Certain reforms have been instituted in 1861, apparently for the restoration of some of the independence of the ancient kingdom, together with its constitution, but they have not yet proved satisfactory to the Hungarians, and another revolution is not improbable. Croatia and Slavonia, formerly connected with Hungary, together with the Transylvania countries and other provinces, in 1848, were disconnected, and placed under different governments.

Hungary, thus reduced, contains 83,724 square miles, and a population of 7,864,262.

The chief towns are,—

Population.	Population.
Presburg, . . . 38,000	Buda, 40,500
Pesth, (1854) . 100,000	

BOOK CXXX.

SWITZERLAND.

Area, 15,261 square miles; population, 2,390,116. Switzerland still retains its territory and government as established by the congress of Vienna in 1815.

The chief towns and their population, by census of 1850, are,—

	Population.
Basil, in Canton of Basil,	27,313
Berne, " Berne,	27,758
Geneva, " Geneva,	29,108
Lausanne, " Vaud,	20,000
Zurich, " Zurich,	17,040
Lucerne, " Lucerne,	10,068
St. Gall, " St. Gall,	11,234

BOOKS CXXXI.—CXXXVI.

ITALY.

The kingdom of Italy, as established by conquest and revolution in 1859 and 1860, comprises all of the country usually known by that name, except the States of the Church and Venetia, or Venice, and the little republic of San Marino, and the principality of Monaco, both of which latter states are insignificant in extent of territory and population. The several kingdoms and

duchies, except those above named, have been united under the constitutional monarchy of Sardinia, which has thus expanded into the kingdom of Italy. Lombardy was wrested from the Austrians by the Sardinians, aided by the French. The duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Modena were revolutionized with the aid of Sardinia, and annexed to the latter kingdom by popular vote. Naples and Sicily were subsequently annexed in a similar manner. Austria still holds Venetia, and the States of the Church are still under the dominion of the pope, protected by French troops; but the indications are, that these important parts of the country may also be annexed to the new kingdom of Italy. Nice, a city in Piedmont, with its surrounding territory, and a part of Savoy, have been annexed to France.

The kingdom of Italy comprises,—

	Area in Square Miles.	Population.
Piedmont and Sardinia,	28,229	5,090,245
Lombardy, ^a	about 8,000	about 2,700,000
Tuscany, (including Lucca,)	8,586	1,807,000
Parma,	2,766	507,881
Modena,	2,073	605,194
Naples and Sicily,	41,906	8,704,472
Total,	91,560	19,204,742

The capital of the kingdom is Turin; population, 143,157.

The other chief towns and population (1851-2) are,—

Population.	Population
Milan, 161,966	Pisa, 25,000
Naples, 416,475	Lucca, 22,000
Florence, 114,000	Palermo, in Sicily, 167,222
Genoa, 120,000	Messina, " . 97,074
Leghorn, 78,060	Catania, " . 54,167
Parma, 40,900	Cagliari, in Sar-
Modena, 32,000	dinia, 30,000
Piacenza, 29,000	

Monaco, a small principality, between Nice and Genoa, comprising an area of 53 square miles, and containing a population of 6,800, is nominally independent, but virtually under the protection of the king of Italy.

The Papal States, Pontifical States, or States of the Church.—These states occupy the same territory, substantially, in the central part of Italy, as described in the text. Area, 17,210 square miles; population, (1850,) 3,006,771.

The chief towns and population are,—

Population, (1852.)	Population, (1852.)
Rome, 175,838	Ancona, 36,000
Bologna, 75,000	

San Marino, a small republic, comprising only 22 square miles, and containing a population of 7,600, is surrounded by the Papal States.

Austrian Italy now comprises the territory of Venetian Italy, Lombardy having been annexed to Sardinia, and now forming a part of the kingdom of Italy. Area,

^a The boundaries do not exactly correspond with those of the former Austrian province of Lombardy.

about 17,800 square miles. The population of the territory is about 2,300,000.

The chief towns are,—

	Population.		Population.
Venice,	127,900	Vicenza,	33,000
Verona,	48,000	Mantua,	30,600
Padua,	60,000		

Islands,—

	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
Sardinia,	9,235	552,665
Sicily,	10,500	2,041,583
Lipari Islands,		22,000

belong to the kingdom of Italy, together with some smaller islands.

Book CXXXVIII.

PORTUGAL.

Area, 35,268 square miles ; pop., (1850,) 3,471,203.
The chief towns are,—

	Population.		Population.
Lisbon, the cap.,	280,000	Oporto,	80,000
Braga,	17,000	Elvas,	16,460

Portugal has valuable and extensive colonies, as follows:—

	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
Azores and Madeira,	1,448	343,572
In Africa,	530,112	997,130
In Asia and Oceanica,	29,064	1,356,545

Book CXXXIX.

SPAIN.

Area, 193,244 square miles ; population, (1860,) 15,688,000.

Spain is now divided into 49 provinces, including the Canary and Balearic Islands, (Majorca, Minorca, Ivica,) for administrative purposes.

The chief towns are,—

	Population, (1849-50.)		Population, (1849-50.)
Madrid, the cap.,	260,700	Granada,	61,610
Barcelona,	121,815	Cadiz,	53,920
Seville,	100,498	Cordova,	41,976
Murcia,	55,000	Saragossa,	30,000
Valladolid,	30,000	Santiago,	29,000
Malaga,	68,577	Carthagena,	28,000

The colonial possessions of Spain are,—

	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
In West Indies,	39,779	1,511,660
In Asiatic Islands,	52,148	2,679,500
In Africa,	516	17,071
In Oceanica,	592	

During the last fifteen or twenty years, Spain, having been comparatively free from internal dissensions,

has increased in prosperity and national power, although her policy is by no means a liberal one.

BOOKS CXL. — CXLVI.

FRANCE.

Area, including Corsica, 200,671 square miles ; population, (1852,) 35,779,222.

The province of Nice, or department of Maritime Alps, was annexed to France, by treaty, in 1860, adding some 40,000 to the population. It had, at different periods, previously belonged to France.

The foreign or colonial possessions of the French empire are as follows:—

	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
Algeria,	90,000	2,119,264
In West Africa, (Senegal,)		14,876
Bourbon, (island in Indian Ocean,)	1,000	108,000
St. Marie, " " "		4,000
Asiatic Possessions,		170,000
In West Indies, (Martinique, Guadeloupe, St. Martin, Saintes Group, &c.)	1,200	270,718
In South America, (Guiana,)	27,560	19,795
St. Pierre and Miquelon, (islands on coast of N. America, near Newfoundland,)	85	2,000
In Oceanica, (the Marquesas, Taiti, New Caledonia, &c.) area and population unknown.		

The imports into France, in 1851, were \$231,600,000 in value, of which \$27,400,000 were from the United States, and \$24,400,000 from Great Britain. The exports for the same year amounted to \$325,800,000, of which \$54,600,000 were to the United States, and \$59,000,000 to Great Britain. The exports of silks amounted to upwards of \$40,000,000 ; of wines, to \$16,000,000. In 1853, the number of miles of railway in operation was 2,303, and 1,100 miles were in course of construction.

Under the Emperor Napoleon III. the military power of France has been increased, and is one of the most formidable, though not the greatest numerically, in Europe. The army numbers upwards of 400,000 men. The navy comprises 300 sail vessels, including upwards of 50 of the very largest class, and nearly 200 steam vessels, many of the largest class, and several steel or iron plated.

The chief towns in France are,—

	Population.		Population.
Paris,	1,053,262	Lyons,	156,169
Marseilles,	192,527	Bordeaux,	130,927
Calais,	100,000	Rouen,	100,265
Nantes,	96,360	Toulouse,	93,379
Toulon,	69,500	Strasbourg,	64,875
St. Etienne,	56,000	Nismes,	53,619
Amiens,	52,149	Nancy,	45,200
Orleans,	41,000	Montpellier,	37,600
Avignon,	35,890	Versailles,	35,500
Brest,	61,160	Dijon,	32,256
Grenoble,	31,500	Le Havre,	30,000
Cherbourg,	28,100		

BOOKS CXLVII., CXLVIII.

SCANDINAVIAN PENINSULA.—KINGDOM OF NORWAY AND SWEDEN.

Norway and Sweden, with separate constitutions, are united under one king.

Norway. — Area, 123,386 square miles; population, 1,330,000.

Chief towns, —

	Population.		Population.
Christiana, the capital,	26,140	Drontheim,	12,800
Bergen,	25,600	Christiansand,	8,800
		Dranmen,	8,100

Sweden. — Area, 170,096 square miles; population, (1851,) 3,482,541.

Chief towns, —

	Population.		Population.
Stockholm, the capital of the United Kingdom,	93,070	Gottenburg,	28,758
		Carlsrona,	12,000
		Malmö,	10,503

BOOK CXLIX.

DENMARK.

The kingdom of Denmark, including the peninsula of Jutland, the islands in the Baltic, and the duchies of Sleswick, Holstein, and Lauenburg, comprise an area of 23,642 square miles; population, 2,106,500.

Besides the above, Denmark has possessions as follows: —

	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
Iceland,	38,400	57,500
Feröeland,		8,100
Santa Cruz, St. Thomas, and San Juan, in West Indies,	188	41,000
Cocobar Islands, in Indian Ocean,	640	6,000

Chief towns are, —

	Population, (1852.)		Population, (1852.)
Copenhagen, the capital,	133,140	Flensburg,	16,500
Arona,	32,500	Kiel,	15,000
		Sleswick,	12,000

BOOK CL.

BELGIUM.

Area, 11,400 square miles; population, 4,359,090.

Belgium was united with Holland, under the king of the latter, by the allied powers, in 1815; but, in

1830, the Belgians revolted, and established an independent constitutional monarchy, of great liberality.

Eight ninths of the territory of Belgium is profitably occupied for agriculture or other purposes.

Chief towns, —

	Population.		Population.
Brussels, the capital, (1857,)	166,801	Bruges,	50,000
Ghent, "	108,925	Liege,	66,500
Antwerp, (1855,)	79,000	Mechlin,	27,500

BOOK CLI.

HOLLAND, OR KINGDOM OF NETHERLANDS.

Area, 13,643 square miles; population, including Luxembourg, (1853,) 3,962,290.

The grand duchy of Luxembourg is attached to the Netherlands, though in some respects independent. Its possession constitutes the king a member of the German Confederation.

The Dutch colonial possessions are extensive, as follows: —

	Sq. Miles.	Population.
In Asia and Asiatic islands,	556,522	16,974,097
In South America and West Indies,	60,372	90,581
In Africa,	10,664	100,000

Making a total population, including the kingdom proper, of 21,126,968.

Chief towns, —

	Population.		Population.
Amsterdam, the capital,	228,800	Utrecht,	49,176
Rotterdam,	88,850	Groningen,	31,000
The Hague,	72,467	Haarlem,	26,000

BOOKS CLII. — CLVII.

THE BRITISH ISLES;

OR, THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND,

Consists of the large islands of Great Britain and Ireland, and several smaller islands and groups lying between the North Sea and Atlantic Ocean, and the channels.

The area of Great Britain and Ireland is 120,416 square miles. Great Britain contains 87,903 square miles; Ireland, 32,513. The combined area of the other islands is about 9,000 square miles.

Population of the United Kingdom, according to the Census of 1861.

	Population Enumerated.		Increase in 1861.		Decrease in 1861.	
	1861.	1851.	Persons.	Rate per cent.	Persons.	Rate per cent.
England and Wales,	20,061,725	17,927,609	2,134,116	12		
Scotland,	3,061,117	2,888,742	172,375	6		
Ireland,	5,764,543	6,552,385			787,842	12
Islands in the British Seas,	143,779	143,126	653			
Total of the United Kingdom,	29,031,164	27,511,862	2,307,144		787,842	

Net increase, 1,519,302, or 6 per cent.

The following are some of the principal towns, and the population^a:—

In England.

	Population.		Population.
London, . . .	2,362,236	Norwich, . . .	68,706
Liverpool, . . .	376,000	Leicester, . . .	60,584
Manchester, (in- cluding Sal- ford,) . . .	401,321	Bath, . . .	54,240
Birmingham, . . .	232,841	Nottingham, . . .	57,407
Leeds, . . .	171,805	Plymouth, . . .	52,221
Sheffield, . . .	135,310	Wolverhampton, . . .	49,985
Bristol, . . .	137,328	Derby, . . .	40,609
Greenwich, . . .	105,784	Macclesfield, . . .	39,048
Newcastle upon Tyne, . . .	87,784	York, . . .	36,303
Hull, . . .	82,520	Southampton, . . .	35,305
Portsmouth, . . .	72,096	Cheltenham, . . .	35,000
Brighton, . . .	69,673	Exeter, . . .	32,500
Preston, . . .	69,550	Yarmouth, . . .	31,000
		Cambridge, . . .	27,803
		Oxford, . . .	27,843
		Worcester, . . .	27,500

In Scotland.

Edinburgh, . . .	158,015	Paisley, . . .	47,952
Glasgow, . . .	347,000	Leith, . . .	30,676
Dundee, . . .	78,829	Perth, . . .	23,835
Aberdeen, . . .	73,400	Montrose, . . .	15,000
Greenock, . . .	36,689	Kilmarnock, . . .	21,447

In Wales.

Merthyr-Tydvil, . . .	63,080	Caermarthen, . . .	10,500
Swansea, . . .	24,902	Bangor, . . .	9,500
Cardiff, . . .	18,351		

In Ireland.

Dublin, . . .	254,850	Belfast, . . .	120,000
Cork, . . .	84,485	Limerick, . . .	55,268
Galway, . . .	24,697	Waterford, . . .	25,297
Sligo, . . .	11,209	Kilkenny, . . .	20,283

The smaller islands belonging to Great Britain are,—

^a By the census of 1851, the details of the last census not having been received.

Shetland Isles, comprising about 100 islands, and a large number of rocky islets. About 30 are inhabited, and 70 used for grazing. Area, 5,300 square miles; population, 31,000.

Orkney Isles, comprising 29 inhabited islands, 38 grazing islets, and numerous rocks. Area, 600 square miles; population, 30,500.

Hebrides, comprising 160 islands, 70 of which are inhabited. Estimated area, 3,180 square miles; population, about 100,000.

Scilly Isles, consisting of about 100 small islands and rocks, only six of which are inhabited. Area, about 40 square miles; population, 3,000.

Isle of Wight. Area, 136 square miles; population, 50,324.

Anglesea, (a county of Wales.) Area, about 270 square miles; population, 50,891. It is connected with the main land by a splendid suspension bridge across the Menai Strait, and also by the Britannia Tubular Bridge, on which a railroad track is laid,—opened in 1849.

Holyhead, a small island near Anglesea, from which it may be reached by a ford at low water.

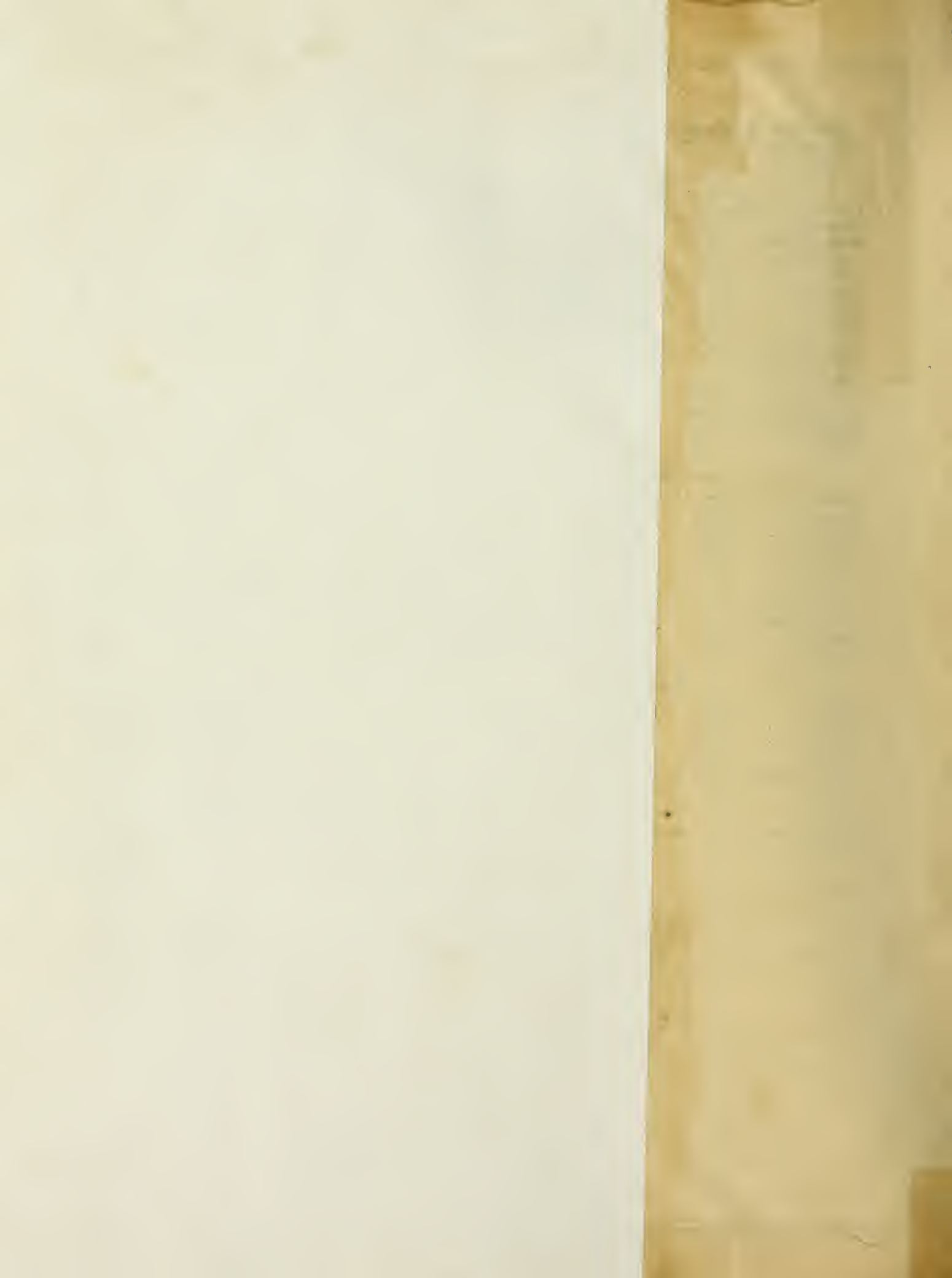
Isle of Man.—Area, 280 square miles; population, 52,000.

The colonial possessions of the British Empire are far more extensive than those of any other power, and make it the greatest empire of the world. Its possessions are,—

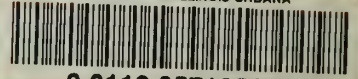
In Europe.—

	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
Helgoland, in North Sea,	5	2,300
Gibraltar, a military station,	1	13,123
Malta and Gozo,	130	119,247
Ionian Islands,	1,092	219,797
<i>In Africa</i> ,	135,799	940,426
<i>In Asia</i> ,	1,472,837	172,684,616
<i>In America</i> ,	3,194,790	3,634,874
<i>In Australasia</i> ,	3,431,156	632,213

Making the total area of the British Empire 8,356,781 square miles, and the population 205,884,357.



UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS-URBANA



3 0112 057105667